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ERRATA.

Page 1, col. i., line 3. For "Fourth of July" read "third." Line 7. For "ight" read "flight."

Page 71, col. ii., line 9 from bottom. For "Baltimore" read "Philadelphia."

Page 214, col. ii., line 3 from bottom. For "every" read "[illegible]"

Page 225, col. ii., line [illegible]. For "Douce" read "Dow[illegible]"

Page 358, col. i., line 34. Interchange "6" and "7."

Page 391, col. ii., line [illegible]. For "[illegible] H. Russell" read "Harp[illegible]"

Page 410, col. ii., line [illegible]. For "Memoirs" read "Me[illegible]"

Page 416, col. ii., line [illegible] from bottom. For "scientific" read "[illegible]aci-entific." Col. iii., line [illegible]. For "researches" read "reser[illegible]"

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 7, 1898.

The Week.

The war made a huge stride during the week in the destruction of Admiral Cervera's fleet on the Fourth of July, while attempting to escape from the harbor of Santiago, with the miraculous counterloss of but a single man killed on our own fleet. The fight was a natural consequence of the impending siege of the city by Gen. Shafter's forces, which have suffered heavily from the enemy and the elements. In the East, the first reinforcement has reached Admiral Dewey, by way of the Ladrone Islands, where the Governor was made a prisoner, in token of our policy of *beati possidentes*. Camara, meanwhile, is traversing the Suez Canal.

Authentic accounts from several different sources appear to leave no doubt that our Cuban allies at Santiago have acted like savages. Stories of prisoners fired on and decapitated, of the dead mutilated, of quarter refused to drowning sailors, come with too much particularity to be disbelieved, incredible as one would gladly regard them. Our own officers have had to threaten the Cubans with a volley to prevent their frightful barbarity. We hope our commanders will go beyond threats, if occasion calls for it, and shoot down wild beasts wherever found, whether calling themselves Spanish guerillas or Cuban patriots. This irrepressible savagery of the Cuban insurgents is even more disheartening than their apparent failure to do any effective fighting, at which our War Department is said to be so bitterly disappointed. The horrid tales coming to us now throw a lurid light on the glib talk of "Cuba Libre" and its beneficent rule, in which Foraker and the others indulged before the war. We were simply to expel the Spanish troops, and then turn the country over to the insurgents. It is evident now that this would have been like turning it over to so many Bashi-Bazuks. And how remote appears just now that "stable government" which we were going to set up so easily in Cuba. Unluckily, we went to war first, and learned what we were fighting for afterwards.

The pinch of war t xes is beginning to be felt, and in son ases it is unexpectedly severe. T eat express companies, it is said, p osed in the first place to pay the sta tax on their bills of lading or receip The tax is only one cent, a sum does not sound alarmingly oppre Upon calculation, however, these nies found that this little tax would amount to 3 per cent. on their entire capital. As this would almost cut their dividends in two, they were obliged to reconsider their action, and have now determined that the cost of the stamp shall be paid by the shipper of the goods. Some of the merchants are up in arms at this decision, and propose to compel the express companies to change it. The argument of these merchants is that the statute requires the transportation companies to give bills of lading when they receive goods for shipment, and also requires these receipts to be stamped. As it is the duty of the companies to issue valid receipts, they must stamp them before they issue them. The statute, however, merely says that "there shall be duly attached and cancelled" a stamp. It does not say by whom it shall be attached or who shall pay for it. There is a general provision in section 6 for the collection of stamp taxes from any person who makes, signs, or issues a document, or for whose use or benefit it is made or issued, which seems clearly to leave it for the parties to decide which one shall pay for the stamp. It is doubtful whether it is not more for the interest of shippers to pay for the stamps than to insist that the express companies shall pay for them. The situation of these companies is peculiar in this respect, that their contracts with the railroads provide for payments in proportion to their gross receipts, the proportion being from 40 to 50 per cent. If the express companies pay the stamp tax, they will have to raise their rates; and as they will have to divide the increase with the railroads, they will have to raise the rates by twice the stamp tax in order to indemnify themselves. The case is a striking illustration of the tendency of taxes to descend with accumulated weight on the head of the ultimate consumer—a tendency which will make itself felt throughout our whole system of transportation.

A speech on the issues of the day by "the leader of the House," on his tenth successive nomination for Congress, is an event of national interest. Contrary to his own usual habit, and that of his Maine associates, Mr. Dingley went down to Lewiston this time to accept in person the candidacy which his constituents again gave him unanimously, according to the Maine custom, and his remarks on the occasion should reach a larger audience than the delegates to the convention or the readers of the Lewiston *Journal*. It is not necessary to quote at length what Mr. Dingley said about the Dingley law. As a matter of course, he is perfectly satisfied with that measure, and he went so far as to say that, "before the country was plunged into war, it was demonstrated, first, that this new tariff would produce ample revenue to meet the peace expenditures of the Government, on the scale of expenditure of 1897, in place of the large deficiency between 1893 and 1897; and, secondly, that this protective policy restored was rapidly recuperating the industries and business of the country, "although unfortunately the rapid improvement experienced for many months has been seriously retarded by the advent of war." Mr. Dingley made repeated recognition of the assistance furnished by Sound-Money Democrats in the House to the Republicans in rejecting unsound financial measures sent over by the Senate, and added:

> "The repeated and substantially solid vote of the Republican Senators and Representatives, aided by Sound-Money Democrats, in favor of keeping all our currency, whether paper or silver, as good as gold, and the repeated nearly solid vote of the Chicago-platform Democracy for measures clearly calculated to depreciate our currency, give new emphasis to the financial issue on which the country spoke so unmistakably two years ago, and on which the people propose to speak more decidedly in the Congressional elections of the present year and in the Presidential election two years ahead."

The most important part of Mr. Dingley's speech was that which discussed the war and the new questions growing out of it. The "beneficent results to us as a nation" which he discerns are that "it has certainly buried for ever the animosities of the four years' civil war, and in two months has welded together as never before the people of the North and South; it has already impressed upon other nations, as nothing else could, the fact that this republic is one of the great Powers of the world, entitled to consideration second to no nation on earth; and, lastly, it has afforded an opportunity—as only a just war can—for the exhibition of the ennobling qualities of self-sacrifice, patriotic devotion, and heroism which dignify manhood and check the growth of sordid avarice and selfishness." As to what may follow the war, Mr. Dingley refers to the "fears that the people of this country may be so intoxicated with the demonstration of their power as to change the peaceful and unambitious policy which has heretofore prevailed, and induce the country to enter upon the policy of aggression, colonial expansion, and empire," and says that he "can appreciate the gravity of such fears honestly entertained." He holds that "nothing has thus far occurred to change the declaration of Congress when this war was accepted, that our purpose in waging it is not territorial expansion, but to promote the interests of humanity and liberty"; but adds that "whether these

interests will make it necessary to permanently hold any of the islands which we may wrest from Spain, time alone can determine." He hastens to explain that the annexation of Hawaii is an altogether different matter from the permanent retention of territory hitherto owned by Spain; that it is only "the outcome of a policy advocated by our leading statesmen and military and naval strategists for half a century, simply on the ground that the Sandwich Islands are a part of our system and essential for the defence of the Pacific Coast—a necessity made strikingly apparent by the events of the war—and has no relation to the permanent acquisition of territory and countries outside of our system." Altogether it is obvious enough that the advocates of an imperial policy need not fear any effective opposition from the leader of the House.

Senator Hoar of Massachusetts made a characteristic exhibition of himself on Tuesday. He comes from a State in which both the traditions of the past and the intelligent opinion of the present are arrayed against the policy of annexing distant territory inhabited by people of other races. He evidently sympathizes with this opposition to an imperial policy, and shares the fears of thoughtful men among his constituents as to the effect upon the nation of the new departure now proposed. But he does not want to cut loose from his party, which has recently voted all but unanimously in the House for the annexation of Hawaii; or to take issue with the McKinley Administration, which, for some reason not yet revealed, is pushing the scheme with the utmost zeal. So the Massachusetts Senator compromises with his conscience by condemning "the acquisition of dominion over barbarous archipelagoes in distant seas" as fraught with "the most serious danger the people of the United States have encountered in all their history," and approving the acquisition of a group of islands 2,000 miles away from our western coast, inhabited by people who are admittedly unfit to govern themselves—on the ground that the offence is so little, and that "the population is not equal to one of our third-rate cities." The men who favor keeping all the Spanish territory that we can lay hands on will welcome this evidence that they have nothing to fear from either of the Massachusetts Senators, Lodge being, of course, with them, and Hoar capable of getting up a lot of excuses for surrendering his convictions when the pinch comes.

Mr. Loud of California is one of the few members of Congress who make occasional attempts to limit its extravagance. It cannot be said that he has hitherto been successful; his supporters are few and his opponents are many. But he does succeed in bringing abuses to public notice, and this is the first condition of all reform. As a member of the committee on claims for four years his testimony as to the manner in which claims are carried through Congress is competent, and it is certainly interesting. It is the usual practice for the claims committee to report favorably a claim so reported by the committee of the preceding Congress. In accordance with this practice Mr. Loud, when he first entered Congress, gave his approval to a claim for $40,000 arising from the condemnation of some property in the region of the great lakes for the purposes of a canal. The claim, he states, was one of the most perfect he ever saw. There was not a flaw in it, and it had been unanimously approved by a number of committees. Mr. Loud, however, became suspicious, and on investigating the matter in the records of the War Department he discovered a remarkable state of facts. In the first place, the claimant had no title at all to the land condemned by the Government. In the second place, the value of the land was never more than $25. Finally, the claimant was the chief promoter of the scheme for having the Government construct the canal at a cost of some $50,000. It is hard to say which is more amazing—the audacity of a man who would have the Government construct a canal for the sake of obtaining from it $40,000 as damages for taking worthless land that did not belong to him, or the incompetence of committees of Congress that report such claims favorably.

As the entanglements of our Government abroad are likely to be serious, it is well to dispose of our domestic difficulties at once, and the action of the Senate in providing for a final settlement of the Pacific railroad claims is commendable. A committee to consist of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of the Interior, and the Attorney-General is to have the matter in charge, its action to be subject to the approval of the President. No settlement shall be made which does not stipulate for the payment of the principal of the debt with the unpaid interest in full. A period of ten years is allowed for the completion of the payments, which are to be in equal semi-annual instalments, and until paid the debt is to bear not less than 3 per cent. interest. With characteristic ineptitude, Senator Morgan attempted to involve this settlement with the construction of the Nicaragua Canal, but only succeeded in wasting a little time. The Senate was for once in the mood for business, and thus quietly accepted a businesslike measure. The Populists probably think that there will be no lack of horrible themes with which to rouse their constituents, and it must be admitted that it is not easy to state the complicated relations between the Government and the Pacific railroads in such a way as to fire the popular heart. It seems that, after all, the Government may get back the money which it loaned, with interest—a consummation that no one would have thought possible a short time ago. If this can be done, the country ought to be thankful to have the matter disposed of, particularly as the method adopted prevents all fraud and removes the subject from politics.

Another Executive will appoint black men to command black troops—Gov. Leedy of Kansas. He is the first Governor beyond the Mississippi to adopt this policy, and the fifth in the country, the others being the Executives of Massachusetts, Indiana, Virginia, and North Carolina. Sectionally, they represent the extreme East, the middle West, the trans-Mississippi region, and the upper South. Politically, they stand two Republicans (the representatives of Massachusetts and Indiana), one Democrat (the Virginian), one Populist (Leedy), and one Populist-Republican (Russell of North Carolina). The Governor of Alabama, who is a Democrat, but no stronger a Democrat than Virginia's, refuses to appoint any but white officers for the negro troops of that State. Some other Governors, both South and North, have not yet absolutely committed themselves either way. Meanwhile, it is a significant fact that public sentiment everywhere becomes all the while more pronounced in favor of fair play, and in endorsement of Gov. Tyler of Virginia, who holds that "to pursue any other course than the one he has marked out for himself would be a violation of his oath of office, wherein he is pledged to make no discrimination on acount of race or color." A noteworthy illustration of this tendency is the commendation of the policy by the chief Democratic newspaper of South Carolina. The Charleston *News and Courier* the other day received a letter from a clergyman expressing the hope that at least one regiment of colored soldiers would be mustered into the United States volunteer army from South Carolina, and it not only gave its cordial endorsement to the suggestion, but announced its conviction that the colored soldiers ought to go to the front under their own officers, since, "'if they are good to obey, some of them will be efficient to command," and it would be "only fair to give them some of the emoluments and honors which go with the shoulder-straps."

As we mentioned, in passing, the extraordinary (and to us incredible) deliverance regarding "imperialism" which Gen. Merritt was reported to have made at a dinner in San Francisco some weeks ago, we are glad to give currency to the denial that he used the language attri-

buted to him. Gen. Merritt was represented to have said: "I believe in the new national policy of the United States, which looks to the acquisition of additional territory representing the outlying islands that are requisite for the development of national strength and growth." Mayor Phelan, who gave the dinner, now says that neither were these words uttered by Gen. Merritt, nor were any such sentiments as they embody expressed by him; and no reporters were present.

The effect of the war upon politics in this State is watched with some anxiety by our bosses. Platt is said to be somewhat nervous lest hostilities may cease soon enough to allow Lieut.-Col. Roosevelt to get back here, with his reputation of a fighter who knows not fear, and who conducted himself like a seasoned veteran in his first battle, in time for a nomination for Governor. That would be a result of the war which would create havoc in the Platt system of government, the like of which would find no parallel save in that of Cervera's fleet under the fire of Sampson's guns. While Platt is thus worrying lest the war may give him a candidate whom he does not want, Croker is said to be looking for a candidate with a war record, and to be ordering aspirants for the nomination to get into the field in some capacity or other, in order that the ticket may have the benefit of a military reputation to help it through. Efforts were made in the Tammany observance of the Fourth to get the organization into line with the war, but they were not conspicuously successful. The chief orator was so far behind the times that he devoted himself mainly to repeating last year's denunciation of England, apparently oblivious of the fact that the proper thing now is to love England. When he asked what England had to give us, a voice from the back of the hall shouted "Civilization," and the effect was paralyzing.

The resolution which Gen. Wager Swayne drew, and which the anti-machine Republican organization adopted unanimously last week, expresses admirably the fundamental objections to the plan which Gov. Black is considering for a change in our election laws. It declares:

> "The policy of committing to political parties as such the control of popular elections is essentially inimical and dangerous to republican institutions. No such right and no such need can exist without impeaching the fidelity and diligence of the people as a whole. It is contrary alike to government of the people, by the people, and for the people. It gives two political combinations a distinct preference in law to which no class of people are separately entitled, and gives also such combinations opportunity for self-perpetuation and aggrandizement, which may at any time conflict with popular supremacy."

This is the view of a man who is not only a stalwart Republican but an able lawyer, and it should have great weight with the Governor. It is absurd to say that it should have weight with the Platt majority of the Legislature, for nothing has weight with that extraordinary collection of persons except "what the old man wants." They, however, can take no action in the matter unless the Governor shall recommend them to do so; so that the full responsibility rests upon him.

The decision of the Appellate Division on the effect of the civil-service law of 1898 upon the civil-service provisions of the new charter is something of a surprise. It is an unexpected triumph for the learned Whalen, for it supports his contentions as disputed by the Civil-Service-Reform Association, and leaves the local Civil-Service Commission free to make its own rules and regulations without asking the approval of the State Commission. The decision seems to be out of harmony with former decisions of the Court of Appeals, but this may not be the case. The matter will doubtless be carried to the latter court for final decision, and the result will be awaited with intense interest by both Tammany men and the incumbents of "places" in the city service who do not enjoy Tammany protection, for if the local commission is really supreme, there will be no difficulty in the making of such regulations as will bring about a "clean sweep."

The enemies of the Australian ballot system throughout the country were recently gladdened by the news that the Delaware Legislature, just before its adjournment, had passed a bill which practically undid the reform, so far as it had been carried in that State, and would allow the political machines to resume their old control over the printing and distribution of the tickets. But Delaware has a new constitution now, under which the signature of the Governor is necessary to validate any measure left in his hands upon the adjournment of the law-makers, and it has also a Governor who recognizes his responsibility as a part of the law-making power. Gov. Tunnell has announced that the objectionable bill "is in the morgue," and the attempt to overthrow the secret ballot has thus failed. This was the first time that the professional politicians, who everywhere fought the introduction of the Australian ballot, had ever made any headway towards abolishing the new system, and the final failure of their scheme is cause for rejoicing outside of Delaware, as well as within that State.

Speaker Reed cannot make the Republican party in the House of Representatives accept his platform that "empire can wait," but his influence in Maine is still potent enough to restrain his fellow partisans in that State from endorsing the imperial policy. The most striking feature of the Republican State convention at Augusta last week was the entire silence of all concerned regarding the questions of annexing Hawaii and of retaining Spanish territory which may come into our possession during the war. Not one word was said upon either of these questions by any of the orators, nor did the platform make the most remote allusion to them. Indeed, the resolutions were remarkably few and brief. Beyond endorsing the present Governor, who was renominated, the State delegation in Congress, and President McKinley, especially for his "wisdom in the management of the Cuban question," expressing grateful appreciation of the valor of the army and navy, and pledging protection and care to the wives and children of those who had gone to the war, the single plank of interest beyond the borders of the State was this: "A currency for business and labor, for the soldier and the pensioner, that is as good as gold the world over."

There is a refreshing contrast between the shirking of the financial issue by the Republicans of President McKinley's own State and the pronounced position in favor of the gold standard assumed by the same party in Iowa. Conventions for the nomination of Congressmen are now being held in the latter State, and the noteworthy feature about them is the bold and explicit character of the financial resolutions in the platforms which the Republicans are adopting. Here is the admirable delaration made by the convention in the First District last week:

> "We declare ourselves in favor of the present monetary standard of gold, the standard of the commercial world, and we demand such legislation by the Congress of the United States as will secure the enactment of this principle into law; we are unalterably opposed to the free coinage of silver or any other scheme for the depreciation, debasement, or cheapening of our currency, or the lessening of its purchasing power."

This demand for legislation which will establish the gold standard beyond all possibility of danger, seems to prevail throughout the State of Iowa. The Republican newspapers heartily endorse the passage of such resolutions, which many of them have been earnestly advocating. A well-informed correspondent in Iowa writes us that some of the Republican Congressmen from that State wanted to shirk the financial issue, and that "urgent requests came from Washington to keep mum—do nothing but wave the flag and demand the vigorous prosecution of the war, and the Nicaraguan Canal! But," he adds, "the people would not have it so; they are demanding that the word 'gold' be put in the platform, and that Congress act."

SANTIAGO, AND AFTER.

No more dramatic and happy revulsion of feeling than that which occurred between Sunday night and Monday morning ever marked our national life. Gen. Shafter's despatch announcing that he had exhausted his offensive power in attaining the advanced positions so dearly won, was depressing, if not discouraging. No one doubted that we should finish the work to which he had put our hand; but the prospect was one of delay for reinforcements, and further exposure of our gallant men to attack by the enemy and to more dreaded dangers of climate and disease. The American people bade fair, therefore, to come to their national holiday with a sense of disaster almost comparable to that of the Spaniards on *their* national holiday—May 2—when the news from Manila reached them. But the short telegram in the morning papers of July 4, positively telling of the destruction of Cervera's fleet, at once changed gloom to joy and created for the day a patriotic climax of an extraordinary kind.

Our first thoughts flew, of course, to the fleet and its dazzling success. In four hours' fighting it had seen the labor and waiting and patience of six weeks gloriously crowned. The victory seems incredibly complete. It is really far more wonderful than Dewey's achievement in Manila Bay. In his case there was the element of a night surprise and of an antagonist feeble at best. But off Santiago there was a battle waged on terms chosen by the Spanish Admiral himself—desperately chosen, it is true—and in which the enemy had four fighting-ships of great speed and powerful batteries. Yet, at the close of the contest, they all lay wrecked and burning in the breakers; more than half their crews, including Cervera himself, were prisoners; and Sampson could report our loss as only one man killed and two wounded. This astounding result, coming within two months after the world was rubbing its eyes at Dewey's victory, gives our navy a record of triumph quite without parallel.

The comparative inefficiency of the Spanish navy does not detract from the credit due ours, if it does go far to explain the amazing one-sidedness of the battle. Capt. Sigsbee put his finger on the truth when he said that it was not so much a question of ships and guns as of drill and discipline. The Spanish ships were, of their class, better than any of ours. Their guns were of terrible power. But the patient gun-drill three times a week, by which the deadly gunnery of our crews had been acquired was unknown in the Spanish navy, and in the stress of battle its splendid fighting-machines went to the bottom for lack of disciplined handling. This is the great naval lesson of the Santiago seafight. It was the victory of skill and coolness born of infinite painstaking and long training. At the same time it is highly probable that the fleet would not have been destroyed as it was had it not been for the work of the army. It seems certain that what forced Cervera to leave the harbor was the holding by our soldiers of heights commanding it. He himself is reported to have said that he knew he should be overwhelmed by our ships, but that he preferred to take his chances at sea rather than "die like a rat in a hole." That, at any rate, was his situation, and it was the splendid courage and dashing charges of our army which forced him to bolt from his hole. So we are not to think of all those lives as thrown away. If the thing had to be done, it was done in the only way possible; and the valor and indomitable constancy of our men on shore contributed as directly towards dealing this frightful blow to the enemy as did the gunners on our squadron.

The destruction of Cervera's fleet accomplishes the main purpose of our military and naval operations in Santiago, and leaves the Spanish forces in the island of Cuba isolated. Their communications with Spain are now cut off. They can obtain no reinforcements. They can receive no supplies of ammunition or of provisions from the mother country, or any other, except by an occasional blockade-runner. In short, the island is reduced to a condition where further resistance is useless. Any prolongation of it by the Spaniards in Cuba itself will be sheer foolhardiness and desperation, involving them in heavier penalties at the final settlement.

We may, therefore, expect early proposals for a cessation of hostilities unless the Spanish statesmen are wholly demented. In other words, the victory achieved by Admiral Sampson and Gen. Shafter points the way to an honorable peace, which is the only rational object of any war. When the opportunity is presented to us it should be availed of, not only as a priceless boon in itself, but as a means of avoiding a possible conflict with stronger Powers than Spain, a conflict of longer duration and more doubtful result. In what spirit ought we to take up the negotiations when they are presented to us? All the difficulties which might surround this question disappear when we cast our eyes upon the declaration which we made to the world when we began the war, viz.:

> "The United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island [Cuba], except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

The spirit of this resolution covers every possible source of gain arising from conquest, for although other possessions of Spain were not mentioned, they were not considered at the time as involved in the controversy, which related solely to Cuba. Granting that we may have some duties to perform in Cuba in the way of providing a settled government after overturning the Spanish rule, everything else becomes easy if we keep the promise we made to the world and to ourselves when we first drew the sword. If we do not mean to keep that promise, everything becomes involved in doubt and confusion, and the prospect of an early peace grows dim.

UNDERSTANDINGS WITH ENGLAND.

In judging the weight to be attached to the present *entente* with England, consideration should be given to the times and circumstances under which previous good understandings have been reached and the effects which have attended them. There have been two noteworthy epochs in the history of the United States, at which this country and England have been drawn together before—the first the period of Washington's administration, the second the period immediately preceding our civil war. Both produced treaties of importance, and both were followed by periods of estrangement, ending, in the first case, in war.

Jay's treaty with England, arranged in 1794, was the last great triumph of Washington's career. The money necessary to carry its provisions into effect was not voted until 1796, in which year Washington addressed his farewell to the public. This treaty closed the long struggle of the Gallomaniac Republicans to involve us in the war between England and France, and was a direct fruit of Washington's wise policy of neutrality in that contest. The understanding with England on which it rested, and of which it was partly cause and partly effect, was distinctly a Federalist piece of work, and the Federalists were always a pro-English party. They had all been born English subjects, and had begun life with the same attachment to England that we have to the United States; they had been driven to take up arms against England, but none the less, their habits, turn of thought, and even institutions remained in great part English. When they came to draw up a constitution, they drew one up which was in substance English, and the violent struggle which ensued over its adoption was a struggle between the new American democracy and those who wished to preserve in it as far as possible the continuity of English development. The memory of the Revolution was still so fresh, and hatred of England ran so high, that it was only by a miracle of moderation and wisdom that the difficulties of the time were tided over. It is clear now, however, that the divergence between the policy of the governing classes in England and the hopes and aspirations of the new democracy here made any permanent understanding with

England out of the question, and the decline of the Federal party opened the way for the war—the war of 1812—in which the old quarrel burnt itself out.

Forty years later it seemed as if a new basis for a good understanding between the two countries had been reached. The questions raised by the two previous wars had all been settled, intercourse between America and England had become close and constant, and the dominance of the Southern politicians in the Democratic party seemed for the time to make us all the better friends. They were all free-traders, and, what is more, had a constituency of large landholders behind them, and there was a certain resemblance between the Southern plantation proprietor and the English owner of a great estate. "Society" in Washington, New York, and Boston had a half-avowed belief that this resemblance went very deep; all "travelling Englishmen" of the day were told so. It was the period of Anglo-American Arctic discovery, of the early attempts to lay an Atlantic cable, of the Prince of Wales's visit, and of the great turnout in his honor.

These cordial relations had a dark side, for there was slavery still in possession of our Government — a very un-English institution—and the democratic masses appeared, to judge from the press, to side with the Sepoys against the English in India, and with the Russians against the English in the Crimean war. Nevertheless, the drawing together of the two peoples was vastly more real than that of 1794, and England's greatest poet gave expression to a feeling that was deep and genuine, in lines that remain to-day the handsomest compliment ever paid by one great country to another:

> "Gigantic daughter of the West,
> We drink to you across the flood.
> We know you and we love you best,
> For are you not of English blood?
> You must not mix our Queen with those
> That wish to keep their people fools;
> Our Freedom's foemen are her foes,
> She comprehends the race she rules.
> Hands all round!
> God the tyrants' cause confound!
> To our great kinsmen of the West, my friends,
> And the great cause of Freedom round and round."

This period produced the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, an instrument destined to have more lasting effects than the Jay treaty. This time there was no popular anti-treaty movement, but much general jubilation on both sides of the ocean.

Our civil war immediately followed, and on top of it the agitation for Irish reform, which brought to the front a question of politics specially adapted to inflame the passions of both countries. In the war we learned that there was still a strong party in England that disliked the strength and stability of our government, and the very people in England who had talked so much about freedom we found could defend the cause of slavery. The *Alabama* destroyed our commerce, and as long as the Irish agitation was in an acute stage, a bid here for the Irish vote could be made only by professions of deadly hostility to England. It must be admitted that until very recently the old idea that Canada ought to be, must be, and some day should be an integral part of the Union, formed part of the intellectual inheritance of a large body of our politicians.

And now these causes of bitterness have all been removed, and within the last twenty-five years many new causes of friendliness have made their appearance. One of the first signs of the change was, curiously enough, that Anglomania which, when it first appeared in the fashionable world here, was ridiculed as a silly whim of people who had nothing better to think about than foreign ways. It was, however, really a small indication that people of wealth and leisure here had begun for the third time to turn to England with sympathy. And this time the *rapprochement* has been popular on both sides. The old anti-American feeling in England has died out with the democratization of the suffrage and the disappearance of the old aristocratic type of statesman.

The talk about an "alliance" with England is a bit of mediæval claptrap for which there is no warrant in the history of either country. Alliances are made between dynasties and despots, not free peoples. Treaties we have made with England in the past, and, no doubt, shall continue to make in future. To the fact that the immediate existing cause of the popular international friendliness is the outbreak of a war with Spain, too much importance may be attached. The great point is that time has blotted out most of the causes of difference, and commerce, trade, and an increasing similarity of institutions are every year drawing us nearer together. There is no longer any great anti-English party in this country, and there is no longer any anti-American party in England. In this, "imperialism" plays no part, and, in fact, what the English promoters of good will with us need most to understand is that "imperialist" is in nine cases out of ten only a fine name for an ex-Anglophobe politician or journalist who is beginning to see his mistake.

GETTING GOOD JUDGES.

The announcement of the Citizens' Union that it intends to "nominate or secure the nominations" of candidates for judgeships is specially significant in view of the fact that the Bar Association, after long neglect, has taken the matter up at the same time. We shall not weary our readers with going over the old ground of judicial nominations, and the importance of having good men for judges, and the evils of the present system; but it is, perhaps, worth while to point out that, for certain very clear reasons, picking out good candidates for judges ought to be easier work than in the case of any other offices.

In determining upon candidates for legislative or for executive office, there is usually no certain standard which can be applied, and hence a party of organization, even when desirous of doing its best, cannot tell in advance whether the nominee will succeed or not. Whether a man will make a good member of the Legislature or not is usually found out only by trying him, and in nine cases out of ten he is far from proving special fitness. Very often it is impossible to tell in advance whether he reaches the standard of common honesty, or will not use his place to make money out of it. In the Low campaign the Citizens' Union found it extremely difficult to recommend candidates for the State Legislature, on this account. When it comes to candidates for such places as Mayor or Comptroller, it is comparatively easy to find men sufficiently conspicuous to make a creditable appearance on the stump, but there cannot be said to be any *class* of men from whom mayors or comptrollers may be safely taken. If a list of the mayors of New York and other cities for the past twenty-five years is gone over, we see at a glance how often it happens that men from whom the greatest things have been expected turn out weak nonentities, and that men from whom very little is expected turn out to have just that assemblage of qualities which is needed in a good administrator. When it comes to nominating a President, although we are always talking about "Presidential timber," as if we knew very well in advance just what we wanted, we find on examination that what is meant is merely the most conspicuous politicians within the range of choice, and that it rarely happens that conspicuous service in subordinate executive positions is even thought of as furnishing a test of fitness. Mr. Cleveland is the only President in recent times who mounted by successive executive steps to the Presidency. Once in a hundred years a Washington or a Lincoln may appear, but there is no class of Washingtons and Lincolns—and never will be.

With nominations for judicial office the case is quite different. Not only are the qualifications technical and professional, so that nine-tenths of the community are excluded from the competition at the outset, but the keen natural selection of the bar forces to the front a small and specially trained class of men, who are not only fit, but are the only fit men to go on the bench. It is unnecessary to mention names. Any competent committee of the bar could agree in half an hour on a list of a dozen lawyers, conspicuous in having made

their mark solely by force of intellect and character—real leaders, actively engaged in practice before the judges now on the bench, and constituting a class from which nominations for judgeships ought inevitably to be made. This has always been so, and explains Franklin's proposal that the bar should have the power of appointing judges. Something like his scheme has worked itself out in England, where judges are nominally appointed by the Crown, but are really selected by the Lord Chancellor, himself a representative of the bar.

The absurdity of our system of picking out candidates for judgeships has consisted in the fact that it has been managed so as to insure the passing-by of conspicuous lawyers, and the taking of candidates from the ranks of the obscure and presumptively totally unfit. No man can make a first-rate judge who is inferior in learning and experience to those who practise before him; and yet this inferiority is what our system so often guarantees. To get a nomination from a political party it has been hitherto necessary either to pay for it or to get friends to pay for it, or, at the very best, to get it by the favor of those who expect judicial complaisance in return. But men in the only professional class from which judges should be picked out will neither pay, nor get their friends to pay, nor curry favor for a nomination. They will not do so because they are already in the receipt of good incomes, practically secured to them as long as they choose to practise, and hence are independent. No self-respecting and respected man will give up his independence to solicit a position in which the salary is very likely lower than his professional income, and in which his future will be more or less dependent on the dubious favor of a "boss" or a convention of politicians. It is a case where the position must come to him, if at all, and he must be compelled by public recognition of his standing to take it.

We are not talking of any ideal scheme; we merely have in mind the sort of judge who gets on the bench in England, and the system of selection which made judges of lawyers like Kent, Marshall, and Story in this country, and would, with any natural system of nomination, make judges of men of the same standing to-day. For every one knows that the material is at hand. Though the bar has deteriorated, and the lamentation that it has ceased to be a profession and has become a trade, is often heard, this is in great measure due to the decline of the bench, which, in some instances, has sunk below the level of the bar itself. The conspicuous lawyers who might be made into judges abound, but judges will seldom be selected from this class by the agency of "machine" nominations. Volunteers alone can be relied on to nominate leaders of the bar for judges, and they cannot begin too soon. The difficulty is not in knowing who ought to go on the bench, but in opening the way. If those who have taken the matter up wait until the autumn, they will find it closed by the usual machine-made nominations of second-rate men, against whom no stand can be taken, though every one, including themselves, knows them to have been drawn from a class in which the really fit men are not found.

HOME RULE IN NEBRASKA.

The current discussion regarding schemes for State interference in the government of New York city lends especial interest to a deliverance on the general subject of municipal home rule from the Supreme Court of Nebraska. The Legislature last year attempted to take away from the people of Omaha the control of the Fire and Police Departments in the chief city of the State, but the highest judicial tribunal has just decided that the act is unconstitutional.

The Populists swept Nebraska in the election of 1896, choosing their candidate for Governor by a majority of over 21,000, and also securing a large majority in each branch of the Legislature. This body passed a law conferring authority upon the Governor to appoint Fire and Police Commissioners in cities of the metropolitan class, which was especially aimed at the business centre of the State. The framers of the act made the usual pretence of desiring to substitute "non-partisan" commissions for those appointed by a Mayor chosen by one political organization, and the regulation arguments were urged, that the effect would be to divorce the Police and Fire Departments from politics, and enforce business methods in their management. But the Populist Governor abused his power by appointing as commissioners only men of his own party, and under the Police Commission the very abuses sought to be avoided increased until they became intolerable.

The friends of good government sought relief by an appeal to the Supreme Court, upon the contention that the commission act was in conflict with the Constitution of the State, and they have won their case. The decision laid down at the start the broad principle that to justify the courts in declaring a statute invalid it is not essential that it should contravene some express provision of the Constitution; "if the act is inhibited by the general scope and purpose of the fundamental law, it is as invalid as though forbidden by the letter of that instrument." The court proceeded along the same line of reasoning in regard to the bill of rights in the Nebraska Constitution, holding that this "is not an enumeration of all the powers reserved to the people of this State," but that "a statute is unconstitutional and void which is repugnant to the rights, expressed or implied, retained by the people."

Building upon these foundations, the court applied the principles here enunciated to the case in hand. It declared that the right of local self-government in cities and towns—*i. e.*, the power of citizens thereof to govern themselves as to matters purely local in their nature through officers of their own selection—existed in the State at the time the present Constitution was framed, and was not surrendered upon the adoption of that instrument, but is vested in the people of the respective municipalities, and the Legislature is powerless to take it away. One of the rights thus vested in the people of any municipality is the right to maintain a Fire and a Police Department, and this right "is to be exercised by them without legislative interference, except to the extent that the lawmaking body may prescribe rules to aid the people of the municipalities in the exercise of such right." From all this it naturally followed that the act in question, in so far as it assumed to confer authority upon the Governor to appoint Fire and Police Commissioners in cities of the metropolitan class, is void, "as being an unlawful attempt to deprive the people of such cities of the right of local self-government."

The three judges were not unanimous in this conclusion. One of them stoutly maintained that the act was a constitutional use of legislative power. He pointed out that it was not contended by anybody that the law was in contravention of any express provision of the Constitution prescribing how municipal officers must be appointed, but only that it denied a right of local self-government which exists independently of the Constitution, upon principles which are recognized in the Declaration of Independence and the Federal Constitution, and are illustrated in the evolution of our forms of government, State and national. He recalled a previous decision by the same court that the lawmaking body may legislate upon any subject not inhibited by the Constitution, and argued that no sufficient reasons for reversing this position had been advanced. The two judges whose views prevailed admitted that this previous decision was "diametrically opposed to the conclusion reached" by them, and confessed that it was a mistake, calling attention also to the fact that it is the only assertion of such wrong doctrine ever made by the court.

Whatever lawyers may think of the opposing legal considerations urged by the majority and minority of the court, the general public will heartily applaud this stout defence by the majority of the principle of home rule:

"The rule announced in the previous decision [sustaining the constitutionality of such legislation] is not only wrong, but is far-reaching in its consequences. The le-

gislation which that opinion sustains tended to take from the people one of their reserved powers, the right of local self-government, one of the principles upon which our State fabric rests. If the Legislature may authorize the Governor to appoint a Fire and Police Commission for cities of the metropolitan class, then there is nothing to prevent the lawmakers from taking from every city and town in the State the power to choose all of the local officers thereof except police judges, which position is made elective by the Constitution, and empower the Governor to appoint all municipal officers except the one just named. The mind revolts when the doctrine is carried to its legitimate extent. The denial to the people of the right to govern themselves is undemocratic, and if such doctrine is enforced, we could no longer boast of a government of the people, for the people, and by the people."

There can be no question that this embodies a popular feeling as to the wisdom and necessity of municipal home rule, which is steadily gaining strength throughout the country. The time is fast coming when the people everywhere will insist that this right shall be safeguarded in their constitutions, beyond danger of any disturbance.

GOVERNMENT BY SUB-COMMITTEE.

WASHINGTON, June 14, 1898.

A United States Senator, during the present session of Congress, in arguing for an increase in the amount to be carried by the fortifications-appropriation bill, said:

"The sub-committee upon fortifications in another place [*scilicet*, the House of Representatives] was composed of Representatives of three interior States which had no seacoast whatever to guard. They were not very enthusiastic over fortifications, because theirs were not seacoast States."

In this statement, involving a violation of the parliamentary rule prohibiting reference to the proceedings in the other branch of Congress, is implied the existence of one of the most striking institutional features of the government of the United States. Broadly speaking, it is emphatically true at this time that the power of Congress is exercised through sub-committees. The familiar daily inquiry at Washington among all who are interested in pending legislation is, "Who is on the sub-committee?"

The committee system is the product of conditions open enough to view. If Congress, in the ordinary course of affairs, could master the facts and arguments necessary for the formation of opinion, without the aid of committees, there would be none. That body, owing to its size, early found it impossible to familiarize itself with the details of the business before it, and the committee system was founded. For the same reason the committees have more and more, during the last twenty years, subdivided, and through still smaller bodies collected the materials requisite for shaping opinion upon the complex and immensely varied concerns of the United States as a people. The preposterousness of an attempt by a full committee to draft numerous appropriation bills, for instance, or to examine other kinds of bills after they are introduced, is so well recognized at the present time that when the distinguished chairman of one of the great committees of the House was lately asked a question as to the development of the sub-committee system, he could not or would not speculate or theorize on the subject, and simply said, "Of course we have sub-committees"; repeating, "Of course we have sub-committees."

If the facts collected and the conclusions arrived at were actually canvassed by the full committee, the sub-committee would still enjoy much power. Its members would be familiar with the testimony at first hand. The other members must take the facts as they are consciously or unconsciously colored in passing through the minds of those who, in person, examined witnesses and documents, who had gone minutely into the details of the pending question, who were the recipients of many whispered unrecorded confidences from persons friendly or unfriendly to the measure. If, in addition, it should appear that a body of usages had grown up regulating the practice of a sub-committee in its relations with the larger body, substantially similar in character to those usages which govern the committee's relations with the House; if the power of the sub-committee over the committee should be found to be as great as the committee's power over the House, we should be brought face to face with a collection of still smaller "legislatures," as described by Senator Hoar, and these would stand forth as the actual governing force in Congress. This is precisely what has happened in the case of nearly all the important committees of the House and in a number of the most important of the Senate. The future student of Congressional government must find his clue to the methods of transacting public business not in the committees, but in the sub-committees of the committees.

How do sub-committes arise? If the bills ordinarily referred to a committee are similar in character, the sub-committees are formed on the simple principle of subdivision. Thus, there are six sub-committees of the Judiciary Committee of the House in the Fifty-fifth Congress. These are numbered consecutively, and consist of three members, care being taken to place on each one two members of the dominant party, to insure partisan control. The Judiciary has two additional sub-committees, one on bankruptcy legislation and another on United States Court bills. Other examples of sub-committees that are simply numbered are those of the Committee on Banking and Currency, one, two three, and four, and of the Committee on Invalid Pensions, one, two, three, four, and five. Still another example serves well to show the growth of the system. The Committee on Elections, during the Fifty-fourth Congress, had its work apportioned among three standing committees, one, two, and three; already one of these has found it necessary to adopt the practice of using sub-committees in its work.

Where the subjects to be investigated are varied, and each investigation may require much time, the business of a committee falls more naturally into the hands of those members specially well qualified to consider it. The Committee on Ways and Means of the House is of this character and has six sub-committees, as follows: (1) customs, customs districts, and customs officials; (2) administration of customs laws; (3) internal revenue; (4) the public debt, the preservation of the public credit, and redemption of Government notes; (5) reciprocity and commercial treaties; (6) revenue from other sources and excises, and on miscellaneous subjects.

The Committee on Appropriations of the House considers through sub-committees (1) the general deficiency, (2) District of Columbia appropriations, (3) fortifications, (4) legislative, judicial, and executive appropriations, (5) pensions, (6) sundry civil affairs.

The Committee on the Military has seven sub-committees: (1) Army organization and appropriations, (2) the Military Academy, battlefields, monuments, medals, etc., (3) soldiers' homes and national cemeteries, (4) voluntary muster, bounty, and pay, (5) arsenals, barracks, and military reservations, (6) retirements, restorations, and reliefs, (7) desertions. The last sub-committee is still further divided into sections "A" and "B."

The Committee on Naval Affairs also has seven: (1) appropriations for the naval establishment; (2) organization, rank and pay; (3) ordnance and navy-yards; (4) construction, repairs, and steam-engineering; (5) navigation, equipment, supplies, and miscellaneous; (6) Naval Academy and Marine Corps; (7) private bills.

The Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce has nine: (1) interstate commerce; (2) foreign commerce; (3) canals; (4) quarantine; (5) bridges; (6) telegraphs; (7) ships and shipping; (8) life-saving service; (9) lighthouses.

The Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads likewise has nine: (1) appropriations and revision of laws; (2) claims, salaries, and miscellaneous; (3) railway mail service; (4) free delivery service; (5) post-office buildings; (6) postal telegraph and telegraph service; (7) postal savings banks; (8) foreign mail service; (9) postage and contracts.

The Committee on Agriculture has six: (1) appropriations; (2) Department of Agriculture; (3) Bureau of Animal Industry; (4) farm and dairy products, seeds, and plants; (5) Agricultural Experiment Stations; (6) miscellaneous business.

The Committee on the District of Columbia has six, and, as might have been expected, these reflect the character of a municipal council. They are: (1) judiciary; (2) ways and means; (3) education, labor, and charities; (4) street railways; (5) steam railways; (6) incorporations.

In the Senate the system has not been as long established as in the House, but is developing rapidly, and in some instances perfect examples are furnished. The Senate Committee on Appropriations, the most powerful committee in Congress, many years since found it imperative to work through smaller organizations, and for every sub-committee on appropriations in the House, though these represent seven different important committees, there are seven corresponding sub-committees in the Senate made up from the single Committee on Appropriations; while for the six bills the House Committee on Appropriations retains in its control there are six corresponding sub-committees in the Senate constituted from the one main committee. Senate sub-committees accordingly deal with appropriation bills affecting the Department of Agriculture, the army, deficiencies, diplomatic and consular affairs, the District of Columbia, fortifications, the Indians, the legislative, judicial, and executive departments, the Military Academy, the navy, pensions, the post-office, and sundry civil affairs. This great committee of the Senate may be fairly said to approximate in influence the Ministry in the Commons. Its power naturally attaches to itself more power, and the tendency is for the

Senate, rather than to lessen its duties, to impose other and more varied cares upon it. The desperate chance that any given measure proposing a novel appropriation will survive in the general Congressional vortex induces many members in both branches to trust the fortunes of individual propositions to this commanding Senate committee. And, indeed, when the "corded bales" it returns to the House are undone and displayed there, strangely alien contents are oftentimes revealed. It is enough to say, as to the influence of the Senate sub-committees, that the bills as reported from them are in nearly every instance printed before submission to the larger body, and the bills as thus printed, with the reports thereon, are delivered without change to the Senate itself. The findings of the sub-committees thus become in the end the findings of the Senate.

Without adverting to the work of other Senate committees, like those on Military Affairs, the Navy, or the District of Columbia, which operate largely through sub-committees raised to consider particular bills, it will be sufficient to notice the practice of the Committee on Commerce in that body. Here we have the phase of a sub-committee of a sub-committee. The standing committee is divided into sub-committees on (1) ships and shipping; (2) lighthouses, monuments, buoys, etc.; (3) life-saving stations and service; (4) bridges; (5) nominations. The last sub-committee consists of seven members, and to each of these members, by a special order of the sub-committee, are assigned for consideration nominations from given States lying in the section of the country nearest the State the particular Senator represents.

Some of the consequences of the establishment of the sub-committee system will be apparent. Confining ourselves to the House, the Speaker, in naming chairmen of committees, names lesser speakers, who preside over bodies where formal debates are common, and yea and nay votes are not unknown. These lesser speakers divide the power conferred on the body over which they preside, by naming sub-committees, each having its own chairman. These sub-committees are the real eyes, ears, and hands of the House. There is the same anxiety among members to be favored in assignment to sub-committees that there is to gain nominations to the committee itself, and the same influences are brought to bear to win chosen places. The chairman of the sub-committee ordinarily, almost invariably, reports the bill he has had in charge to the House, and is its manager on the floor. He and his associates on the sub-committee are naturally best qualified to debate it, and they enjoy all the prestige arising from a greater familiarity with the facts underlying the proposed measure. That a Representative is a member of the committee reporting a bill is something in the judgment of the House; it is far more if he is in addition a member of the sub-committee that collected and massed the pertinent facts.

This predominance of the sub-committee in the national legislature will perhaps compel a recasting of opinion upon the character and efficiency of the work accomplished there. It will be found, I apprehend, that while Congress is thus shown to be more open to sinister approach than is commonly thought possible, there are, under the new system, far greater opportunities for strong, resourceful men, with skill in initiation, to impress their ideas upon legislation. Instead of the cumbrous machinery of a large committee, consisting oftentimes of seventeen or nineteen members, we have for the use of men of this character a small, virile body of two, three, or five men that approach a single executive in capacity to master and direct affairs.

THOMAS H. CLARK.

EDWARD BURNE-JONES.

LONDON, June 20, 1898.

With Sir Edward Burne-Jones, we have lost not only a man of distinct personality, but one of the last links connecting us with a very adventurous and important period in the history of modern English art. Of the original Pre-Raphaelites Mr. Holman Hunt, it is true, remains. But William Morris and Burne-Jones, the disciples, did more to popularize nineteenth-century mediævalism and bring about the Gothic revival than the Pre-Raphaelites themselves; and with the death, within so short a space of time, of these two men, who were in close sympathy both as artists and friends, we seem to close the chapter opened so brilliantly by Rossetti and Millais, and introduced so naïvely by Ford Madox Brown.

The picturesqueness of the period with which Burne-Jones's name is intimately associated has had much to do in making him so picturesque a figure to-day. Of his life as a man we know comparatively little; whatever private romance may have been his, he has not as yet been forced, like poor Rossetti, to share it with all the world; whatever expression he may have given to his political or social convictions, he never, like Morris, made public profession of faith in Trafalgar Square and Hyde Park. But of his career as an artist, each successive step or stage is familiar to us, and each in turn has its picturesque quality. We have a glimpse of the youth sacrificing the church to art under the spell of Rossetti's drawing of the "Maids of Elfin Mere," and hurrying up to London to worship the master through the thick smoke-clouds and amidst the irreverent chatter of the drawing-class at the Workingmen's College. We see him later on established at Red Lion Square, one of the valiant Crusaders who were to save the world so as by mediæval tables and chairs and housemaids. Next, he appears at the Grosvenor Gallery, the very spirit of that æstheticism which took the town by storm and perished gayly in the "greenery-yallery" songs of the Savoy and the Postlethwaite of *Punch*. His experience with the Academy was not as other men's, for he was elected without his petitioning for the honor in the manner then required, I believe; and he resigned with unparalleled promptness when he discovered he was not to become at once a full-fledged Academician. By one solitary painting, his "Mermaid," has he been represented on the Academy walls; and his pictures, in their subjects, have always confirmed the picturesqueness of his attitude as Independent. The most beautiful and lovely of the old myths and legends have furnished him with so many of his motives that you find a French critic like M. de la Sizeranne beginning the criticism of his work with a long recital of the story of King Arthur and the Knights of Camelot.

I think this element of picturesqueness in his career and in his subjects must necessarily prove misleading in any estimate of his work by his contemporaries. I have felt this especially the last day or two when every London paper has been publishing, at greater or less length, a biography and an appreciation. In one panegyric he figures as the Pre-Raphaelite; in another, his influence upon the younger generation, both at home and abroad, is loudly vaunted. But he was not a Pre-Raphaelite—that is, in the sense history has now come to give to the term. He was a follower, a disciple, a worshipper of the Pre-Raphaelites, more particularly of Rossetti, and he borrowed from them that which was least essential in their artistic creed; if Pre-Raphaelitism were the religion the enthusiast likes to think it, I should say that he had ignored the dogma and appropriated the ceremonial. Mediævalism of subject and mediævalism of treatment were what appealed to him, and Rossetti showed him the way. Burne-Jones originated nothing; but, as so often happens, the world recognized in the copy the beauty it had failed to discern in the original. Deaf to the music, it heard first the echo—a very beautiful, rhythmical echo, to be sure, but still not the music itself. Burne-Jones simply reaped where Rossetti had sown. He not only was fortunate enough with Rossetti to obtain munificent private patrons, but he became the attraction of a public gallery; his name was as good an advertisement for a picture show as that of Sir Henry Irving for a theatre. He was made a baronet. And he was also known and famous on the Continent, where Rossetti, during his lifetime, was never appreciated. His work was welcomed in the Champ-de-Mars Salons, it was bought for the Luxembourg, he could wear the ribbon of the Legion of Honor, he was foreign member of the Dresden Academy.

His success was official as well as artistic, and in this success the world fancied it saw the triumph of Pre-Raphaelitism. But to look upon him, therefore, as an influence in the development of modern art is hardly warranted by fact. Because he succeeded, because he brought mediævalism into fashion, he was not necessarily a force in the schools or the studios. He in his turn had his handful of followers, for there is nothing certain young painters admire more than popular or financial success. But his following has already dwindled. He has had no effect upon the art of the day as Manet or Monet has had, as Whistler or Degas. He has been held responsible for the mysticism of the moment, but it is more than likely that had Burne-Jones never existed, we still should have had our group of mystics. They have come with the inevitable swing-back of the pendulum: after the interval of realism or naturalism, when the truths recorded by the painter alone were thought to matter, we have merely returned once more to the doctrine that individuality in the artist is the one thing that counts. The young men of 1830 developed their individuality by "frightening the bourgeois"; the young men of 1890 develop theirs by posing as mystics. Burne-Jones may have suggested the form in which a few have found utterance for their mysticism, but without him they still would have been mystics.

The difficulty is that his own absorption in his subjects helped his critics to forget to look for anything else in his work. The

search for the inner meaning of his symbols, the preoccupation with his esoteric reading of the well-known myth, left no time for the consideration of his pictures as pictures. He has been studied as if he were a poet or philosopher, who, by chance, had exchanged ordinary words for a new picture language, and his influence has been measured accordingly. All the melancholy and folly of our age M. de la Sizeranne, for instance, discovers concealed in his wan maidens and languid knights and anæmic angels; though future generations probably will see only a curious exotic revival—an isolated phenomenon.

I say this with no intention to disparage or depreciate his art, for I think Burne-Jones has suffered more than most artists from the nonsense written about him. His faults have been exaggerated into virtues, until the true charm of his work is in danger of being overlooked altogether. For that it has charm cannot be denied. One may dislike his methods, one may be struck with his indifference to the painter's problems, one may think his technique abominable. But if the means were illegitimate, if it is impossible to speak of him as a colorist in the same breath with the masters, old or modern, still he did fill many of his pictures with a gorgeousness, a glory of color that would amply atone for more serious blemishes. His early water-colors, shown a few years ago in the retrospective exhibition in the new gallery and seen now and then at Christie's, are little gems. And the splendor of a picture like the "Chant d'Amour," with its reminiscences of Giorgione, does not soon fade even in memory. In later designs he often tried schemes of color as languid and morbid as his figures, with less beauty in the results. I remember in the interesting exhibition to which I have just referred, I could not but feel how much he had sacrificed to the morbidness of vision that increased with his years. But there is another charm in his work that did not grow less with time—I mean its decorative charm. All good pictures are decorative, of course. But his were so in a more purely conventional way. He used color and line and form as arbitrarily as the designer of carpets and wall-papers. His every picture seemed a part of some decorative scheme, as much out of place in a frame as the large mural paintings by Puvis de Chavannes when you see them at the Salons. I suppose this is why he was most successful in his tapestries and stained glass and mosaics, or in the series arranged to ornament a definite room or wall space. Something of the same decorative quality is revealed in his studies, his frequently very beautiful drawings in colored chalks on tinted paper. In these, it has been pointed out, he is seen to best advantage; his mannerisms are not so obvious, and he is not restricted, as in elaborate paintings, by his technical limitations.

So much has been written in praise of his studies, they have been so often shown, so often reproduced, that the wonder is his drawings made for illustrations are comparatively little known. They have not been so many, though they extend over his entire working career. There are one or two in *Good Words*, he was among the contributors to Dalziel's 'Bible,' and then there are the more recent designs for the books and publications of William Morris. In the reproductions, they might be accepted as proof that he shared with Morris and Walter Crane, and with equal ardor, the belief that the first essential of book illustration is its decorative fitness. But I have seen the originals of the Chaucer series, and in them he shows no thought or care for the mechanical relations and conditions which should be the first consideration of the illustrator. The drawings are in lead pencil, the line delicate, the tone silvery, totally unlike the thick black outlines admirably rendered in Mr. Hooper's wood blocks. Indeed, I understand that they were redrawn by Mr. Fairfax Murray, Mr. Catterson Smith, and other draughtsmen before they were delivered over to the engravers. The designs were but suggestions, and no doubt Burne-Jones meant them to be nothing more. But I must confess that if to meet certain mechanical requirements the artist's work must pass through a double translation or interpretation before it can appear on the printed page, I should rather dispense with such perfect mechanical harmony. There is a screw loose somewhere in the theory of decoration that makes the original artist the least important factor in its production.

Burne-Jones, with all his faults, with all his mannerisms and affectations, is too true an artist to be subordinated to his interpreter for the sake of theory. During his lifetime his genius may have been overrated. Now that he is dead, there may come a reaction—a period when he will be unduly neglected, as other and greater men than he have been. But I think when the time arrives to estimate him at his worth and to assign him his due rank among the English artists of the nineteenth century, he must be remembered as a painter of distinction and style and charm who was independent enough to choose his own masters, and serious enough to continue faithful to them to the last; a decorator who, if misled by his ideals, never stooped to the commonplace or the vulgar. He and William Morris both had the rare good fortune, from the beginning, to meet with worldly success in the pursuance of the artistic aims and the objects they had set up for themselves. They never swerved from the straight path as they saw it; it should be added that they were never tempted.

N. N.

VOLTAIRE AND THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.—I.

PARIS, June 16, 1898.

The Duke de Broglie expends in the field of history and literature an activity which he can no longer expend in politics. It is certainly extraordinary that no place could have been found for him in the Chamber of Deputies or in the Senate; in England parties are not so intolerant, and it is felt by all that the interest of the country demands the presence in the legislative assemblies of statesmen who have devoted their lives to the service of their country, however they may differ in principles. We have not yet arrived at this state of political equilibrium, and the Duke de Broglie has ample leisure for his studies. In a recent work, 'The Austrian Alliance,' he set forth the causes which provoked, in the second half of the eighteenth century, the declaration of hostility between France and Prussia that culminated in the Seven Years' War. He now gives us another volume under the title, 'Voltaire before and during the Seven Years' War.'

Voltaire's name will always possess an attraction in itself. In his last researches, the Duke de Broglie was surprised to find it nowhere; in his preceding studies, whenever he had to treat of the relations of the Government of Louis XV. with the great Frederick, he had regularly found it. The intervention of Voltaire was constantly claimed by the representatives of France, ministers or ambassadors; he often offered it spontaneously; for, as the Duke de Broglie says,

"this marvellous mind, endowed with an indefatigable and universal activity, was never content to consecrate itself wholly to letters or to philosophy. He had all his lifetime the temptation and the desire to meddle with public affairs, and, rightly or wrongly, he never doubted his aptitude for taking part in them. This pretension, which in an ordinary man of letters would have gone singularly counter to the usages of the time, seemed justified in Voltaire on account of his familiar relations with the King of Prussia, and by the confidence which seemed to be placed in him by the uneasy and uncomfortable ally whose designs France had constantly to watch and to penetrate. This royal friendship seemed to assure him a credit which he liked to talk about, and which at various times, in the interest of the State, he was asked to use."

If Voltaire's political influence seemed to have come suddenly to an end (and the Duke de Broglie tried to discover the reason why), it was not because Voltaire ceased to take an interest in the political events of his time, or because he grew more indifferent to them; it was merely, if the Duke de Broglie is right, because he fell completely out of favor with Louis XV. The King of France, who knew how to keep his secrets, resolved from a certain time not to have anything more to do with Voltaire. "Was it," asks the Duke de Broglie, "from a religious scruple that Louis XV. refused to have any communication with a philosopher whose opinions wounded his faith? People would hesitate to blame him, though it might be remarked that Richelieu and even the virtuous Father Joseph had not shown themselves so difficult in the choice of the instruments which they employed for their designs, and that, in a royal household where Madame de Pompadour was sovereign, there were, perhaps, more pressing problems of conscience to solve." Louis XV.'s repugnance was of recent date. After Frederick's advent to the throne, Voltaire was charged by the Cardinal de Fleury to present his compliments to the new King. Three years after, Fleury was dead and Frederick was the conqueror of Silesia. Voltaire feigned to exile himself because he had not been elected to the French Academy, and went to Berlin. He entered into very intimate relations with the King, and it is very likely that they did not restrict themselves to the discussion of literary matters. On his return from Berlin, Voltaire was appointed historiographer to the King and *gentilhomme de la chambre;* he became a sort of royal laureate, and celebrated in prose and verse the victories of Fontenoy and of Lawfeld. He had two powerful protectors, Madame de Pompadour and the Marquis d'Argenson, who employed Voltaire's pen in various circumstances.

In his character of a courtier Voltaire was, on the whole, a failure; as the Duke de Broglio says:

"The natural superiority of which he was

conscious, as he could not help showing, was ill-appreciated in this factitious environment. The easy grace, abounding in happy repartee and ingenious strokes, which was the charm of his conversation, was also what gave it an air of familiarity; a little reserve would have pleased more, as attesting a juster sentiment of the honor due to such a company. This vague discontent was especially felt by the King. Not that Voltaire, on the rare occasions on which he approached the royal person, ever broke the rules of profound and even rather humble deference imposed by etiquette; not that he ever forgot that the first duty of a King's historiographer is to be his panegyrist. Neither was it, as Condorcet says, because the praises of a man of genius touch only kings who love glory, but rather because the art of pleasing is learnt like any other art."

There is an incident which shows well that the liberty of praise implies the liberty of blame, and that a certain excess of praise often involves a little irony. The "Temple de la Gloire" was represented at Versailles; the verses were by Voltaire, the music by Rameau. The Emperor Trajan appeared in it, crowned with laurel, and giving peace to the world after his triumphs. When the piece had come to an end, Voltaire approached the royal box, expecting to receive some compliment. He inquired of the Duke de Richelieu, who was a few steps from the King, "Is Trajan satisfied?" The King turned round with a frown, and looked straight at Voltaire without saying a word.

Voltaire was better received at Lunéville and at Nancy, by the old King Stanislas, the father of Maria Leszczynska. He was taken to Lorraine by his friend, Madame du Châtelet, who died suddenly at Lunéville, after her confinement. Voltaire offered, some time afterwards, to Frederick, to make a visit to Berlin. "I am," said he, in a letter written May 8, 1750, "in a sad state; but, after all, I prefer a hundred times to die near you than to live anywhere else." Then he explains that, though he is "rich, and even very rich for a man of letters," he needs money for the expenses of his journey. He offers to borrow the money from a banker in Paris having correspondents in Berlin, to whom the King might kindly send word that he would with pleasure see this advance made to Voltaire. Frederick understood, and immediately offered to draw a bill on a banker in Paris. He added to this fair offer some half-ironical verses on Jupiter and Danaë, and a few lines in prose: "You resemble Horace in liking to add the useful to the agreeable. As for myself, I think that pleasure would not be too highly paid for." Voltaire answered in verse:

> "Votre très-vieille Danaé
> Va quitter son petit ménage
> Pour le beau séjour étoilé
> Dont elle est indigne à son âge.
> L'or par Jupiter envoyé
> N'est pas l'objet de son envie.
> Elle aime d'un cœur dévoué
> Son Jupiter et non sa pluie."

The permission of the King of France was necessary. Louis XV. did not much like that Frederick II. of Prussia should give pensions to French writers and become their Mæcenas. Since Francis I., French sovereigns had always taken pride in the protection of letters. "What does Voltaire want? I have treated him as well as Louis XIV. treated Racine and Boileau. I have given him, as Louis XIV. did Racine, the post of gentleman of the bed-chamber and pensions; now he wants to be made a chamberlain and to take supper with a King. It is not the fashion in France; and as there are more wits and more *grands seigneurs* here than in Prussia, it would be necessary to have a very large table to treat them all." And he counted on his fingers Maupertuis, Fontenelle, Voltaire, La Mothe, Piron, Destouches, Montesquieu, the Cardinal de Polignac. "Your Majesty," said somebody, "forgets D'Alembert." "As well as Crébillon," said somebody else. "Why not Crébillon, junior? There are also the Abbé Prévost and D'Olivet." "Well," said the King, "for twenty-five years all these people would have dined with me." These details have been taken by the Duke de Broglie from the Souvenirs of Madame du Haussey, maid to Madame de Pompadour. When Voltaire asked for the King's permission, Louis XV. hardly allowed him to end his request, answering him coldly that he could go wherever he liked, and turning his back upon him. Madame de Pompadour asked him to present her compliments to Frederick. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. de Puisieulx, told Voltaire that he had no commission to give him.

Voltaire's reception at Berlin and Potsdam formed a great contrast to the coldness of Versailles. He was treated with the greatest honor; the King affected to see in him a personal friend. He gave him an apartment which had been occupied the year before in Berlin by Marshal Saxe; cooks, coachmen, servants of the palace were at his orders. At supper Voltaire often sat between the Queen and the Queen Dowager. "In a word," wrote Voltaire to his friend D'Argental (May 7, 1750), "the King feigned to love me. I myself believed that I loved him." To come to solid facts, the King offered Voltaire the post of chamberlain, with 20,000 francs income, and, besides, a life annuity of 4,000 francs for his niece, Mme. Denis, if she came to Berlin to keep Voltaire's house. It was necessary to obtain the consent of Louis XV. to this arrangement. A letter was written on the subject by the Prussian Minister in Paris, Baron de Chambrien; but the King took good care to add in his own hand, in a postscript: "This must be done without committing me, and if you have the slightest repugnance to doing it, you will declare that I renounce everything." When Louis XV. heard of Frederick's desire to keep Voltaire, he merely said: "I am glad of it; there will be one madman the less at my court and one more at his." But Voltaire was officially advised that he could not keep the office of historiographer to the King. He was allowed to keep the office of gentleman of the bedchamber. The new historiographer appointed in his place was Duclos, the friend of Diderot and D'Alembert.

The surprise in France and in Europe was great when it became known that Voltaire had established himself in Berlin. He had to write many letters to defend his resolution. "Being no longer historiographer, I shall be all the better historian." The Duke de Broglie is of the opinion that the French Foreign Office would have done well to maintain unofficial relations with a man so well placed to understand the designs of a King determined to make himself a great place in history and to raise Prussia to the rank of a great Power. Frederick was still nominally, at the time, an ally of France; but his friendship was always of the most fragile sort. Secret negotiations were going on between London and Berlin:

"With such an association, with a partner who, answering no lead, seemed always ready to leave the game, was it not a piece of good fortune to have near him, invited by him, living in his palace, eating at his table, talking with him several hours daily, able to note his slightest words, to read his sentiments in the expression of his face, to meet him every hour, an observer and if necessary a go-between like Voltaire? Richelieu or Mazarin would surely have chosen him among a thousand, and would never have thought that they were paying too dear for him."

Correspondence.

THE BASIS OF CITIZENSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the case of United States vs. Wong Kim Ark (169 U. S., 649), the Supreme Court has interpreted that clause of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution which says, "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside."

Wong Kim Ark was born in California, the son of Chinese subjects who were domiciled residents of the United States. In 1894 he went to China for a temporary visit, and upon his return to the United States in 1895 the collector of customs refused him permission to land, on the ground that he was not an American citizen.

Mr. Justice Gray, in delivering the opinion of the court, lays down the principle that those parts of the Constitution which are not defined must be interpreted in the light of the common law, by which the place of birth was made the criterion of nationality. Every child born in England of alien parents is a natural-born subject, unless the child of an ambassador or other diplomatic agent of a foreign state, or of an alien enemy in hostile occupation of the place where the child was born. The court holds that this rule was in force in all the English colonies upon this continent down to the time of the Declaration of Independence, and in the United States afterwards, and continued to prevail under the Constitution as originally established; and that, prior to the adoption of the fourteenth amendment, all white children born in the United States, whether the offspring of citizens or of foreigners, excepting only children of ambassadors or of alien enemies in hostile occupation, were native-born citizens of the United States. The court accepts the natural conclusion of these premises, and holds that the children of Chinese subjects born in the United States must be considered as natural-born citizens; and Congress, while it may refuse to naturalize subjects of the Emperor of China, cannot withhold citizenship from the offspring of those subjects born in this country.

Mr. Chief Justice Fuller and Justice Harlan dissent from the conclusions of the majority, and maintain that the English common-law rule as to natural-born citizens was never in force in this country. In support of these views, the dissenting justices cite Story, 'Conflict of Laws,' sec. 48, "Persons who are born in a country are generally deemed to be citizens and subjects of that country. A reasonable qualification of the rule would seem to be that it should not apply to the children of parents who were *in itinere* in the country, or who were abiding there for temporary purposes." To the same effect Justice Miller says ('Lectures on the Constitution,' p. 279), "If a stranger or traveller passing through, or temporarily residing in, this country, who has not himself

been naturalized, and who claims to owe no allegiance to our government, has a child born here which goes out of the country with its father, such child is not a citizen of the United States, because it was not subject to its jurisdiction."

The case turns upon the interpretation of the phrase, "subject to the jurisdiction thereof," and the weight of the argument seems to be with the dissenting justices. Jurisdiction is of two kinds—territorial and political. All persons within the bounds of the United States, whether natural-born, naturalized, domiciled aliens, or aliens *in itinere*, are subject to the territorial jurisdiction of the United States. But the same cannot be said as to its political jurisdiction. This is particularly true of Chinese subjects, because the laws expressly exclude them from American citizenship. As they are not subject to the political jurisdiction of the United States, and cannot become so, it would seem to follow that their children are not born "subject to the jurisdiction thereof."

The Supreme Court in previous decisions has admitted the validity of this argument. In the case of Elk vs. Wilkins (112 U. S. 94, 102), the court said, with respect to the phrase, "subject to the jurisdiction thereof":

"The evident meaning of these last words is, not merely subject in some respect or degree to the jurisdiction of the United States, but completely subject to their political jurisdiction, and owing them direct and immediate allegiance. . . . Indians born within the territorial limits of the United States, members of, and owing immediate allegiance to, one of the Indian tribes (an alien, though dependent, power), although in a geographical sense born in the United States, are no more 'born in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof,' within the meaning of the first section of the fourteenth amendment, than the children of subjects of any foreign Government born within the domain of that Government, or the children born within the United States of ambassadors or other public ministers of foreign nations."

Furthermore, in the practice of the United States as to naturalization, the common-law rule of citizenship has been disregarded. An essential part of the common-law rule is the doctrine of indelible allegiance, which has been summed up in the phrase, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman." This doctrine has been denied by the United States ever since the Declaration of Independence. The naturalization act of January 29, 1795, required that applicants for citizenship should not only take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, but should also renounce all other allegiance; and although Lord Grenville protested that such a renunciation would be highly criminal on the part of a British citizen, the United States held fast to its position, and in 1868 Congress declared that "the right of expatriation is a natural and inherent right of all people." This attitude toward the subject of expatriation, which has been so long and consistently maintained, would seem sufficient to show that the common-law rule of citizenship has never been recognized by this Government.

This decision, if it remains the authoritative interpretation of the fourteenth amendment, cannot fail to have important consequences. Its first effect is pointed out by Chief Justice Fuller, who says: "If the conclusion of the majority opinion is correct, then the children of citizens of the United States who have been born abroad since July 28, 1868, when the amendment was declared ratified, were, and are, aliens, unless they have, or shall, on attaining majority, become citizens by naturalization *in* the United States; and no statutory provision to the contrary is of any force or effect." More important consequences would follow in case of the annexation of Hawaii or the Philippines. Unless the natives of those islands are organized in tribes to which their first allegiance is due, all those born after the annexation of the islands to the United States would be citizens by birth, entitled by law to all the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States.

From the point of view of public policy, the present decision of the Supreme Court seems to be a distinct retrogression. In this age of rapid transit and of large migratory populations, citizenship should have a more substantial basis than the ancient feudal doctrine of birth within the allegiance. Napoleon, with the progressive spirit which characterized him in the formation of his Code, discarded the *jus soli* in favor of the *jus sanguinis* as the determining principle in citizenship. Great Britain has abandoned the doctrine of indelible allegiance. Almost all nations now accord to their citizens the privilege of expatriation. In view of these considerations, the wisdom of the Supreme Court in giving to a doubtful clause a construction which is contrary to the manifest tendency of nations may well be questioned; and if the matter is again brought before the court, it will not be surprising if the present decision is reversed.

CARL EVANS BOYD.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, June 27, 1898.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE ALEXANDRIAN LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That we cordially recognize the great value of Prof. Bury's new edition of Gibbon's 'Roman Empire' is no reason why we should overlook such points in the editor's notes as invite criticism. One of these is the question of the destruction of the Alexandrian library, which is made the subject of an appendix (No. 11 in vol. iii.). Prof. Bury says (iii., 495) that

"The only evidence on which Gibbon's statement [that the library was destroyed by the Bishop Theophilus] rests is the sentence which he quotes from Orosius. But," continues the editor, "Orosius does not mention the Serapeum or speak of a large library. He merely says that he had seen bookcases in temples (which he does not name); and that, since then, he had been informed that the temples had been pillaged [by Christians] and the bookcases emptied. It seems to me highly improbable that Orosius is thinking either of the Alexandrian library or of the Serapeum. There is no reason to suppose that the library was *in* the temple. I conclude, then, that there is no evidence that the library of the Serapeum did not survive till the Saracen conquest."

Inasmuch as this conclusion is given as one of the few needful corrections in the work of our greatest historian, and as a modern verdict which sets Gibbon's aside, I think it worth while to point out that, despite Prof. Bury's opinion, the balance of probabilities is still in favor of Gibbon's position. There is, it is true, no direct statement extant, that the Serapeum library was destroyed in A. D. 391, but this is not the same as saying that "there is no evidence." In the case before us there is the strongest circumstantial evidence possible, and without the admission of such the writing of history would be an impossibility.

Orosius, in the passage referred to (vi., 15. 31-32), has just been giving an account of the supposed disaster to the "great library" in B. C. 48 (Orosis lived *c.* A. D. 416), and proceeds to say that even he had seen libraries in Alexandria despoiled of their contents. With Prof. Bury "it seems to me highly improbable that Orosius is thinking" either of the Museum or Serapeum library. In fact, while paraphrasing Livy (or copying from him verbatim), Orosius sees an opportunity, not to be let slip, of saying something on his own account. So, although it has nothing to do with the context, he introduces parenthetically some indefinite remarks about the destruction of books in Alexandria in his own day—for the simple reason that his calamity-loving soul could not forbear adding another casualty to his list. (*De clædibus et miscriis mundi* is one of the titles of his history.)

The library under discussion is described by Epiphanius (xi., 168), as being ἐν τῷ Σεραπείῳ, "in the Serapeum." Ammianus (xxii., 16. 12-13) speaks in admiration of the temple of Serapis (*in quo*) in which he says was a library of inestimable value. Aphthonius (*Progym.* xii., p. 107), going more into detail, says that "within the porticoes, compartments (σηκοί) are built, some of which are intended to serve as alcoves for books" (παρῳκοδόμηνται δὲ σηκοὶ τῶν στοῶν ἔνδοθεν, οἱ μὲν ταμεῖα γεγενημένοι ταῖς βίβλοις). Others of these small apartments were utilized for the shrines of the divinities associated with Serapis. Comparison with other descriptions of the Serapeum, analogy with other similar buildings whose arrangement is known, the weight of modern opinion (see for example, *Zeit. f. d. Alterthumswissenschaft*, 6: 389, Ebers, *Scrapis*, c. 18, etc.), all tend to strengthen the belief that Epiphanius and Ammianus meant what they said in stating that the library *was in* the temple of Serapis. There is but one other possibility, and that is suggested by the situation of the library at Pergamos, which has been excavated recently. There the library occupied rooms in a row of small buildings in close proximity to the temple, certainly too close for them to have escaped any hardship which may have befallen the more important edifice.

Turning, then, to the great catastrophe itself: the work of Sophronius on the Fall of Serapis has been lost, but the facts of the destruction of the temple are amply attested, being recorded by *Cod. Theod.* (xvi., 1. 2), Socrates (v., 16), Sozomen (vii., 15), Theodoret (v., 22), Zosimus (v., 23), Rufinus (xi., 22-30), Eunapius (*in vita Aedesii*, 77), Suidas (Ὀλυμπος. Σάραπις, Σταυροί) Marcellinus (*Chronicon*), Nicephorus Callistus (xii., 25), and no doubt by others. The temple of Serapis at Alexandria was a last stronghold of the old religion and philosophy in the East, and as such the Bishop of Alexandria, Theophilus, justly termed by Gibbon "a bold, bad man," determined upon its destruction. He gathered the monks of Egypt into the city, whereupon conflicts ensued between the pagan Greeks and these wild, half-clad fanatics from the desert. The Greeks were compelled to retire to the temple and fortify themselves within its walls. Upon this, Theophilus obtained the authority of the Emperor to bring matters to a conclusion. The fortress was taken and its

defenders scattered. By the efforts of Theophilus and his monks "not only was the worship suppressed, but the temple itself was demolished," and Sozomen adds that a church dedicated to the Emperor Arcadius rose upon the spot. The attempt of Theophilus to root out not only the worship of this deity, but also the ancient customs and learning, was in large measure successful. Such a scattering of schoolmen had not been seen since the days of Ptolemy Physkon.

Is it probable, is it possible, that any of the equipment of a temple which, in accordance with the prophecy of the Sibyl, had "become a huge ruin in thrice-wretched Egypt," could have escaped the destroying hands of this mob, which considered itself the special instrument of God to root out these relics of heathen superstition? And would not books, always looked upon as pernicious by the illiterate, have been among the first things to meet destruction?

Prof. Bury is, I think, in error in supposing that Gibbon rested his case on the testimony of Orosius. Gibbon narrates at some length the facts of the destruction, including the erection of a church upon the ruins of the temple. As a last item he states that the "valuable library of Alexandria was destroyed," an event of interest to all book-lovers. Now it seems to me that, as it stands, there is a peculiar confusion of thought in this passage, which is accountable for on the supposition that Gibbon found the reference in Orosius after the original setting down of the statement just quoted. Without reconsidering the nature of the evidence which had led him to conclude that the library had been destroyed totally—that it had been situated in a building which had been razed to the ground—or modifying his conclusion that it was "destroyed," he inserts the conflicting alternative that the bookcases were "pillaged," and adds further a clause based directly on the passage from Orosius (which he quotes in a footnote).

His conclusion on the annihilation of the library along with the temple was based on his knowledge of the many accounts of the overthrow of Serapis, but, when found, the Orosius passage was of too great interest to be passed over without mention, and in referring to it Gibbon did not distinguish sufficiently between his two sources of information. All this on the supposition that Gibbon was human. Not only, then, is it highly probable that the Serapeum library did not remain to the Saracen conquest, but, if the evidence of Orosius means anything, it is also probable that at this time the Christian rabble made bonfires of all the books they could lay hands on in Alexandria.

FREDERICK J. TEGGART.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL., June 10, 1898.

ORIGIN OF 'POOLE'S INDEX.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the January number of the *American Bookman* it is stated that 'Poole's Index' originated with Mr. John Edmands, librarian of the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia. The *Bookman* says that it was while a student at Yale that Mr. Edmands prepared a system of references to subjects in magazines and reviews which was to be the germ of the work usually called 'Poole's Index.'

If the name of William Frederick Poole is substituted for that of John Edmands, the statement will then be the exact truth. In his preface to the third edition of 'Poole's Index,' published in 1882, Dr. Poole wrote as follows:

"Thirty-five years ago, when a student at Yale College and connected with the library of one of the literary societies, I indexed such reviews and magazines as were accessible, and arranged the references under topics for the purpose of helping the students in the preparation of their written exercises and society discussions. I had noticed that the sets of standard periodicals with which the library was well supplied were not used, although they were rich in the treatment of subjects about which inquiries were made in vain every day. My work, though crude and feeble on its bibliographical side, answered its purpose, and brought to me the whole body of students for a kind of help they could not get from the library catalogues, nor from any other source. My manuscript was in great demand, and, as it was rapidly wearing out, and printing seemed to be the only expedient for saving the work, it was put to press, and appeared with the title 'Index to Subjects treated in the Reviews and Other Periodicals,' New York, 1848, 8vo, 154 pp. The edition of 500 copies was chiefly taken by other colleges and soon disappeared. The little book is now a curiosity in more senses than one. For twenty years I had not seen a copy when, in 1877, I saw it in the reading-room of the British Museum, with its leaves discolored and nearly worn through by constant handling."

Yours respectfully,

Z. SWIFT HOLBROOK.

477 DEARBORN AVENUE,
CHICAGO, June 28, 1898.

COLLEGE DEBATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Ringwalt's letter in the *Nation* of April 28, and Mr. Carver's reply in the issue of May 12, suggest to me a possible way out of the difficulty of decision in the matter of college debates. Mr. Ringwalt argues rightly that the decision should be made not on the merits of the question, but on the merits of the debating; Mr. Carver replies that the Ohio Intercollegiate Debating League has adopted a plan to secure this result, viz., the furnishing of each judge with "a typewritten copy of the following form for his ballot: In my opinion, without reference to my views upon the merits of the question, the most effective debating has been done by the

{ affirmative
{ negative."

Mr. Carver says that, with this method, however, comes the danger that "brilliancy of speech rather than soundness of argument shall win." Why could not this difficulty be disposed of by the selection of men not "*presumably* suitable as judges" (the words are Mr. Ringwalt's, the italics mine), but men *without doubt* suitable as judges—in other words, legal judges of recognized ability; men whose minds are judicial, and whose habitual business it is to decide on the merits of the case. It is true that in all human affairs the personal equation counts, whether we will or no, but it would seem that such men might be better able than most "miscellaneous" judges to balance evenly the elements of brilliancy in speech and soundness in argument.

CAROLYN SHIPMAN.

WINCHESTER, MASS., July 1, 1898.

Notes.

Remarkable is the simultaneous transformation of a number of Boston publishing houses; Roberts Bros. being absorbed by Little, Brown & Co. and Lee & Shepard taken over by the estate of E. Fleming, a bookbinder, while Estes & Lauriat divide into Dana Estes & Co. and Charles E. Lauriat Co.

Not less noteworthy is the trend of weekly newspapers towards the monthly periodical form; the *Independent* now following the *Outlook's* pioneer example, and the *Critic* converting itself into a monthly magazine. One who seeks for remote causes may connect this movement with the decline of wood-engraving in consequence of the rise of "process" or mechanical engraving, which has immensely broadened the field of illustration, while this in turn has made the magazine form most suitable for the best effects in cut-printing.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, announce 'Our Feathered Friends,' by Elizabeth and Joseph Grinnell, for childish comprehension.

The Oxford University Press (New York: Henry Frowde) has nearly finished printing the first part of the Oxyrhynchus Papyri, which is being edited by Messrs. B. P. Grenfell and A. S. Hunt for the Egypt Exploration Fund. The volume contains 158 texts, 31 being literary and including the early fragments of St. Matthew's Gospel, Sappho, Aristoxenus, Sophocles, and of other lost and extant classics. The remainder is a selection of official and private documents dating from the first to the seventh century of our era, many of them of exceptional interest. The texts are accompanied by introductions, notes, and in most cases by translations; and there are eight collotype plates illustrating the papyri of chief literary and palæographical importance.

Eight years ago we had occasion to praise the compact 'Notes on Military Hygiene,' prepared by Major (now Lieut.-Col.) A. A. Woodhull, U. S. A. A new edition has just been brought out by John Wiley & Sons, revised in conformity with the intermediate progress in medical science, and with a special eye to campaigning in hot countries. The present war insures it a wide circulation, as it is one of the best possible gifts for officers or men; but we can truthfully repeat our encomium, that "every officer of a hospital, a school, an asylum, and every head of a family, may greatly profit by familiarity with this little book."

Sir Henry Burdett's incomparable annual, 'Hospitals and Charities,' for 1898 (London: The Scientific Press; Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), has appeared with its unwearied renewal of statistics and discussion. The editor, in his preface, sums up the British benevolence for the Jubilee year in truly astonishing figures: ten million dollars raised for the Indian Famine Fund without affecting adversely the resources of the older charities, which have never been so well supported; 1,100,000 contributors to the Prince of Wales's Hospital Fund for London, etc. Sir Henry much desires the favor of gifts of American pamphlets bearing upon the objects of his generous and most intelligent devotion.

A second edition has been found necessary of Miss Mary Wright Plummer's 'Hints to Small Libraries' (New York: Truslove & Comba). Within the compass of seventy pages, the fundamental information for the conduct of such institutions is systematically displayed with the aid of figures. The original selection is not discussed: "We will suppose that your books are already bought,

and that they are still in the boxes"; but there are sections on keeping up the library, on the most useful works of reference, etc.

'London and Londoners, 1898,' by Rosalind Pritchard (London: The Scientific Press; Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), is a handy first essay towards answering the tourists' needs: "what to see, what to know, what to do, where to shop." It has one useless but brief chapter, "London Ways in Smart Society," and for the rest is contrived with much practicality, and even with a slight literary garnish, as where Wordsworth's sonnet is quoted in connection with Westminster Bridge.

The great statesman's fame as a talker will lead many to turn eagerly to Mr. Lionel A. Tollemache's 'Talks with Mr. Gladstone,' just published by the Longmans. It is an interesting book, though it perhaps excites expectations which it does not satisfy. Mr. Tollemache, well known from his former writings as a man of large learning and good literary taste, sets out professedly to "Boswellize" Gladstone. But Mr. Gladstone was no Johnson, and Mr. Tollemache is far from being a Boswell. He has not the extraordinary realistic power of that realist before the realists, neither is he so willing to appear a fool as that unconscious Scot. He leaves the reader in no doubt that Mr. Tollemache's share in the conversation was well sustained, and that he had many another apt classical quotation to adduce, if he had thought of it in time. Yet he gives us a great deal of information about Mr. Gladstone's manner in conversation, and recalls of the substance of his talk not a little which is of much value. Many of the conversations in this book relate to theology and to Homer, of both of which both Mr. Tollemache and Mr. Gladstone were fonder than the average man. But there are also given many opinions of Gladstone's on public men and writers and politics and political and social tendencies.

An interesting memorial to the late Charles Eliot is the reprint of his last forestry report to the Metropolitan Park Commission in February, 1897 ('Vegetation and Scenery in the Metropolitan Reservations of Boston,' Lamson, Wolffe & Co.). This oblong volume, published at the expense of a member of the Commission, embodies "a treatise on the methods of controlling and changing the vegetation in the interests of the scenery." It takes up systematically six types of vegetation — the summit, the swamp; the coppice, the field and pasture, the bushy pasture, the seedling forest—and illustrates the text at every important point with photographic views, which constitute an easy object-lesson for all who are concerned with landscape gardening on any scale. Some tinted platês, with hinged foregrounds, are ingeniously contrived to exhibit the gain in broad prospect by cutting out obtrusive growths. Finally, the several reservations are mapped with a conventional shading that reveals the proportion of the several types of woody growth. These features would be enough to insure wide acceptance of the work, but the lamented author was an agreeable writer, and his text cannot fail to give pleasure to lovers of nature everywhere.

'Sleep, its Physiology, Pathology, Hygiene, and Psychology,' by Marie de Manacéïne (London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), is the English version, enlarged and revised by the author, of a work already published in Russian and in French. It belongs to the better class of the quite unequal units in the Contemporary Science Series, of which it forms number xxxiv. It presents in four essays, each of which is followed by a bibliography of many items, the results of a highly creditable amount of scholarship and of independent observation and experiment.

Nothing can well be more disconcerting to the onlooker who inclines to believe psychology essentially a study for "advanced standing," than the demand which seems to exist for elementary books on the subject. Prof. E. B. Titchener of Cornell, who not long since put forth an 'Outline of Psychology,' now issues a Primer "in response," he says, "to requests urged from many quarters by correspondents, who approved the teaching of the earlier work, that I should prepare for use in high schools and normal schools a text-book conceived from the same general standpoint." "Nevertheless," he adds, "the two are distinct books. The exposition of the *Primer* is simpler, and its range wider." Certainly, granting the utility of a Primer at all, the exposition is in point of explicitness and of lucidity admirable. The following, for example, as a statement for beginners of what is meant in empirical psychology by the mind is all that could be wished:

"It is a little difficult at first to understand this use of the word 'mind,' but it is important that the use should be understood. To make it clearer we will take an illustration. We might say: 'A chair is a piece of furniture that has a seat, and four legs, and bars, and a back, and sometimes arms and rockers.' That seems true enough. But if we look at the description closely we find a difficulty. Does the chair have these parts? Is there any chair there if you take the legs and seat and back and arms away? It is more nearly true to say that the chair *is* all these things than that it *has* them. When we speak of the 'legs of a chair' we do not mean that the chair is complete without its legs; we ought really to say 'the legs of the rest of the chair' or 'the legs of back and seat and arms.' Now it is precisely the same with mind. We must not say the mind 'has' thoughts and feelings, but that the mind *is* thoughts and feelings. Take away the thoughts and feelings and you take away the mind."

Prof. Ladd's 'Outlines of Descriptive Psychology' (Scribners) addresses itself to somewhat maturer students than does Prof. Titchener's Primer. "This book has been written," Prof. Ladd says in his preface, "with a definite intention constantly in view. In size, selection, and arrangement of material, style, and mechanical structure my effort has been to adapt it to certain beginners, with an average grade of culture and amount of time at disposal. In a word, it is —as its title indicates—a text-book of the science of psychology for colleges and normal schools. I have, therefore, had in mind, from first sentence to last, both the pupil and the teacher in their mutual relations. No pains has [*sic*] been spared to make the presentation of the subject such that it can be intelligently and 'economically' yet thoroughly studied and successfully taught." The book possesses the merits of the works of Prof. Ladd already familiar to the public to which writings on psychology are addressed, and bears, generally speaking, the same relation to Prof. Ladd's 'Psychology Descriptive and Explanatory' that his 'Outlines of Physiological Psychology' bears to his 'Elements of Physiological Psychology.'

'A Ride in Morocco,' by Arthur Campbell (Toronto: William Briggs), and the three other sketches in the little volume, "A Glimpse of Rome," "In the Land of the Mandolin," and "A Beggar at Monte Carlo," show their character in their titles. They are well written and make easy if not very profound reading. The author has evidently a good power of observation and a particularly keen sense of humor, which he indulges freely—too freely, indeed, in the first sketch, where his continual flippancy becomes monotonous. As a rule, however, he describes well, showing both real appreciation and healthy common sense as far removed from the æsthete as from the Philistine.

The unobtrusive beauty of the typography of 'Two Poems of Sea-Fights with Spain,' just issued in a very limited edition from the Marion Press, Jamaica, N. Y., is refreshing in the midst of so much William Morris eccentricity misapplied nowadays in honor of the printer's art. This thin quarto, as already announced, comprises Henry Newbolt's short but stirring ballad "Drake's Drum," and Tennyson's longer and perhaps not more stirring "Ballad of the Fleet," "The *Revenge*." But there is, besides, a prefatory historical note by Miss Mary L. Avery and a folding-plate after Seymour Lucas's painting of Dom Pedro de Valdez's surrender to Sir Francis Drake (then commanding the *Revenge*) on July 21, 1588 (O. S.). In every particular this tasteful memento of the absorbing world-topic of the hour has been admirably conceived and executed.

The *Revue des Poètes* is a new venture which began its publication on the 1st of June. The "Lettre Ouverte" with which it opens is written with all the confidence that inspired Capt. Shandon when he wrote the prospectus of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and discloses aims of equal loftiness and breadth. The show inside the tent, however, seems hardly to justify the picture at the tent-door, and, with every desire to be kind towards a first number, we are constrained to say that the far from thrilling poem of M. François Coppée is the best thing that this number gives us. There is also what seems to be a fairly good portrait of M. Edmond Rostand, the successful author of "Cyrano de Bergerac."

A recent number of *La Semaine Medicale* publishes the results of researches made by Dr. L. Vincinci of Saffari on bacilli in holy water, which he found to be swarming with a great variety of noxious bacteria. The most frequent and most dangerous of these microbes is the bacillus of diphtheria. Many a devout person is wont to touch his lips with his finger after dipping it into holy water, and this expression of excessive piety is a prolific source of diphtheritic disease. The stoup thus proves to be a storehouse of fatal epidemics.

While the Germans have not yet adopted the university-extension idea, they have been taking steps towards popularization of special research in various ways, notably through vacation lectures *(Ferienkurse)*, so called because delivered at university seats at seasons when professional men take their vacations and can spend more or less time listening to the latest results in their own and other departments. Such courses have been delivered in various departments at Bonn, Königsberg, and elsewhere. For the coming season a double series is announced by the Jena professors between the 3d and 23d of August. The one series is intended for both men and women, covering such topics as

physiology, psychology, philosophy, science of religion, pedagogics in all its branches, and special-languages courses for non-Germans. The second series is intended as a review course for teachers of natural sciences in the higher educational institutions. The subjects covered are astronomy, botany, mineralogy, physiology, physics, and zoology.

The movement to establish a missionary library in Cambridge University, headed by the Master of Trinity, Dr. Butler, and the Bishop of Ripon, Dr. Boyd Carpenter, is significant of the changed conditions of foreign-missionary work. A properly equipped missionary is not now, as formerly, merely a man burning with zeal to preach to the heathen, but one with some knowledge of the character, language, literature, religion, and traditions of the people among whom he is to labor, and the capacity to understand and sympathize with what is good in their customs and religious beliefs. He labors not to plant an exotic Methodist or Congregational church, but to teach the fundamental truths of Christianity on which the people themselves are to build a church suited to their life and habits of thought. The movement is also a testimony to the value of missionary literature, which is now a treasury of facts of ethnology, philology, religion, and the natural sciences, the result of observations of carefully trained men often of great intelligence and learning. The library is to be appropriately placed in the building in which is the Henry Martyn Hall—the centre of the missionary work in the University.

The statistics of the foreign trade of the Philippine Islands, sent by our consul at Manila and published in the Consular Reports for June, show that of the exports for the ten years ending in 1897, 41 per cent. of the hemp and more than 55 per cent. of the sugar went to this country, the estimated value being $90,000,000. At the date of his report, February 28, 1898, the United States imports from the islands amounted to "about a million per month." These figures, it should be said, are somewhat larger than those given by our Treasury Department. Among the other contents are statements of the grain trade of Russia, from which it appears that she supplies practically all of Italy's imported wheat and nearly all of Spain's; and some interesting facts in regard to the mineral production of Canada.

Notwithstanding the insinuations as to German enmity and opposition to America and Anglo-Saxon federation, the motherland of both Greater and Lesser Britain does not yield the *pas* to either of them in allegiance to King Shakspere. The *Shakespeare-Jahrbuch* for 1897 records 930 evenings devoted to Shakspere by 158 German theatres, giving performances of twenty-four different plays, "Othello" leading with 121 representations at 72 theatres, followed by "Romeo and Juliet" with 118 representations at 61 theatres, while "The Tempest" alone had a single performance.

—The *National Geographic Magazine* for June (Washington), as the sub-title "Philippine Number" indicates, is wholly devoted to an account of those islands, their physical characteristics, fauna, flora, resources, inhabitants, and commerce. From the official observations it appears that the hottest months are April and May, with a mean temperature of 83 degrees and 84 degrees respectively, while for July and the two following months it is 81 degrees. The greatest rainfall is in September, with a mean of 15 and a maximum of 61 inches; the mean for the year being 75 inches. The most dangerous time for typhoons in Manila is about the end of October and beginning of November. The beasts of prey are confined to a small cat, and the wild animals are buffalo, deer, hogs, and monkeys. Gold exists over extensive areas on the island of Luzon: "in the alluvial deposits of every stream on the Pacific side some color of gold can be found." Though the natives have obtained considerable gold by washing and have made some crude attempts to grind the gold-bearing rock, the Spaniards have done nothing to utilize this source of wealth. The same is mainly true of the abundant iron ore, of excellent quality, of the rich deposits of copper, sulphur, and the very promising coal-fields. Two of the primitive tribes are described at some length by Dean C. Worcester, who has made several visits to the least-explored islands in search of birds and mammals. The most interesting of these was the Mangyan, a nomadic race living in the forests in the interior of Mindoro. The Spaniards have not succeeded in subduing them, and half-hearted attempts to civilize them have proved abortive. Although described as head-hunters and cannibals, they were found to be perfectly harmless when their confidence was gained. There was not to be observed the slightest indication of worship of any kind, but their morals are astonishingly good. The men are honest, and the women chaste. The fire ordeal is used by them to determine guilt or innocence. The Tagbanuas of Palawan, however, cause both accuser and accused to "dive into the water at the same instant. The one who remains longest beneath the surface is adjudged to have spoken the truth." Their standard for measuring distance is based on the carrying power of the human voice; a given thing being so many "calls" away. There is a map and a number of illustrations, the most noteworthy being of the savages, who appear neither unintelligent nor unattractive.

—It is probably due to the influence of Lord Acton, now professor of modern history at Cambridge, that the attention of historical students in that university has been so largely turned of late towards the investigation of political thought. The competition for the Thirlwall prize has already produced Mr. Figgis's 'Divine Right'; and now it gives us the other side of the political speculation of the period in 'The History of English Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century,' by Mr. G. P. Gooch (Cambridge Historical Essays, No. X., New York: Macmillan). This is certainly a useful contribution to our knowledge of the subject. Its author has carefully worked through a great deal of the pamphlet literature; he has brought the various writers into their proper chronological order and relation to contemporary events, and all subsequent investigators will feel grateful to him for his abundant and exact references. But, unfortunately, his book can hardly be treated as anything more than an elaborate bibliography of the subject. The really significant things are not made to stand out; there is no attempt to show that seventeenth-century political thought had its roots in ancient philosophy and mediæval theology as well as in contemporary conditions; the narrative is almost devoid of movement; and the style is wooden, scrappy, and frequently obscure. A book like this reinforces the conviction that, for the best historical work, even of the nature of original research, there must be a union of the new scientific ideal with the old belles-lettristic spirit. After all, the history of political thought should be more than a conglomeration of citations; it is a fragment of human life, which needs to be presented as life. And how lifeless Mr. Gooch's book is, compared, let us say, with Borgeaud's 'Rise of Modern Democracy'!

—The fourth centenary of Savonarola's martyrdom, May 23, 1498, has been fitly commemorated by Prof. Villari, in conjunction with his former pupil, Professor Casanova, through the publication of a portly volume, 'Scelta di Prediche e Scritti, con nuovi Documenti intorno alla sua Vita' (Florence: Sansoni). This consists mainly of a series of selected passages from the sermons and writings of Fra Girolamo, sufficient to enable the student to comprehend the character of his teachings, and the nature of the eloquence which wrought with such tremendous effect upon the Florentines. The specimens given of his poetry are more conclusive as to his earnest piety than as to his lyric gifts, while among his prose writings the "Compendio delle Rivelazioni" affords satisfactory evidence of the sincerity of his own belief in his inspiration, and the letters to the members of his family reveal the warmth of his filial affection during his stormy career as prophet and leader of the Florentine democracy. While scattered writings of Savonarola can readily be picked up in various editions of the sixteenth century, many of them are scarce, and Professor Villari has performed a welcome service in thus selecting from the mass and presenting in a reasonable compass all that is necessary to give an adequate conception of the different phases of the prophet's mental activities. The value of the volume is, moreover, largely enhanced by the inclusion of two inedited contemporary documents throwing light on Savonarola's career— the "Epistola" of his disciple the Frate Placido Cinozzi, and extracts from the "Cronaca" of Simone Filipepi, brother of Sandro Botticelli, recently discovered in the Vatican library. The latter especially gives a living picture of the times which students of the Italian renaissance cannot fail to appreciate.

—The Japanese illustrated magazines are full of the recent celebrations in Tokio of the thirtieth year of the transference of the national capital from Kioto to the site of Yedo. The chief literary expression of the joyful anniversary is a neat volume of 330 pages, copiously illustrated with half-tone reproductions of scenes and of personages prominent in 1868 and in 1898. It is characteristic of commercial Japan, for its cost is guaranteed by the insertion of fifty or more pages of advertisements of things native and imported. In remote ages Yedo (gate of the bay) was a village, but its history as a city began with Iyeyasu, the unifier of Japan, in 1604. Iyemitsu, his grandson, continued the policy of centralization of feudalism. The summit of municipal grandeur was reached about 1850. Except visits from Koreans and Dutchmen, Townsend Harris was the first foreigner in our century to live in Yedo, in 1858. The Premier Ii was promptly assassinated in 1860 for signing the treaty with the United States. Then followed the vain attempt of Echizen to reform morals

and politics by pulling out the king-bolt of the feudal machine—relieving the daimios of their enforced residence of six months yearly in Yedo. This move was the remaking of Kioto as the real political centre of the Empire. After the decisive battle of Fushimi and the march of the imperialists under Saigo on Yedo, the city was saved from the torch by the diplomacy of Katsu, who still lives. The memorial of Okubo wrought the change of policy which abolished the mystery-play of the invisible Son of Heaven, got the Mikado down on the earth, and transported him to Yedo, which was forthwith named Tokio, or Eastern Capital. "Saikio," or Western Capital, once so common, is now rarely heard, and Kioto keeps its ancient name, honored during eleven hundred years. The Anniversary Book gives the poems, speeches, programmes of ceremonies, descriptions of the costume-processions, and accounts of the tableaux, arches, allegorical representations, etc. There seems little ground for believing that the Japanese show any failure to appreciate their own past, or lack capacity to adapt themselves in full æsthetic consciousness to their new conditions of life. Besides the floral decorations in the forms of arches and the costumes and ceremonies imported in recent decades, there was a notable revival of ancient games and spectacles illustrative of war and peace. Polo, which in Japan dates from the twelfth century and peacefully mimics the cavalry charges of the Heike and Genji (whites and reds) in their civil wars, and the heads gathered from the slain after battle, was played with especial zest. The geisha (artists or singing girls) lent the charm of beauty and disciplined grace. Especially striking were artistic reproductions in color of the luxuriant folk-lore—the tongue-cut sparrow, Peachling and his conquest of the Demon's Island, etc. Indeed, pretty much the whole population of Japanese fairy world, with all its sprites, goblins, and funny creatures of earth, air, and sea, appeared in the "floats" or on human legs. When critically read, the national folk-lore is a mirror of Japanese history, while the popular enjoyment of the ancient stories is unmeasured.

—In the eyes of students, the unification of Japan in the sixteenth century, which made Yedo possible, though completed by Iyeyasu, was begun by Hideyoshi. A consciousness of national unity, unknown in its fulness before the war of 1894-95, has prompted the Japanese to restore the tomb and cemetery in Kioto in which rest the ashes of the Taiko who from a stable-boy became the Mikado's highest officer. The elaborate official, religious, and popular ceremonies in Kioto during May in honor of Hideyoshi show little sign of that denationalization which some natives fear. To this, also, the magazines are devoted. Among the literary features of the celebration is the historical paper which recalls the fact that during the early sixteenth century, when the Japanese sea-rovers harried the coasts from Siberia to Siam, and Shantung was overrun by them, the first fort was built in the early days of the Ming dynasty by the Chinese at Wei-hai-Wei to repel them. As the Japanese marched out of this British-Chinese stronghold, several hundred marines and sailors from the thirty or more British men-of-war now at Chifu marched in. One of the first things started was a playground for cricket.

SIR HENRY RAWLINSON.

A Memoir of Major-General Sir Henry Creswicke Rawlinson, Bart., K.C.B., etc. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Canon of Canterbury, late Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford. With an Introduction by Field-Marshal Lord Roberts of Kandahar, V.C. With illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co.

Sir Henry Rawlinson's title to fame rests primarily on his decipherment of the cuneiform characters, which opened to the study of scholars vast fields of new knowledge. The history, literature, science, and religion of Persia, Assyria, and Babylonia were locked up in the cuneiform inscriptions, the key to which he found at Behistun in Persia. His achievement was both more difficult in itself than Champollion's famous decipherment of the Egyptian hieroglyphs, and also more important in its results. The Rosetta stone contained the same inscription in Greek, in Egyptian demotic, and Egyptian hieroglyphic characters. The character and language of the inscription in one form were, therefore, already well established, and formed a base from which to proceed to the decipherment of the other two forms. The stone itself, moreover, was readily accessible, and it was possible to copy and study it without risk or difficulty. Even so the task of deciphering it was sufficiently difficult. But to copy the Behistun triple inscription was in the first place a difficult and dangerous task, and, when it was copied, no one of the three inscriptions afforded in itself a clue for the decipherment of the others, since each was written in an unknown character and a till then unknown or imperfectly known tongue.

On the side of a mountain, three hundred feet above the plain, Darius Hystaspis caused the face of the rock to be scarped, and then

"carefully smoothed, preparatory to the engraving of the inscriptions on it; and when any portion proved to be unsound, it had been cut away, and fragments of a better quality, embedded in molten lead, had been inserted, with a neatness and precision that rendered a very careful scrubbing necessary in order to detect the artifice. Again, holes and fissures which perforated the rock had been filled up with good material, and a polish had been given to the whole structure which could only have been accomplished by mechanical means."

On the surface thus prepared he caused to be engraved in cuneiform characters the same inscription in Persian, Babylonian, and "Scythian." Then a coating of silicious varnish, much harder than the rock, was laid on to make the characters distinct, and to preserve them from the ravages of the weather, the approaches to the rock were removed, and this great inscription left suspended, as it were, in mid-air, three hundred feet above the ground, on the face of a precipice. Others had made inaccurate transcripts by the use of telescopes; Rawlinson, with great labor and much risk, scaled the rock, secured "squeezes," and made an accurate copy, after several visits covering in all a period of ten years, 1835-44. In the decipherment of the inscriptions he began with the Persian cuneiform. Some writers on Assyriology ascribe to Grotefend the honor of deciphering the Persian cuneiform. Grotefend had, in fact, published some twenty years earlier an alphabet of the Persian cuneiform, consisting of thirty letters, but of these thirty letters only eight were correct, while the translations of a few brief inscriptions attempted by him were quite erroneous. Sir Henry found his work of no use whatever, and the alphabet by means of which he finally, in 1846, deciphered, and then, by his knowledge of modern Persian, aided by his study of Burnouf's work on the Zend, translated, the whole of the great Behistun inscription, was altogether his own discovery.

The decipherment of the second, or Babylonian, inscription was a still more difficult task. The script proved to be vastly more complicated than in the Persian inscription, not alphabetic, but partly ideographic and partly syllabic. There were almost 250 different characters, some of which, as it turned out, had a number of different values, both ideographic and syllabic. The script was not only extraordinarily complicated, but unike anything known theretofore, so that Sir Henry was often misled rather than helped by the experience acquired in deciphering the Persian cuneiform, and brought into doubt of his own conclusions. Indeed, so peculiar is the Babylonian cuneiform writing, that more than twenty years after Rawlinson had published his solution of the puzzle, and after scholars in England, France, and Germany, following in his footsteps, had published transliterations and translations of a multitude of other inscriptions, a learned work was published by a German scholar to prove that such a method of writing was preposterous and impossible, and the decipherment erroneous. How difficult, then, must have been the work of this pioneer discoverer! His method was first to ascertain the value of as many signs as possible by means of the proper names, which he found by comparing the Persian with the Babylonian text, assuming that the contents of both were identical. These signs he tested further upon other Assyrian and Babylonian inscriptions, many of which were passing through his hands at this time, because of his relation to the excavations of Layard at Nineveh. As the number of the signs thus deciphered grew, he was able to translate a word here and there, and finally, from a study of these words, reached the conclusion that the language with which he had to deal was Semitic, closely akin to Hebrew and Arabic. It was necessary for him, then, to acquire those languages before he could hope to decipher the inscription and correctly interpret the meanings and values of all the signs used.

It was not until the year 1851, sixteen years after he began to work on the decipherment of the Behistun inscription, that he published his 'Babylonian Memoir,' which

"comprised, first, a copy of the great Babylonian inscription of Behistun in the original (Babylonian) character, with an interlined transliteration of the same, and a literal translation of it into Latin, printed on seventeen plates, and extending to a hundred and twelve long lines of cuneiform writing; secondly, nine smaller detached inscriptions from the same place, together with three short epigraphs from Naksh-i-Rustam, similarly transliterated and translated; thirdly, a list of 246 Babylonian and Assyrian characters, with their phonetic powers, ideographic value, if any, and phonetic powers arising from ideographic values; fourthly, an analysis of the Babylonian text of the great inscription, with an English translation, down to the end of the first column (38 lines of the cuneiform text); and, fifthly, the commencement of a 'Memoir on the Babylonian and Assyrian Inscriptions,' unfortunately never completed."

On this memoir, published in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, rests the whole superstructure of Assyriology. No achieve-

ment of any scholar or explorer in the field of Assyriological research can be compared in importance, even distantly, with this great achievement of Rawlinson. Add to this that he was himself a most successful explorer and excavator in Persia, Babylonia, and Assyria, and that he planned and superintended the publication of the five great folio volumes of Assyrian and Babylonian texts issued by the British Museum, which are still the classics of the student of Assyriology, and it will be understood how vast is the debt which Oriental scholarship owes to Sir Henry Creswicke Rawlinson. Unfortunately for his popular fame, he did not, like Layard, record his achievements in fascinating volumes of travel and exploration, but only in memoirs in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society or of the Royal Geographical Society (for he was a geographer as well as an Assyriologist, and made many valuable contributions to our knowledge of the geography of Persia and central Asia, and especially the comparative geography of those regions). Even the present volume by his brother, Canon Rawlinson, while it records his great achievements as explorer and decipherer, fails to tell the story with the picturesqueness and personality needful to impress the public imagination. The fame of men depends largely upon their historians.

It is curious to realize that the man who achieved such great results in the world of scholarship was by nature and preference a man of action, a sportsman, and a soldier, and not a scholar. As a young officer he was a leader in social dissipation, "steward of the balls, manager of the theatre, head of the billiard and racquet-rooms, general getter-up of parties, arranger of pigeon matches, and a sort of honorary master of ceremonies at all dinner parties and social gatherings," the hero of a mad ride recorded in the *Sporting Magazine*, holding his own among the officers of the First Grenadiers, who "rode, shot, raced, betted, gambled almost without intermission." To the end of his life he retained his interest in sport, and one of the ornaments of his library, along with Assyrian marbles and rare books of the East, was a picture of his father's horse "Coronation," which won the Derby in 1841. He was a man of enterprise and daring, joined with an inquiring mind, possessing precisely those characteristics which under favorable circumstances produce the explorer, the discoverer, and the inventor. He loved to conquer difficulties and do what no one else could do. Seeing the cuneiform inscriptions during his residence in Persia, and finding that no one had yet solved the mystery, he undertook the difficult task. It required marvellous patience, indomitable tenacity, and infinite study in many fields. But the solution achieved, the discovery accomplished, he dropped that work to take up other matters. He left his Babylonian Memoir incomplete;

"he pursues the analysis of the text only to the end of the first column, and breaks off in the account begun of the alphabet at the second letter. The Persian Memoir terminates abruptly, not only in the middle of a chapter, but in the middle of a word. It cannot be denied that in his character there was an element of impatience which made prolonged labor at a set task distasteful to him. He liked the first plunge into a subject, and the broad views and bold outlines which are suitable at the inception of a new work; he disliked the elaboration of details."

For twenty-eight years, 1827-1855, he served the East India Company in India, Beluchistan, Afghanistan, Persia, and at Baghdad; the remaining forty years of his life was spent in England, with the exception of a brief period during which he was English Ambassador to Persia. During these forty years, however, he retained his connection with and active interest in the government of India. His speeches in Parliament were on Indian affairs, and particularly on the relations of England and Russia in Central Asia. In this matter he took the position of a Russophobe and alarmist, in spite of the fact that he was a Liberal. He wrote in a similar vein in the *Quarterly Review*, and finally in 1874 published a book, entitled 'England and Russia in the East,' which enraged the Liberals, but met with such favor from the Conservatives that Lord Salisbury not only expressed "a warm approval of the work," but "to some extent corrected the proofs of the second edition." From 1868 to the close of his life, in 1895, he was a member of the India Council, and as such, from his extensive knowledge, not only of India, but also of Afghanistan, Kurdistan, and Persia, a trusted councillor of the Indian Government. It was, according to Canon Rawlinson, his advice, largely, if not chiefly, which induced the Conservative Government and Lord Lytton, who seems to have taken very close counsel throughout with Sir Henry, to undertake the second Afghan war in 1878.

Canon Rawlinson has done his biographical work conscientiously and on the whole well, although, as already stated, we miss in the narrative that something of vividness and personality which might have made the story of Sir Henry's explorations and discoveries more fascinating than a romance. As a fine description of his sturdy honesty, we will quote in closing a few words from a chapter on "Personal Characteristics and Occupations Late in Life," contributed by the present Sir Henry Rawlinson:

"In all his actions, official and private, the main guiding factor which actuated him was justice. Nothing irritated or saddened him more than the discovery of underhand dealings on the part of his subordinates; he judged one and all by his own high standard of moral and actual right. The feelings of an English gentleman were as strongly marked in the boy of seventeen that sailed for India in 1827 as they were in the Resident at Baghdad, or in the Member of the Indian Council. It was strongly against his idea of honor that a public servant of her Majesty should in any way be mixed up in a commercial enterprise which could in any possible way be influenced by his official position. It was for this reason that he constantly and steadfastly refused to become a director of any of the companies which were formed for the development of Egypt, Persia, or India. Though by no means a rich man, he would not accept any accession to his income which could be said to be derived from his having 'lent his name' to a syndicate; and it was certainly not for want of asking that his name was conspicuous by its absence at the head of company prospectuses. He was continually inundated with applications of this kind. In recent years these views seem to be looked upon as 'antiquated and old-fashioned,' but it will be generally admitted that the standard of our national character has not been enhanced by the way many names of note have been allowed to appear on prospectuses for the purpose of attracting investors. We have been drifting lately nearer, perhaps too near, to the system of financial morality prevalent on the other side of the Atlantic."

THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

The Smithsonian Institution—1846-1896: The History of Its First Half-Century. Edited by G. Brown Goode. City of Washington. 1897. Imp. 8vo, pp. xii., 856, many portraits and other illustrations.

A ponderous and stately volume, comporting well with the weightiness and dignity of formal science, is this commemoration of the first semi-centennial of the Smithsonian, giving an account of the history, achievements, and present condition of the Institution, whose origin is unique, whose position in this country is peculiar, and whose place is an honored one among the learned bodies of the world. It is prefaced by President McKinley, *ex officio*, and introduced in a few words by Secretary Langley, showing that the work was planned and partly executed by the late Prof. Goode, at whose lamented death the details of publication passed into the less competent hands of one whose editorial proficiency and knowledge of the subject appear to be equally slight.

Somewhat more than one-half of the volume is historical and to a large extent biographical. Its personal interest naturally attaches most closely to James Smithson himself, the founder, of whom the account rendered by Secretary Langley leaves nothing to be desired. It is an open secret that his name was originally James Lewis Macie, and that he was born in 1765 as the illegitimate son of Elizabeth Hungerford Keate Macie and Hugh Smithson, later Hugh Percy and first Duke of Northumberland, the mother being niece of Charles, Duke of Somerset. As the biographer observes, p. 2:

"It is especially to these facts that the foundation which bears his name is due, for Smithson seems always to have regarded the circumstances of his birth as doing him a peculiar injustice, and it was apparently his sense that he had been deprived of honors properly his which made him look for other sources of fame than those which birth had denied him, and constituted the motive of the most important action of his life, the creation of the Smithsonian Institution."

Smithson's own achievements in science are not conspicuous, and his life seems to have been a struggle with a stigma, with a passion for gambling, and with ill-health. He died at Genoa June 27, 1829, having in his will of October 23, 1826, accomplished the main purpose of his life by bequeathing his large property "to the United States of America, to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an Establishment for the increase & diffusion of knowledge among men." It was not until 1846, after a long series of preliminary steps, that the deed was fully executed. The organic act of Congress passed the Senate and was approved by President Polk on August 10, the first meeting of the Board of Regents was held September 7, Joseph Henry was elected Secretary December 3, and before the close of the year a plan of organization had been adopted, and a site for the building selected. The corner-stone was laid May 1, 1847. The building was partly destroyed by fire January 24, 1865; it was restored, and in 1878, the east wing, which had long been Prof. Henry's residence, was remodelled and enlarged for office purposes. In the course of time various additional bequests, large and small, have greatly augmented the financial resources of the Institution.

Details of the founding of the Institution, of the establishment of the Board of Regents, and of the building and grounds, are from Prof. Goode's pen, as are the biographies of the three secretaries, practically the successive directors. Henry served until his death, May 13, 1878, and the bronze statue

now standing in the grounds was erected April 19, 1883. He was immediately succeeded by Spencer Fullerton Baird, who in like manner served until his death on August 19, 1887; his statue remains to be erected. According to settled tradition that the office should alternate between a physicist and a biologist, he was succeeded by Samuel Pierpont Langley, the present incumbent. We have mentioned numerous benefactions additional to the original bequest. The benefactors are appropriately treated in a special article by Prof. Langley. Another special article treats of the Smithsonian library, which in the beginning was such a bone of contention between Secretary Henry and Prof. C. C. Jewett, and which seems to have long been an elephant whose whiteness was disproportionate to its modest bulk. The relations of this to the Library of Congress are discussed in a special paper by Mr. A. R. Spofford, till lately the librarian of the latter.

Though it is the traditional policy of the Institution to publish nothing, if indeed to do anything, that any other corporation or individual can be found to undertake, its ample resources have naturally led to its branching out in various directions beyond its original schedule of activities. The first considerable and still the most prominent of these collateral establishments is the United States National Museum, in the ungainly gaunt house adjoining the Smithsonian. This took shape from the Philadelphia Centennial of 1776, starting ostensibly from the requirements urged upon Congress by Prof. Baird for permanent preservation of the United States Fisheries' exhibit. Prof. Baird was altogether the most successful extractor of money from Congress ever connected with the Institution; unlike Henry, he never stood on needless dignity, was never too busy to explain to the average Congressman what he wanted, and his logic was always irresistible. A few thousand dollars for the care and exhibition of this small collection, against which, when boxed up in the narrow corridors, Prof. Baird used to let Congressmen bark their shins until they were in an appropriate frame of mind, was the entering wedge for the millions since expended upon the museum. Prof. Goode, who had a genius for musæology, became in due course its director, and under his fostering care it grew to become one of the leading establishments of the kind in the world. The volume very appropriately includes the biography of this distinguished naturalist, from the pen of President D. S. Jordan, of the Leland Stanford Junior University, as well as a special chapter, by Mr. F. W. True, on the Museum itself.

Several other distinct dependencies of the Smithsonian require notice. The most important of these is doubtless the United States Bureau of Ethnology, an account of which is contributed by Mr. W. J. McGee. This began in 1867 with Major J. W. Powell's personal skill, daring, and energy in exploring the West, and has assumed great proportions under his consummately able direction, always fostered and encouraged by successive secretaries of the Institution. The most recent development is the astrophysical laboratory, for the conduct of Prof. Langley's special researches; and, by the way, the chapter devoted to this subject will be found a technical scientific paper, from the hands of a specialist, on astrophysics, illustrated with numerous plates. Another ramification of the Smithsonian is the National Zoölogical Park, the account of which, by Dr. Frank Baker, shows that it is not yet up to the mark of many other such establishments we could name. If Baird were alive to-day, he would not cease to cool his heels in the halls of political greatness till he had all the money and all the animals he wanted; but a Baird will probably never be duplicated. The International Exchange System, to which a chapter is devoted, is an integral part of Smithsonian operations, and has been so for many years. It is so quiet and unobtrusive, in the nature of the case, that little is known of it beyond the professional scientists and scientific institutions that profit by its enormous facilitation of the interchange of books and papers all over the world, practically without expense either to sender or receiver. Another very important field of Smithsonian effectuality is its work in connection with exploration, for the collection of specimens of natural history and other museum objects. This began, or began to be noticeably efficient, in the years of the Pacific Railroad explorations, and has never ceased to be pushed. Few Government expeditions have been unprovided with collectors whose grists came to the Smithsonian mill, and many are the other scientific explorations set afield or promoted in some way by this Institution. A review of all this line of work is given by Mr. True. The number of Smithsonian publications has become enormous; they are in small part mere officialities, being mostly periodical or occasional papers in all branches of science, which have carried the name of Smithson and his Institution to the uttermost corners of the earth.

In the foregoing we merely touch upon the matters to which little more than one-half of the portly volume is devoted. The rest is entitled "Appreciation of the Work of the Smithsonian Institution," in the several departments of physics, mathematics, astronomy, chemistry, geology and mineralogy, meteorology, palæontology, botany, zoölogy, anthropology, geography, bibliography, etc., each such topic being handled by some one more or less capable writer. This is perhaps not unbecoming a jubilee, though the jubilation seems rather like a linked sweetness long drawn out than anything else we can think of on the spur of the moment; it involves some repetition of items already presented in preceding portions of the book, some statements that would be more important if truer, and numerous notable omissions. It is simply botched, like the index, the latter being one of the very worst we have ever seen in a book of like importance. The least pretentious, but by no means the least useful, paper of the whole series is that prepared by the veteran chief clerk, Mr. William J. Rhees, sole survivor of the most ancient régime, except Solomon G. Brown, who came in February, 1852, Mr. Rhees's date being June, 1853. It is a chronological list of the principal events in the Institution, relegated to the small type of an appendix, with needless discrimination against its writer. It is such a happy afterthought that it ought not to have been cut down about one-third in the manuscript, as we suppose it to have been, from our own knowledge of Smithsonian chronology and Mr. Rhees's competency. Those who desire to inform themselves on the whole subject will do well to take Mr. Rhees's paper first, and the others at leisure, somewhat in the order in which we have presented them in this review.

That the will of Smithson has been carried out not only in perfect good faith, but also on the whole with wise policy, is evident. To speak only of the two who have passed away, probably no two better men could have been made autocrats of the Institution than both Henry and Baird, the one of the period of firm establishment, the other of that of vast expansion. The future would seem to be assured if the opposite extreme of Baird's benign paternalism be avoided. The time when the old habitués of the place could speak of it as "Baird's hatching-house of young naturalists" is past. "New occasions teach new duties," and among these is the administration of highly complex affairs, requiring some restrictions and use of some red tape; but the strangury that useful article has been undeniably since Dickens made it notorious, and bureaucracy best befits the least scientific department of our government.

Memoirs of a Highland Lady. The Autobiography of Elizabeth Grant of Rothiemurchus, afterwards Mrs. Smith of Baltiboys, 1797-1830. Edited by Lady Strachey. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

The original words "that would have made Quintilian stare and gasp" were four Scotch surnames, and not very stiff ones either—Gordon, Colkitto, Macdonnel, and Galasp. Sir Walter, undeterred by Miltonic sarcasm, weaves into a sentence ('Marmion,' Canto IV.) four names that would have made Quintilian quite faint away, to wit, Rothiemurchus, Tomantoul, Achnaslaid, and Dromouchty. Mrs. Smith, whose memoirs we have under review, was a Miss Grant of Rothiemurchus, and thus the place appears in literature for the second time at least. It was, at the end of the last century, "a beautiful plain, with lakes and rivers and forest and mountain glens; black cattle were its staple products; its real wealth, its timber, was unthought of, so that, as its sons multiplied, the laird of the period felt some difficulty in maintaining them."

Lady Strachey's preface rehearses the main facts of Mrs. Smith's life and gives a clue to the narrative which it introduces. Elizabeth Grant, though at times she underwent considerable discomfort, was not a tragedy queen, nor, though she eventually did a great deal for the tenants on her husband's estate in Ireland, was she a philanthropist. She was the alert and intelligent daughter of a Scottish laird who became a member of Parliament and afterwards a judge in Bombay. She moved in upper-middle-class circles, even having acquaintances in the lower hem of the aristocracy. At the age of twenty-six she had the felicity of standing near the Duke of Wellington for five minutes together, but there is nothing to show that she was introduced to him. Her reminiscences derive their value from a strain of liveliness and quick observation rather than from being a record of political or fashionable society. Lowell, in one of his latest essays, "The Study of Modern Languages," witnesses from his rich experience that "to give pleasure merely is one, and not the lowest, function of whatever deserves to be called literature." Judged with reference to wholesome amusement, Mrs. Smith's story of her early days reaches a high level. She wrote for her children and a niece "with no thought but to interest them in those scenes

. . . which she recalled so vividly." Her memoirs "were privately printed by subscription, in order to make them more accessible to those whose interest in the actors and the deeds of that past time is a personal one; and in this form they have proved so attractive that the writer's daughter, Mrs. King, has consented to publish them."

Mrs. Smith had what is rare, a bona-fide intention of writing for her own family, and for them alone. Proof positive of this purpose is furnished by internal evidence, namely, by the 250 closely printed pages which carry the reader no further on his chronological way than to the heroine's seventeenth year. After an ascetic upbringing, her début at the Inverness Meeting of 1814 was a revelation both as to costume and as to pleasure. Here, with a fond glance at the gowns she wore, the first chapter of her annals ends. "There were white muslin with blue trimmings, shoes to match, and roses; white gauze, pink shoes, and trimmings, and hyacinths; pearl-gray gauze and pink, and a Bacchus wreath of grapes and vine leaves, for we had three balls, dinners before the first two, and a supper after the last." A second chapter carries her into Edinburgh and London society, and a third to India, where she met her husband. We submit as an example of her style a short passage relating to the author of 'Waverley,' which had barely issued from the printer's hands when Miss Grant came out in Edinburgh drawing-rooms:

"I was never in company with Walter Scott; he went out very little, and when he did go he was not agreeable, generally sitting very silent, looking dull and listless, unless an occasional flash lighted up his countenance. In his own home he was another character, especially if he liked his guests. It was odd, but Sir Walter never had the reputation in Edinburgh he had elsewhere—was not the lion, I mean. His wonderful works were looked for, read with avidity, praised on all hands, yet the author made far less noise at home than he did abroad. The fat, vulgar Mrs. Jobson, whose low husband had made his large fortune at Dundee by pickling herrings, on being congratulated at the approaching marriage of her daughter to Sir Walter's son, said the young people were attached, otherwise her Jane might have looked higher; 'it was only a baronetcy, and quite a late creation.' "

We are sorry that Mrs. Smith stopped short at 1830. She was at Baltiboys through the potato-rot, and in the thick of relief work. We can perhaps indicate the nature of her literary manner by surmising that, had she described her Irish adventures, we might have another book to place beside Steuart Trench's 'Realities of Irish Life.' Like all autobiographers, she falls into some errors of statement, but we pass by those which we have noticed because they are neither malicious nor of material consequence.

French Literature of To-day. By Yetta Blaze de Bury. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

While admitting the validity of the usual prefatory plea that the essays composing this volume, written as they were at long intervals and for different reviews, necessarily lack general coherence and uniformity, we cannot overlook the fact that each article considered by itself shows no very firm grasp of a dominant purpose or idea. These are not so much studies as magazine *causeries*, devoted to a number of contemporary celebrities, living or dead. When we discover that their range is wide enough to include both Charcot and Verlaine, we are not surprised that the judgments expressed are remarkable neither for novelty nor for conclusiveness. In proof of this the reader need but turn to the paper on Maupassant, which contains little more than hasty epitomes of some of his best-known novels and tales. Occasionally a happy phrase hits off a characteristic with some neatness; as, for example, when it is said that "Maupassant's heroes generally submit too easily to the call of their nervous system" (p. 34); or that Bourget's personages represent "a rather neurasthenic humanity in search of duality of feeling" (p. 130). Such sallies, however, fail to divert our attention from manifest weaknesses. Charcot's investigations of organic nervous diseases are more likely to secure his lasting scientific fame than his experiments in hypnotism, here dwelt on at unnecessary length. And, truly, it must require more daring than we were prepared for to maintain (p. 156) that M. Brunetière is safe against charges of literary injustice or partiality, while proclaiming him (p. 158) the "autocrat of triumphant convictions."

But an author who expresses contempt for "comparisons between talents so foreign, based on the fact that there was a single point of resemblance between the men" (p. 265), might well make some effort to avoid furnishing glaring examples of the practice inveighed against. On what conceivable ground can it be said (p. 34) that Mme. de Mortsauf in 'Le Lys dans la Vallée' is a portrait made out of the mere outline of the Countess of Almaviva in 'Le Mariage de Figaro'? Neither the two women nor their respective situations possess any fundamental resemblance. Nor do we understand why, if Brunetière is the Napoleon of contemporary criticism, and Lemaître its Mazarin, Anatole France has any serious title to be called its Voltaire (p. 238).

Much might be said in extenuation of the impression which these essays produce of having been thought in French, while written in English; still, so far as we know, French habits of thought do not commonly encourage writers to speak of a lecturer as "conducting his audience along the most escarped meanderings of his theatrical conferences" (p. 173); nor, again, of "gems hard enough to defy decay" (p. 279).

A Middy's Recollections. 1853-1860. By Rear-Admiral Montagu, R. N. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan.

The author of this small volume is a son of the late Earl of Sandwich, and entered the British navy as a cadet before reaching the age of thirteen. The period covered by his narrative is confined to his experience as a cadet and midshipman, but during this time he saw active service in three wars—in fact, all of the war service in his naval career. These wars were those of the Crimea, the British war with China in 1857, and in India during the Mutiny as a member of the naval brigade landed from H. M. S. *Pearl*. The Indian service extended over a term of eighteen months on shore, during which the brigade took part in twenty-six engagements of more or less importance.

The school of the British navy, even as late as 1853, was a rough one, especially for a youngster delicately bred as the author was. The rations of his mess were the same as those allowed to the ship's company, vastly inferior to those now issued, and the gun-room mess had much of the bad style of former days, without, as the author says, any of the higher qualities of the old naval officer to temper it. Still, it was a school of good seamanship, and continued so until the demands of speed, armor, and increased tonnage caused the removal of the lofty spars and sails. In the Crimean war, for instance, the *Arethusa*, a fifty-gun sailing frigate, in attacking a fort off Odessa, showed good handling when, sailing in, she fired first one broadside, then (in tacking) her bow guns, then her other broadside, and finally (wearing around) discharged her stern guns. Flogging was still in full vogue at the time of the author's life in the gun-room. In his experience it invariably occurred at half-past seven in the morning, all of the officers parading on deck in frock coats with swords while the punishment was inflicted. It is gratifying to know that the navy of the United States led the van in the abolition of this barbarous punishment, and its advocates in Congress included the few officers of the navy who ever attained seats in that body.

Some of the incidents of the book are suggestive of the times and writings of Marryat. One of the captains mentioned, for instance, during the Crimean war, always wore a tall beaver hat, which was then allowable as uniform, with what was termed a lightning-conductor—*i. e.*, a piece of broad gold lace from crown to brim. When the Captain went on shore, off came the lightning-conductor, and he was in plain attire. During an engagement the hat would become white from the smoke of the gunpowder, much to the delight of the midshipmen.

Admiral Montagu's experience in the Indian Mutiny included the sight of blowing Sepoy mutineers from a gun. It is described by him as follows:

"We used to form our force up into three sides of a square; a gun was loaded with half a charge of powder, and the rebel was lashed to the muzzle. This was done for effect, in the hope of overawing the natives; but those executed did not seem to mind it, for their souls were supposed to be saved if they were killed by white men; I saw them walk up to the gun as coolly as possible."

The book, though somewhat slight in character, is of interest and will help pass away pleasantly a few hours.

The State and Charity. By Thomas Mackay. Macmillan Co. 1898.

Although this little book appears as one of the "English Citizen Series," it is of such exceptional merit as to make it everywhere valuable. Owing to the federal constitution of our country, we have neither a Parliament capable of national legislation concerning charities, nor a board of charity commissioners capable of administration. But our States are communities of considerable size, and every one of them has to face the problems with which the centralized government of England is required to deal. Moreover, these problems are becoming quite as pressing here as in England. Pauperism is diminishing there, while it is not only far more extensive here than our statistics would indicate, but is increasing at a frightful rate. For example, during the period from 1881 to 1894, the number of persons in receipt of outside relief in the State of Ohio rose from about 8,000 to 100,000.

Mr. Mackay begins with a striking presentation of the case against almsgiving in

the broadest sense. He points out that, although the feudal conditions of *status* have been removed, there is still a disposition to regard poverty as a *status*, for the amelioration of which private property and freedom of exchange do not constitute an adequate provision. Hence the institution of permanent charitable endowments, which are really an anachronism in an age which assumes that an honorable independence is the general condition of citizenship. In such a society the receipt of alms is discreditable; and the Jews have a form of grace after meals in which they pray: "Suffer us not, O Lord our God, to stand in need of the gifts of mankind nor of their loans." This is no sordid commercialism, but a recognition of the fact that misery and unhappiness generally arise from the neglect of a number of plain and simple obligations, and that the character of these evils is not changed by eleemosynary ministrations. Whatever may be the Christian practice, no one can affirm that Dr. Chalmers has ever been refuted in his demonstration that the condition of the poor is deteriorated by the Poor Law, and improved by its abolition. This general position is sustained by the authority of W. von Humboldt, Turgot, Adam Smith, Lords Brougham and Sherbrooke, and others; but it is hardly necessary to say that the establishment of charitable endowments has proceeded *pari passu* with the modern increase of wealth.

Such being the practice, the need of regulation and visitation has become steadily more pressing, and Mr. Mackay tells us how the Charity Commissioners have investigated the past and modified the future of innumerable foundations. When we learn that the annual cost of this board is £40,000, it is easy to believe that their functions are extensive; but it is questionable if they are so extensive as they should be. Some 200 years ago one John Harrison left a fund for the benefit of his poor relations, the claimants of which are now 1,500 in number. Certainly such trusts as this should not be covered by the mantle of charity, and in numberless instances it has been found practicable to disregard the specific conditions of charitable bequests, and apply them with some regard for modern requirements.

For American readers the most useful part of Mr. Mackay's book is that which treats of the relations between legal and voluntary agencies of relief. Very conclusive evidence is given that the application of the workhouse test invariably reduces the number of paupers to a moderate figure, without increasing the suffering from poverty. This application, however, is desirably supplemented by such agencies as the Charity Organization societies; and most other charities, to put it bluntly, do more harm than good. Their managers are naturally disposed to extend their operations, and it is hardly necessary to say that the demands of recipients of benefaction always keep up with the supply. Mr. Mackay is well aware that much of his doctrine is contrary to the sentiment of very many well-meaning people; but he urges with a great deal of force the undeniable lessons of experience concerning the results of almsgiving, and insists that unless we are bound to try a communistic experiment, we should consistently apply the principles of the contractual régime.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E. The Documents of the Hexateuch. Vol. II. Putnams. $4.
Block, L. J. Capriccios. Putnams. $1.25.
Bréal, Michel. Un Officier de l'Ancienne France, etc. Deux Etudes sur Goethe. Paris: Hachette.
Britton, Prof. N. L., and Brown, Addison. An Illustrated Flora of the Northern U. S., Canada, and the British Possessions. Vol. III. Apocynaceæ to Compositæ. Scribners. $3.
Brownson, H. F. Orestes A. Brownson's Early Life, 1803-1844. Detroit, Mich.: H. F. Brownson.
Bruchmann, Kurt. Poetik: Naturlehre der Dichtung. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Brunetière, F. Essays in French Literature. Scribners. $2.
Burt, P. H. Regret of Spring. A Love Episode. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Bryce, James. William Ewart Gladstone. Century Co. $1.
Burdett's Hospitals and Charities. 1898. London: Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Chailley-Bert, Joseph. L'Education et les Colonies. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Chester, Norley. Stories from Dante. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Collections and Recollections. By One Who has Kept a Diary. Harpers. $2.50.
Colton, B. P. Physiology, Experimental and Descriptive. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.12.
Conklin, Abram. What Are You Doing Here? Boston: J. H. West. 50c.
Conybeare, F. C. The Key of Truth: A Manual of the Paulician Church of Armenia. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Curry, J. L. M. A Brief Sketch of George Peabody, and a History of the Peabody Education Fund through Thirty Years. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Foster, R. F. Common Sense in Whist. Brooklyn: R. F. Foster.
Frankel, A. H. In Gold We Trust! Philadelphia: William H. Pile's Sons.
Franklin, Rear-Admiral S. R. Memories of a Rear-Admiral. Harpers. $3.
Gautier, Judith. Khou-n-atonou (Fragments d'un papyrus). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Gibbs, W. E. Lighting by Acetylene. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Gooch, G. P. The History of English Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Hilyard, Ida L. Love Does It All. Boston: J. H. West. 50c.
Hollopeter, Dr. W. C. Hay-Fever and its Successful Treatment. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. $1.
Howells, W. D. Stories of Ohio. American Book Co. 60c.
Howells, W. D. The Story of a Play. Harpers. $1.50.
Kerr, Joe. The Cheery Book. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
List of Private Libraries. Vol. III. Germany. Leipzig: G. Hedeler.
Lys, Christian. The Hepsworth Millions. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Macgoffin, Barnes. Where the Smile Comes In. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Masson-Forestier. Angoisses de Juge. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Moffett, Cleveland. True Detective Stories. G. W. Dillingham Co. 25c.
Moore, F. F. The Millionaires. Appletons. $1.
Moses, Prof. Bernard. Democracy and Social Growth in America. Putnams. $1.
Oakley, Hester C. As Having Nothing. Putnams. $1.
O'Neill, Kate. Punctuation Practically Illustrated. A. Lovell & Co. 50c.
Potwin, Prof. L. S. Here and There in the Greek Testament. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Prescott, E. L. Red-Coat Romances. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Pritchard, Rosalind. London and Londoners. 1898. London: Scientific Press; Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Prothero, R. E. The Works of Lord Byron. Letters and Journals. Vol. I. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Rannie, D. W. Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne. Vol. IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Shields, Prof. C. W. The Reformer of Geneva: An Historical Drama. Putnams. $1.25.
Sudermann, Hermann. Regina; or, The Sins of the Fathers. John Lane. $1.50.
Taylor, Prof. A. R. The Study of the Child. Appletons.
The Atlantic Monthly. Vol. LXXXI. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
"The Living Age." April-June, 1898. Boston: Living Age Co.
Tyler, Prof. M. C. Glimpses of England: Social, Political, Literary. Putnams. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 14, 1898.

The Week.

It can hardly be said that either the war or peace has made much progress during the week. At Santiago, the American lines have been extended about the doomed city, and the fleet has shown its ability to drop shells in it; but repeated summons to surrender have been met by persistent refusal, apparently under instructions from Madrid. If the revolution in Spain hangs fire, our own proceeds apace, and the first of our island acquisitions has been made (under the pressure of "military necessity"), which the sober sense of the country, and even of Congress, had rejected in time of peace.

The long struggle over the annexation of Hawaii is ended, and the deed is accomplished. All that could be said against the policy of annexation has been said, and it would be useless now to repeat it. All that could be said against the means employed to accomplish the object, beginning with the illegal act of Minister Stevens five or more years ago, and ending with the joint resolution of Congress by which the treaty was superseded, has been said. It is sufficient to say now that the annexation project was dead beyond the hope of resurrection when the war with Spain broke out. That event and Admiral Dewey's victory at Manila brought it to life once more. The argument that we must have a half-way house between San Francisco and the Philippines carried the day, although it is not yet settled that we are to retain the Philippines or any part of them. Our own views of the annexation policy are not changed by the vote of the Senate, but we shall hope that the consequences flowing from it may be better than our anticipation, and that the various kinds of leprosy, moral, physical, and industrial, prevailing in the islands may not be engrafted upon the United States.

The Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department issues a publication concerning the Hawaiian Islands which contains many figures and statements of interest. The feelings aroused by the struggle over annexation have been so bitter, however, as to color statistics. Misrepresentations concerning the race and nativity of the inhabitants have been made and exposed, and the most conflicting statements concerning their morals, their health, their prosperity, and their political capacity have been presented by Congressmen of opposing views. Concerning the compensation of laborers, also, the accounts given vary extremely, and on all these matters the publication of the Bureau of Statistics contains little but hearsay evidence. As to commerce, its statements are official and presumptively trustworthy, but they tell us little that is new. It has long been known that practically all the export trade of these islands was with the United States, and that this country supplied 70 per cent. of the Hawaiian imports. There is no reason, therefore, to expect any material increase of commerce with our new possessions. We had it all before, substantially, and there is no reason to expect it to be enlarged to an extent at all commensurate with the expense which annexation will occasion us. In fact, according to the report of the Bureau of Statistics, the market for labor of all kinds is overstocked in Hawaii, and our Consul-General advises all Americans, except capitalists, to keep away from the islands. Laborers who may go there seeking employment at high wages will be disappointed.

Perhaps the most interesting part of this publication relates to the Hawaiian currency. We had already a bewildering variety of moneys in this country, but we now have several more. The principal currency in Hawaii is paper, "based on" silver. Banks keep two accounts with their depositors, silver and gold, and when a check is drawn it may be made payable in either metal. In case the check does not specify the metal, the law provides that the holder may demand gold, if the amount is over $10. Under this system, it seems, gold is at a premium of 1 per cent. Evidently we have annexed a system of bimetallism that has some important features, and it would not be surprising if the adherents of silver should advocate its general adoption, omitting the provisions of the law in favor of redemption in gold. The total currency of the islands is estimated at $3,500,000, the silver money being $1,000,000, of which $300,000 is held by the Government to secure that amount of paper. The debt assumed by the United States is over $4,000,000, and as the internal taxation already averages $6.48 per head, no great increase over the present revenue of $2,283,000 is to be anticipated. There is little in these figures to encourage the belief that we have obtained a bargain from the commercial point of view in assuming the responsibility of governing Hawaii.

The adjournment of Congress was marked by scenes of boisterousness which at one time threatened to end in a free fight on the floor of the House, but finally terminated in a jubilee of patriotic songs and shouts, rather undignified, but pardonable under the circumstances. In the Senate the man who is always wrong (Mr. Morgan of Alabama) protested against any adjournment whatsoever. It was his opinion that Congress ought to be in continuous session as long as the war lasts, to support the President, and especially to help him in the arduous task of negotiating a peace, if peace should be offered. Apparently, no attention was paid to this suggestion, for the vote to adjourn was adopted without a division. Among the measures left without action, the McCleary banking bill and the Nicaragua Canal bill are the only ones of importance. Although very few measures have passed, the session has been the most momentous that the country has witnessed since the civil war. It has brought on a war with Spain, has annexed foreign territory to the United States, and has paved the way perhaps to still greater acquisitions and greater embroilment. Whether these doings shall prove a blessing or a curse to the United States and to the world, the future only can determine.

The war, and the means of raising revenue to carry it on, and the annexation of Hawaii, have embraced so large a share of public attention that everything else has been obscured. Sixty-two bills, large and small, have been passed on these subjects. A bankruptcy bill has been passed, a commission has been created for settling disputes with Canada, the Bering Sea award has been settled, an old war claim has been paid (with a resulting scandal), a law for the arbitration of disputes between railways and their employees has been enacted, and the usual number of private pension bills have been "put through." Nothing that Congress has done, however, has been so generally approved as its adjournment. It is pretty safe to say that if it had adjourned early in April the country would now be at peace, the reconcentrados would have plenty to eat, and liberty in Cuba would have been equally well secured. This, we are inclined to think, is the private opinion of President McKinley and the majority of his Cabinet, and of our leading military, naval, and diplomatic officers.

The total amount appropriated by Congress during its recent session, of course, is larger than usual by hundreds of millions, because of the war expenses, actual and prospective. The figures foot up $892,527,991, of which over 40 per cent., $361,788,095, was on war account. Permanent appropriations to meet sinking-fund requirements and interest on the

public debt required $117,836,220. Excluding these two items, the total for ordinary running expenses of the government is $412,903,676. Chairman Cannon of the appropriations committee, for the Republicans, "pointed with pride" to the fact that this sum "is only $4,246,816.75 more than was appropriated at the last session of the last Congress for the same purposes (including the appropriations made during the recent extra session), which apparent excess is almost doubly offset by the increased appropriation of $8,070,872.46 for the payment of pensions on account of the fiscal year 1898, provided for in a deficiency act at this session." Mr. Sayers, for the Democratic minority of the same committee, retorted that, "when it is borne in mind that no river and harbor bill has passed this Congress, it will be seen that the appropriations by the present Congress have largely exceeded those of any other Congress for a like period for many years, and that, too, without including the appropriations for war expenditures." While no river and harbor bill was passed, the sundry civil act carries $14,031,613.56 to meet contracts authorized by previous Congresses for river and harbor works. Mr. Sayers stated that the appropriations of $361,788,095 for war expenses are intended to cover those to be incurred up to the first of January next; but Mr. Cannon pointed out that, in addition to the appropriations made specifically for expenses of the conduct of the war since its inception and for the first six months of the fiscal year beginning July 1, contracts have been authorized in the naval appropriation act for new war-vessels and for their armament for which Congress will be called upon in the future to appropriate an amount estimated at $19,216,156.

The appointment of a large commission to study the relations between labor and capital is a piece of Congressional extravagance that is, under the present circumstances, inexcusable. There have been many commissions of this kind, and no one has ever been able to specify any beneficial results from their investigations. They had one in England lately, composed of very eminent men, but as it sat for a number of years and its reports, as Lord Salisbury said, would cover several acres of ground, the public was naturally incapable of appreciating what was accomplished. If our Government had money to waste, it might waste it in this way better than in some others; but as it is running in debt and imposing new taxes, it is discreditable to allow an expenditure of more than a hundred thousand dollars, probably, to pay the salaries and expenses of a number of people whose incompetence is established in advance, and whose opinions when rendered will command no attention. This language may seem harsh, but it is justified by a glance at the list of appointments made from the Senate and the House of Representatives. It is hard to believe that the Vice-President and the Speaker did not make these appointments with the intention of bringing the whole investigation into contempt. The Senators named are Messrs. Kyle, Penrose, Mantle, Daniel, and Mallory; the Representatives are Messrs. Bell, Livingston, Lorimer, Gardner, and Lovering. Mr. Lovering is a manufacturer of cotton goods on a large scale, and a man of much intelligence. The others are rabid Populists, silverites, and professional politicians, whose conclusions might as well be formulated now as after they have taken evidence. It will be the height of folly to pay the slightest attention to the proceedings of a body constituted after this fashion, even if the nine members named by the President are better than those chosen from Congress.

The President's call upon the nation to give thanks to the Almighty for the success of our arms could but grate upon the finest religious sensibility. However well-intentioned, his proclamation read too much like a vainglorious triumphing over a weak foe. There is a great difference between our present war and the civil war. Then our very national life was endangered. Then we went about with a sense of instant peril. It was natural, it was devout, in those critical years, after a great victory, to lift up the instinctive cry, "Thank God!" But our war with Spain has never struck home to the national consciousness in any such way. Saying nothing of the manner in which it was brought on, or the men who were responsible for it, it has never aroused a feeling of national danger, never been anything more than an unequal combat of which the event could be in no doubt. Therefore, no victory, no series of victories, can come as a great deliverance. As leading to the peace which we all desire we rejoice in them, but our fervent thanksgivings will rise to heaven only when peace actually comes. And to the really devout mind there is something shocking in this particular arguing that the divine favor is ours because we have crushed a feeble enemy. True reverence does not thus press the details of slaughter as a reason for praise of the Highest. As the lofty-minded Lincoln said to Americans, the Almighty has his own purposes; and a becoming awe, a reverent silence, a standing still to see the salvation of God, are much more fitting in the midst of war, as Lincoln reminded us, than a loud and boastful Te Deum.

Public opinion in Spain is a thing difficult to gauge. The mass of the people is non-reading, inarticulate, and concerns itself very little with questions of government. But there appears to be no doubt that Spanish national sentiment is now turning very decidedly in favor of peace. There is no doubt whatever that our own country ardently desires peace. With both of two nations at war desirous of peace, it would seem as if the end of the war could not be far away. But this does not necessarily follow. Both nations just as strongly desired to keep the peace when it was broken. They went to war against their will. They may have to keep on fighting unwillingly. The practical difficulties of agreeing on terms of peace are very great. Spain might begin by offering now what she refused at the beginning of the war—that is, the independence of Cuba. Without saying whether peace ought now to be made on that condition, it is certain that it cannot be. President McKinley will not have a free hand. Any treaty of peace he may negotiate will have to be submitted to the Senate, and how moderate and generous and judicial that body will be we can all guess. If polled to-day it would undoubtedly insist upon exacting from Spain all that could be exacted if her last ship were sunk, her last gun dismounted, her last army defeated. This is what makes one hesitate about too confidently reckoning upon an early peace. Spain may say, "If we are to lose all, we will at least fight to the bitter end." As we said before the war, a nation may have a war any day it wants it; but peace, once thrown away, is the costly and difficult thing to get back again.

The reported intention of Germany to seize one of the Philippine Islands for a coaling-station need not produce any disturbance on this side of the water. Such seizure would be an act of war against Spain, not against the United States, provided the island were not occupied by us at the time. The Philippine Islands are some 2,000 in number. We occupy a very small space on one of them, and it is not certain that we shall continue to hold that. Everything depends on the conditions of the treaty of peace, when it comes. It might be construed as the sign of an unfriendly spirit if Germany should seize one of the 2,000 islands while we are making up our mind whether we want any more territory in that quarter of the globe than we now occupy, but in the eye of international law it would not be an act of hostility toward us. It would be distinctly so toward Spain, however, unless the latter had previously ceded the island to Germany. Without such cession it would make Germany an ally or a co-operator with the United States in war against Spain. It may be added that we have no interest to prevent Germany from acquiring a coaling-station in the Philippines.

Lieut. Hobson's report on his daring venture with the Merrimac explains for the first time why he was not able fully to block the channel out of the harbor of Santiago. That a passage was left alongside the wreck was known, even before Cervera used it to make his dash to destruction. But just why the enterprise had failed could only be guessed, till Hobson came out of the enemy's lines to say that the Merrimac's rudder had been shot away, and the collier torpedoed, by the Spanish. This made it impossible to swing her across the channel. The Lieutenant, who appears to be as modest as he is cool and fearless, says that he was "chagrined" when he found himself unable to carry out his plans. Chagrin is not the sensation which most men would feel when on a steamer torn asunder by dynamite and rained on by shot and shell from the enemies' guns; but, after all, it was a true mark of heroism. Lieut. Hobson deprecated the cheers that welcomed him back to the American lines: "Any of you would have done it." Very likely. We know that practically every man on the fleet offered to go with him when volunteers were called for. Such high appeals to bravery and duty command their own response. But the men below—the engineers, exposed to death without being able to strike a blow; the stokers, whose enemy is the cruel heat in which they have to work—where does their heroism come in? Of course, in the same self-forgetful devotion to their duty which marks some world-resounding deed of an officer like Hobson. That was a frightful detail of the Spanish flight to ruin—the officers having to stand over gunners and stokers with drawn pistols to keep them to their task.

Still another State is to have a body of colored soldiers commanded by colored officers. A company of black troops has been raised at Des Moines, Iowa, and it has been decided that its officers shall also be black men. This decision was reached after a white man had been picked out for the captaincy and his nomination had even been sent to the Senate. The negroes had an admirable candidate for the place in the person of a man who had served in the regular army and had proved himself abundantly competent for the position. But, notwithstanding all the arguments in favor of black officers for black troops raised in the capital of a Republican State, it looked for a long time as though the whites would insist upon having the command.

The discussion which has already opened as to the proper relations of the United States toward Cuba and other Spanish territory that may come under our control, serves to show how far away this nation has already got from the theory as to government upon which the reconstruction of the South after the civil war was based. A striking illustration of the change which has come over the public mind in this respect is afforded by a communication and an editorial article in a recent issue of the Indianapolis *Journal*. Maurice Thompson begins his letter with a reference to "our tradition that no people can be righteously governed without their own voluntary consent to the governmental act," and says that "upon this theory we have put behind us more than a century of brilliant history"; but he adds that, "like all other theories, it has more than once proved its correctness by the exceptions to its universal applicability." One such exception, in his opinion, is the Indian race, which has not been found, as a rule, capable of self-government. Another is the African race in the South. His reasoning, of course, leads to the conclusion that we cannot accept the principle of "the consent of the governed" in Cuba. "The negroes of South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana," says Mr. Thompson, "are much fitter for the franchise than a large majority of Cuban laborers. They have lived in better company, under more enlightened influences, yet restriction has been found necessary."

The significance of all this is found in the fact that the *Journal* endorses the contention of its contributor that the "consent of the governed" has proved an unworkable theory, even in States of the present Union. "Mr. Thompson," it says, "shows the absurdity of the universal application of this principle." It admits that, "if all peoples in the world were intelligent, all governments could be safely based upon the consent of the governed," but it maintains that "until the inhabitants of a country can be instructed in the theory of self-government, it is better for that country to be under the tuition of a nation of progressive and humane purpose." Nor does the *Journal* shrink from the logical conclusion of this argument as respects disfranchisement at the South. Yet it is the leading Republican newspaper in Indiana, and only eight years ago it was earnestly supporting an Indiana President in his effort to push through Congress a force bill, under which the negro majorities in Mississippi, Louisiana, and South Carolina, now admitted to be unfit to rule, were to be assured by the federal Government the right to rule the white minorities.

It was not so very long ago that our reckless currency experiments, coming along with a period of trade depression, were virtually driving gold out of this country's circulation. Between February 1, 1894, and March 1, 1896, the amount of gold in general circulation in the United States decreased no less than $82,000,000, and this occurred in the face of an output of new gold from the American mines, during the period, of more than $100,000,000. It will be remembered what embarrassments were occasioned to the Government's financial operations by this outflow of the standard metal, and the suspension of gold payments by both Treasury and banks is a matter of recent history. To what degree the situation has been altered, the estimate of the amount of money circulating in the United States outside the Treasury, July 1, is interesting evidence. This statement shows that the stock of gold in circulation has increased since March, 1896, no less than $215,600,000. It stands to-day at by far the highest total in the country's history. The use of gold in payments between the banks, and between them and the Treasury, has again grown very general—a curious instance of which is found in the fact that one day's payments last week to the Treasury under the new revenue law increased the Government's gold reserve $2,400,000, whereas the day's increase in total available balances in the Treasury, including its gold, was only $3,700,000.

England has been having one of her periodical "No-Popery" crazes. Sir William Harcourt sounded the alarum this time. A bill was before Parliament regulating benefices, and he seized the occasion to denounce the popish practices and leanings of the Anglo-Catholics. They were trying to undo the English Reformation. They were trying to carry the Church of England over to Rome. As for the individual clergy who were at this nefarious work, Sir William denounced them as being in a position which was "illegal, immoral, and indecent." It was wonderful to see how the English still respond to this old appeal. Parliament and press were convulsed. Sir William's daily mail leaped to thousands of letters, applauding or denouncing. It was urged that he was not exactly the man to lead such a holy war. His own devotion to evangelical doctrine had not been known to be absorbing. He was even accused of partisan motives, and the charge was not thought incredible. Other men might seem better fitted to discuss the nice questions of casuistry involved. Prof. Sidgwick, for example, can reason sweetly about the situation of clergymen bound by a creed which they do not believe. But Sir William rose in his character of blunt, bluff English squire, despising metaphysical cobwebs, frankly hating the Pope, and pounded out his conviction that the Romanizing clergy were but so many rogues. The immense sensation caused by the incident shows how little the old cries have lost their power to set John Bull puffing and glaring.

ENEMY'S PROPERTY AT SEA.

There is no doubt that the Jingo international jurist is hugely delighted with the retention by our Government of the right of capture of private property at sea. Yet it is the one thing so far done in the war wholly at variance with the past traditions and policy as well as interests of our Government.

The proof of this may be found collected in an article by Mr. W. L. Penfield in the current number of the *North American Review*. In brief, Mr. Penfield shows that our Government adopted the principle that private property at sea—ships and cargoes—should be exempt from capture, in the treaty of 1785 with Russia; proposed it to England, France, and Russia in 1823; and in 1856, at the time of the Treaty of Paris, in order to get it adopted by the Powers, offered to abolish privateering. In 1861 Mr. Seward favored its acceptance, in 1870 Mr. Fish expressed to the Prussian Government the hope that we might be "gratified by seeing it universally acknowledged"; in 1871 it was adopted through his exertions in our treaty with Italy, which stipulates that in case of war between the United States and Italy "the private property of their respective citizens and subjects, with the exception of contraband of war, shall be exempt from capture or seizure on the high seas or elsewhere by the armed vessels or by the military forces of either party" (except in the attempt to enter a blockaded port).

In Europe several countries have during the last hundred years made strenuous efforts in the same direction. In 1792 the French Assembly declared in favor of prohibiting the capture of private, unarmed ships, and negotiated to that end with other states; in 1823 France, intervening in Spain, directed its navy to capture only vessels of war and vessels violating an effective blockade; in 1866 Austria prohibited the capture of enemy's ships and cargoes, on condition of reciprocity. Germany, Italy, and Russia adopted substantially the same policy, and in 1868 the North German Diet voted for an international convention to secure the principle of the inviolability of private property on the high seas. In 1870 Prussia, in the Franco-Prussian war, agreed to adopt the policy on condition of reciprocity, and Italy has by law agreed to the principle whenever reciprocally adopted.

There is no doubt that the principle would long ago have been adopted all over the world but for the opposition of England, which is based on a lingering idea that the right to destroy private property at sea is a valuable belligerent right; and we have now reinforced England's opposition by abandoning our national policy on the subject in the present war, although we have at the same time substantially abandoned the allied right of privateering.

The English idea on the subject is a mere delusion, a survival, like the other English ideas once firmly held, though now abandoned, of the right of search and "paper blockades," "once a subject always a subject," and the queer notion of sovereignty over the sea itself, which came down from the Middle Ages and are gradually being dissipated by the progress of modern enlightenment. To those who know anything of the history of international law and the causes which develop it, there is something rather comical in this antiquated piece of mediæval barbarism being cherished in England. That it should be kept alive in the United States, whose interests are most opposed to it, and whose Government on numerous occasions has endeavored to suppress it, is still more so.

The real reason why all enlightened opinion is on one side in this matter, is that experience has shown that the right to capture private property at sea during war involves useless injury or, it may be, ruin to non-combatants. It is usually said that the abandonment of the right of plunder on land involves the exemption of private property at sea. But a far better case can be made out for a free hand on land than on the water. At first sight, the old system of sacking the cities of an enemy had everything in its favor. The Thirty Years' War in Germany actually ruined the country for generations; Magdeburg and the other places that Tilly occupied were made literally waste places. The wealth of the rich towns of the low countries that Alva took he appropriated. The same thing may be said of the old custom of holding prisoners to ransom, the lingering effects of which, curiously enough, are said to explain why the Spaniards were so unwilling to part with Hobson. Until comparatively recent times, the prisoners of importance were regularly held for ransom, just as prisoners of no importance (whom it cost money to keep) were knocked on the head. If the only consideration in war were that of making it as terrible as possible, these good old customs on land were more important than the right to capture enemy's private property at sea; the subjects of every nation have private property of great value on land, while by no means every nation has a shipping or commerce of great consequence. Nevertheless, the modern world has completely eliminated from international law the right to seize and appropriate private property on land, and where "requisitions" are made on towns, or indemnities exacted from the conquered, the money is not taken out of the pockets of individual owners of property, but is levied like a tax upon the community or locality, and thus, like any other public burden, is made to fall as equally and justly as possible. Even the five milliards taken by Germany from France did not ruin any individual non-combatants, and its payment will be spread over years, if not generations.

There are reasons, too, why, in the case of property at sea, the right to seize private ships and goods has recently diminished in importance. A hundred years ago, when commerce hardly existed, and the rights of neutrals were scantily recognized, a nation which had any commerce was obliged, in time of war, to protect its mercantile marine by great fleets of war-ships, which "convoyed" merchant ships from port to port. The protection of the merchant fleet against the enemy was consequently very laborious and expensive. In modern times, however, nothing of the sort is done. The belligerent, instead of protecting his mercantile fleet, lets his commerce transfer itself to neutral bottoms. This is what actually took place during our civil war. The escape of the *Alabama* caused a destruction of shipping, but the commerce of the country went on as usual in French, English, and German bottoms. We were justly indignant at the behavior of England in letting the *Alabama* get out, but could not prove at Geneva more than $15,500,000 actual loss. This transfer to neutral bottoms will take place in every war, and as it is open to any belligerent, the right to capture enemy's ships and cargoes has no effect on the fortunes of the war. Dr. Lawrence, in his well-known handbook on 'International Law,' as a result of his examination of this branch of the subject, states that since 1856 "ordinary belligerent trade has been safe at sea under a neutral flag." The rights of neutrals, that is, of nations at peace, have been extended until they have practically destroyed the value of the right to capture private property at sea. We may ruin a few poor devils of Spaniards by it, and by it help to make a few miserable women and children starve, but it will not hasten the end of the war by an hour. It is simply so much needless suffering for no end whatever.

THE STATE'S DUTY TO THE LAWYER.

Mr. George F. Hoar delivered last week an address before the Virginia Bar Association on the relation of the lawyer to the state, which has attracted a good deal of attention. Mr. Hoar occupies a position, both as a lawyer and public man, which insures him a hearing, and we have read his address with some curiosity to see what view his experience at the bar and in the Senate leads him to take of the matter.

We are inclined to think that on the whole the importance of the address lies chiefly in the collection of facts made by the orator to show the powerful influence exerted by judges and lawyers in the government of the United States. The fact itself is, of course, not disputed by any one, but many undisputed gene-

ral facts gather significance from the historical statistics on which they rest. Mr. Hoar's résumé in brief is as follows: Of the fifty-two signers of the Declaration of Independence, twenty-four were lawyers. The Constitutions of the original thirteen States were almost wholly the work of lawyers. Of the twenty-four Presidents twenty, and of the twenty-four Vice-Presidents eighteen, have been lawyers. "To-day the President, the Vice-President, the Speaker of the House, five of the eight members of the Cabinet, and 302 out of the 446 members of the two houses of Congress were bred to the bar." Of thirty-three Secretaries of States, all but two, Mr. Everett and Mr. Blaine, have been lawyers.

Coming to the Supreme Court, it is a fact which will no doubt cause some surprise to any one who has not carefully studied the history of that tribunal, that its power, great as it always has been, is at the present day used with vastly greater freedom than it ever was at any previous period in its history. We are accustomed to look back to the period of Chief Justice Marshall and that of Chief Justice Taney as being those in which, from opposite points of view, the federal bench, and especially the Supreme Court, were most potent. But the facts, notwithstanding the greater lustre surrounding the names of the earlier judges—and notwithstanding, too, the internal division and weakness revealed by such reversals as those in the legal-tender cases and in the income-tax case—do not bear out this view. The power of the Supreme Court, as illustrated by its willingness to hold acts of Congress invalid as being repugnant to the Constitution, seems to have steadily increased. In the first seventy-five years of the court's existence, Mr. Hoar finds but a single case—that of Marbury vs. Madison—in which an act of Congress was set aside, while since the war there have been fifteen, six of these being political, and dealing with legislation arising out of the civil war. In each of these, "the court held unconstitutional the legislation of the political party to which a majority of its members belonged—the party to which that majority had owed its appointment," and so "baffled and brought to naught the policy in regard to the great matter of reconstruction of the party to which I myself belong, and the school of politics in which I have been trained, and which I suppose was also that of a majority of the American people."

As the address was in great measure an appeal to Virginians on behalf of the Supreme Court, *i. e.*, against such attacks upon it as the Virginian Populist Democrats meditate, it was not rhetorically for Mr. Hoar's interest to make out the Supreme Court an oppressive or unduly powerful body, and no doubt on this account he omitted reference to the federal decisions ending in the unanimous judgment of the court of last resort in the Debs case, under which the judiciary of the United States now exercises an authority for the protection of life and property against organized violence which is certainly as striking an illustration of the growth and solidity of its power as the test-oath or civil-rights cases.

Such facts undoubtedly show that the bar and bench have a position in the American commonwealth of peculiar significance, and that the relation of the lawyer to the state is one which we cannot too carefully consider. But what has Mr. Hoar to say about it? He confines himself to pointing out that the member of the bar is actually an officer of state, offers some suggestions as explanations of his influence, which we need not examine because they would apply to one country as well as another (we may be very sure that the exceptional position held by the bar and judiciary here is due to exceptional causes), and then reads the old homily about the duty of the lawyer to the state, which we may abridge by giving a few of his leading statements:

> "Our profession is not the road to wealth; . . . the American lawyer is not of the class of men who serve their country for hire. . . . He is like Agassiz. . . . He has no time to make money. . . . He is thinking of the great principle he is struggling to establish in jurisprudence. He is thinking of his imperilled client. He is thinking of an honorable success in a generous controversy. He is thinking of country. He is thinking of duty. He is to be ranked with the clergyman, with the teacher, with the man of letters, with the man of science, with the judge, and the statesman, and the soldier, who expects to get nothing from life but a comfortable support for himself and household."

This picture of the ideal lawyer has been drawn a thousand times, and, considering the actual condition of the bar and its ambitions and achievements in any community of which we have any knowledge, and especially in the United States, it is a remarkable proof of our love of improvement and our desire to keep alive a high legal standard that it should continue to be regularly produced for the edification of the young at commencements and meetings of bar associations. But we must venture to point out that there is no use in painting this beautiful portrait, or dilating on the opportunities of a glorious career for the lawyer, as the result of his performance of his duty to the state, unless the state —that is, we ourselves—do our duty by the lawyer.

The career of the lawyer—the question whether he chooses the profession merely as the road to wealth and power, which in this country it certainly is, or as a career in which professional motives and a desire to serve the state shall play a great part—depends far more on what the state, of which Mr. Hoar confesses himself to be no small part, makes of the career. The road, whatever it is, as Burke said, will be trod, and the great question is, what sort of a road do we make of it? Is it such that the young man of high aims and generous ambitions finds that to get business he must make himself thoroughly competent to advise clients, or is he continually exposed to be driven out of the field by ignorant and unprincipled rivals whom the state encourages by a lax system of admission or discipline to compete with him, and who eat up his business by resorting to arts which he will not practise? Does he practise before judges who, from what we know of them, are sometimes far more inclined to encourage the noisy, pushing "shyster" than they are to listen to himself? Does he ever have to try to get the ear of judges when they are listening to those who, as the judges know only too well, have got them upon the bench, and may or may not keep them there? Does he find that his "chambers" business goes forward smoothly according as he makes presents to this or that underling (also an officer of state)? Finally, if his talents and ambition lead him to dream of a seat on the bench, and fit him for it, will the state single him out for this distinction, or will it tell him plainly that for rewards such as these he must look to a nominating convention, where it can be had only for money or favor; or, if it be in the service of the general Government, to the favor of low placemen near the President?

Go over the list of first-rate men nominated to the Supreme Bench in recent years on their merits and rejected, and put on the other side the nominations of second-rate men easily confirmed as a matter of favor through their very obscurity, and consider how full of warning to the young lawyer such a record is. The crying need of the hour in this matter is less to moralize over what no one disputes, than to do what we can to make the professional road somewhat different from what it is, and better. Throughout Mr. Hoar's address there runs the fallacy of an attempt to persuade his audience to respect the great authority of the courts, not merely on the ground that they are powerful, and that the part they play in the government is of the first rank, but because the profession is a sort of ideal governing body. The path to professional and political distinction must be considerably improved by us before we can expect to see any such bar as that to which Mr. Hoar likes to imagine himself as belonging.

RAILROAD IMPROVEMENT.

The publication of the plan of reorganization of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad has again drawn attention to the improved situation of railroad property. It is the latest of a great series of reorganizations since the panic of 1893, which have put tens of thousands of

railway mileage in such a position that no further trouble on any large scale need be expected for a generation. Indeed, accompanied as these have been by a vast refunding of bonded indebtedness at 4 per cent. and less, and by the general establishment of a system of published accounts of earnings, and by conservatism and honesty of management, it is not too much to say that a memorable revolution has been accomplished in what is, next to agriculture, the most important single industry in the country, promising a future which twenty-five years ago no one dreamed of seeing attained within the limits of the century.

Perhaps no better signal of the change could have been given than the announcement that the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was at last on its feet, for this company had been an "awful example" of the old régime for years. The system had been brought into existence in the way once so common, by adding road after road to an originally valuable and small line; an era of wild speculation had followed, then a period of ruinous debts to prop up the inflated monstrosity, then collapse, carrying down with it thousands of innocent people and the railway genius who was mainly responsible for the disaster. It is, we believe, the only railroad in the United States which in the space of a few short years before its fall stood so firm as to be the main source of the income of a university, while its subsequent history was so productive of scandal, doubt, and dismay that even an honest receivership seemed to afford little hope of relief. At one period of its checkered career, it is said to have been the cause of one of the most thoroughly circulated *mots* of the late Mr. Travers, who, on being asked what he thought of some railroad's method of bookkeeping, said that he did not like it, as "they kept their books with a lead pencil and an eraser." The reorganization of this property after the ruin it has spread abroad, on terms which satisfy "all interests," is as welcome as rain after a devastating drought, or a good crop after two or three bad harvests. It is a wonderful transformation scene, from bankruptcy to solvency, from perpetual quarrels to peace; from a gross scandal which frightened capital away, to honest administration which summons it back. It is a case typical of the present railroad era.

No doubt the immediate cause of the great change in the condition of railway property was the fall in the rate of interest to a point at which inflated indebtedness could be scaled down without injury, nay, even with advantage, to the creditor. It is obvious that the holder of a 5 or 6 per cent. bond coming due within a few years, and who, if he were paid off, would find it difficult to reinvest at 4, is all the better off if he gets for his old and doubtful, or more than doubtful, bond a new sound 4 per cent. bond, to run, perhaps, for fifty years, within which time the rate of interest will undoubtedly fall still further. But the difference on its bonded indebtedness between 4 and 5 or 6 per cent. means in the case of many a railroad the difference between solvency and insolvency. It is this circumstance which has made most of the late reorganizations successful. Twenty-five or even fifteen years ago this means of extrication from difficulties had not made itself apparent, and hence very often a railroad, after being ruined by one set of managers, was turned over to a new set, as reorganized, only to be ruined by them in turn. But now reorganizations, which in almost every case are based on an estimate of earnings made in the worst possible times, are made "to last."

In addition to these material considerations, which naturally attract most attention, there is at least one moral cause which now tends to strengthen the security of railway property. We refer to the attitude of the courts towards both bond and stock-holders. Without going back to the days when Barnard and Cardozo were on the bench, it is not long since there was a tendency in the courts towards what has been denounced as the "town meeting" theory of railway securities—in other words, to the theory that the law must carry out any scheme, however inequitable or even iniquitous, which the majority sanctioned. This theory, had it been developed by the courts, would have been a frightful engine of fraud. By obtaining control of an issue of stock or bonds at a comparatively low figure, a speculator would be enabled to use it for purposes of reorganization or consolidation on any terms satisfactory to himself, even though the rights of the minority holders were destroyed. The theory at one time obtained such currency outside the courts that it was no uncommon thing to hear of schemes to "get hold" of a certain security with the almost avowed intention of sacrificing the minority interests. But of late years the decisions of the courts have tended to explode this doctrine, the view taken by them being that the ownership of stock or bonds raises for many purposes a common interest, and that the minority rights must be protected by the law, if the majority attempt so to use their own as to injure them. The authorities on this subject have recently been reviewed in a very important case by the highest court in this State, and the principle applied that one corporation cannot acquire the majority of the stock of another, and then so control and manage its business, for the purposes of getting hold of it at less than its value, as to injure the minority stockholders (Farmers' L. & T. Co. vs. New York & Northern Railway Co., 150 N. Y., 410). Decisions such as this have done much to diminish the temptations once presented by the operation known as "freezing out." The reader will, no doubt, recall one or two very recent instances in which a minority has invoked this principle with success. Nothing can exaggerate its importance, and it tends necessarily to compel the reorganization of properties on just terms to all concerned.

THE LATE SESSION OF THE JAPANESE PARLIAMENT.

TOKYO, June 16, 1898.

It is a general supposition of outsiders in Japan that the Government and leading party politicians have a pretty clear understanding beforehand of the probable trend of Parliamentary tactics in the Lower House; but, in the special session just brought to a summary dissolution, all the political leaders seem to have lost their bearings. Even within a few hours of the dissolution, it was believed by well-informed Japanese that the session would be brought to a satisfactory close. The Government acted throughout as though it had reserves at command to influence the votes of the members. It had everything at stake in the measures it had laid before the Lower House. The final *coup* of the Government ending in a dissolution was, therefore, in the nature of a blow to all the parties and to the public as well.

The greater part of the month of April was occupied with incessant attempts to bring about an alliance between the Ito Cabinet and the Liberals. The National Unionists, who mustered only about twenty-five votes, were with the Government from the start. For a time there seemed to be a strong probability that the Liberals would support the Cabinet in the coming session. The Liberal press in Tokyo advocated such a movement, and their leader, Count Itagaki, was friendly to it. The conditions of this support were supposed to be that the Government would admit Count Itagaki to a Cabinet portfolio, and certain other Liberals to important administrative posts. The success of the attempt seemed to depend, so far as the Liberals were concerned, upon the moderation of their claim for recognition, and their united support of the measures which the Government wished to lay before the Parliament. The Cabinet undoubtedly desired an alliance with the Liberal party even though the votes of the latter, together with those of the Unionists, did not furnish the requisite majority. A fair number of independents could without much effort have been secured to unite with the two parties, if only the latter were in the mood to stand firmly together.

These negotiations, continuing so many days and even weeks, between the Liberals and the Cabinet, suddenly came to an abrupt conclusion. The alliance was not to be. No explanation of the failure was given further than that Marquis Ito could not see his way to accept the Liberal demands. What these demands were was not definitely made known at the time. It has since leaked out, however, that the Liberals were not able to offer much in the way of united support. Ever since the early session of last year all the parties in Japan have been on the verge of disintegration. The larger parties have been

split up into wings and coteries, and many small political clubs have been organized by the seceders from the larger groups. This factional spirit has so affected the Liberals that they can scarcely be considered a political body in the proper sense of the term. There are sections that have threatened to secede at every important crisis. In the negotiations with the Ito Cabinet it is probable that the party leaders were unable to guarantee the united support of their party to the Government, especially when they learned that they were expected to vote for bills that were obnoxious to certain members of the party. The result of this rupture was that Marquis Ito and his associates were left without a definite following in the Lower House, unless we count the rather insignificant support of the National Unionists.

The special session of Parliament was formally opened on the 19th of May, and was to continue its deliberations for twenty days. In this brief period the Cabinet required the Parliament to act upon three measures of the greatest importance, besides several bills of lesser importance. The determination of the Cabinet to limit the consideration of the bills to but twenty days was its first mistake. In no session have measures of a more far-reaching character been laid before the Lower House. The deliberations of the Representatives have in certain sessions, especially the memorable one of a year ago, amounted to little more than a vote of confirmation of the bills introduced by the Government. But the Cabinet could hardly expect this docility from the members under existing circumstances when it did not command a definite party following. In these few days the houses were expected to vote upon the enforcement of the Civil Code, three bills for increasing taxation to the extent of 35,000,000 yen, and a bill radically changing the mode of national elections. In addition to these major bills, there were minor bills requiring no little consideration, besides others which certain parties had pledged themselves to work for. The limited time allotted for all this gave offence to the Representatives, but it was in one sense an advantage to them, for the reason that it placed the Government, anxious to secure immediate action, to some extent within their power.

When the session opened there was at first no evidence that the proceedings would be hostile to the Government. There was, indeed, a party of extremists, composed mainly of Satsuma members, who used every means within their power to bring the Lower House to a vote of want of confidence in the Cabinet. But the motives of this clique were too transparent. The preponderating powers behind the throne, the Satsuma and Choshu clans, have not been friendly to each other since the fall of the Matsukata Cabinet, which was of the Satsuma persuasion, and these members hoped to take advantage of the widespread dissatisfaction with the present Cabinet (of Choshu proclivities) to make a thrust at Count Ito. But the House would not be persuaded. The majority of the members were in no mood for petty revenge of this kind, and were waiting for larger game. Toward the middle of the session a representation to the throne was introduced which, in moderate language, censured the Government for its conduct of foreign affairs in the East. But this was voted down on the 30th of May by a majority of fifty-five—a majority so large that it would almost seem as though the Government had scored a victory. Yet even on this occasion the attitude of the House was negative toward the Cabinet. Throughout the session the support of the Government measures often trembled in the balance. On one occasion, when the Government declared urgency for the land-tax bill—a point of doubtful constitutionality—a storm of opposition was aroused, and the Government made haste to withdraw its condition.

It is unnecessary to describe in further detail the bills which the Government laid before the Lower House, vital though they are to the current history of Japan. With a single exception they failed to become laws, and will have to wait for the election of a new Parliament. The exception is the Civil Code, which was hurriedly passed in the Lower House and finally voted in the Upper House in the last moments of the session. The passing of this Code was a matter of peculiar necessity, entirely apart from internal political considerations, in both the legislative branches. It is provided in the new treaties, which are to give Japan full rights throughout her territories on an entire equality with other great Powers, that the law codes must be enforced at least one year before the treaties go into effect. Had the Civil Code failed to pass, the operation of the treaties would have been suspended for a time, and Japan would have been delayed in securing her complete autonomy through her own mismanagement. Happily for her, something at least was gained from this Parliament, the term of which proved otherwise so brief and futile.

It was evident from the first that the real crux of the session was to be the bill for increasing the land tax. This was one of the three measures for raising a larger revenue. The first and second, which had reference to an increase of the saké and income taxes respectively, were likely to meet with no particular opposition. The proposal for a new land tax was certain to encounter much hostile criticism. The present land tax is substantially based on the laws of 1873 and 1877. According to the first, the tax rate was 3 per cent. of an official valuation of the agricultural and urban lands of the country, and in the latter year this was reduced to 2½ per cent. In 1880 there was a revision of the land value, which for the most part holds good at the present time. This revision was intended to reform the inequalities of the older appraisements, but not to change the rate, which has remained at 2½ per cent. From this brief account it is evident that the amount of tax to be paid on each parcel of land was fixed, and that the proceeds of the tax, except for trifling variations, were a definite amount, independent of the size or price of the produce. The total receipts from this tax to the Treasury were about 42,500,000 yen from the years 1881 to 1889. In the latter year some reductions were made in certain provinces where land was appraised too high, and after these reductions the state realized about 38,000,000 yen from this source.

In the earlier sessions of Parliament, especially before the outbreak of the late war with China, the land tax was frequently attacked by the Lower House. One complaint was that the rate was too high and bore heavily on the farming class. But with the rise of price in agricultural products in recent years—a rise due mainly to the extension of manufactures and the rapid growth of an urban population—this objection fell to the ground. The inequality of the tax, however, in spite of various revisions, was still a bone of contention. There seems to be a prevalent opinion in the rural districts that some provinces do not pay their share, while others are overtaxed. It is not easy to decide how far this complaint is justified. On the whole, public opinion seems to back the farmers in their contention, but the general prosperity of the agricultural classes in Japan and the general increase of their standard of comfort would seem to indicate that, in recent years, they have adjusted themselves to this evil.

The various measures for increasing the revenue during the past few years have borne very little upon the farmers. As the Government, in this session, proposed to augment the saké tax and the income tax, both of which would fall largely upon the urban classes, it wished to equalize matters by increasing the land tax. The rate was raised from 2.5 per cent. to 3.7 per cent. on agricultural lands, to 3 per cent. on rural building lands, and 5 per cent. on urban building lands. As soon as the bill was laid before the Lower House the opposition to the measure began to manifest itself. Individual members representing rural communities were instructed by their constituents either to vote against the land-tax bill, or at least to demand a reassessment before consenting to any increase of the rate. As the agricultural interests really dominate the Lower House, the Government saw that the battle would be a severe one. The length of the session was manifestly too brief for a full consideration of the bill, and the Government endeavored to placate the Opposition by extending the session one week to June 15. On the 7th of June the special committee to whose hands the tax bill had been intrusted was ready to make its report. The chairman announced that, with one exception, all the members of the committee were opposed to the bill, and recommended its rejection. From this it required no great insight to predict an overwhelming defeat of the whole measure. But one resource was left to the Government, viz., to consent to a scheme of revising the land values, and thus to secure, if possible, a majority in favor of the tax bill.

To feel its way, the Government suspended the sitings of the Lower House for two days—an interval spent in active negotiations with certain independent members who were not averse to coming to an agreement with the Cabinet on liberal terms. Vague charges of underhand influence and even of bribery were made during this time against the Government, but it seems to have resorted to no other opodeldoc than consenting to the measure of reassessment on conditions practically dictated by the independents. The suspension was, however, altogether too limited to permit of any canvassing of opinions or of making converts among the members. When the House reassembled on the 10th, it is doubtful whether the Government or any of the members had any inkling of what the fate of the land tax would be. Both the friends and the enemies of the measure were in a state of complete uncertainty as to which party would triumph.

The question finally turned upon a technical point of constitutionality. It was an exciting moment. There was a full House, most of the Ministers of State were present,

and the visitors' gallery was crowded. The regular order of business was the continuation of the debate on the land-tax bill, but one of the independents acting for the Government asked permission to introduce a representation for reassessing the value of land. The Constitution provides that if the debate upon any bill has begun, it cannot be interrupted by any other proposal, unless the connection between the two is so close as to make them practically one measure. After much confusion and excitement, the President decided that a closed ballot should be taken on the point whether the voting on the constitutionality of the representation should be done by a closed or an open ballot. The fate of the bill was understood to hinge on the outcome of this vote. The meaning of a closed ballot in the Japanese Parliament is that each voting paper is signed with the member's name, while an open ballot leaves the member to vote without signature and therefore without exposure of his decision. It was felt that the Government might have secured the adhesion of a certain number of trimmers who would be willing to vote for the representation and the tax bill, if only they were not found out. Hence the importance attached to the apparently technical point of a closed or open ballot. When the result was announced—164 for a closed, as against 124 for an open ballot—every one understood that the fate of the tax bill was sealed. The House defeated the motion for the introduction of the representation by the same majority. The debate on the tax bill was then resumed, but on the final vote only twenty-seven stood for it. The members were fully aware that the die was cast. The Cabinet allowed a brief interval to elapse in which some special bills were acted upon in the Upper House, but as soon as this was accomplished an imperial rescript was issued dissolving the Lower House.

However indefensible the action of the Representatives may be in opposing an increase of the land tax, there can be no doubt that resistance to the Government has strengthened the position of the political parties. The Japanese admire an action that shows strength of purpose under adversity. It required some degree of courage for the Representatives to face another dissolution. They had but just undergone the trouble and expense of an election, and they were all loath to encounter another. Probably nearly all of the members would have preferred to meet the Government half way, if they could have saved their reputations with their constituents. But they crossed the Rubicon fairly, and accepted the result without a murmur. The result is that the two largest political parties have already won back much of the ground they lost in the disgraceful session of last year. They seem to have recovered backbone. Never have the Jiyuto and Shimpoto been so jubilant as since the dissolution. They are making every effort to consummate what has heretofore invariably failed, namely, the union of the two parties into one effective political organization, and if the entire press of the country is any indication of party opinion in Japan, the plan is likely to be carried into effect.

G. D.

ARNOLD BÖCKLIN.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., July 8, 1898.

It is surprising how indifferent the majority of American art students and cultivated Americans in general are towards whatever Germany has accomplished in the fine arts. While the Gothic architecture of France and England, Italian painting and sculpture of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, the Renaissance architecture of Italy and France, and modern French and English painting have engaged both the careful attention of specialists and the devoted interest of the wider circle of art-lovers, it would be in vain to search among us for a single prominent advocate or exponent of German achievements in these three sister arts. Where is there in this country an opportunity to study adequately the wonderful development of German church-building during the Romanesque period? How much is known, even by professional art critics, of the superb thirteenth-century sculptures, in Naumburg, Wechselburg, Bamberg, or Freiburg; how much of the extraordinary wood-carvings of the fifteenth century, such as the altar-works of Michael Pacher and Hans Brüggemann? What American contribution has there been made—if we except the admirable work done by S. R. Koehler—towards a fuller knowledge even of such men as Dürer and Holbein? And how many Americans are there to whom the names of Karl Rottmann, Ludwig Richter, Moritz von Schwind, and Anselm Feuerbach are more than mere names?

It looks as though the same fate was about to overtake the life-work of Arnold Böcklin; and yet it is safe to say not only that the paintings of Böcklin are filling the imagination of cultivated Germans of the present day to a degree rarely equalled by artists of former ages, but that they are entitled to the earnest consideration of all those—whether they be Europeans or Americans—to whom art is still a chosen interpreter of the deepest mysteries of life.

There is probably no artist of modern times in whom elemental instinct has burst forth with such tempestuous power as in Böcklin. There may be painters who, like Turner, surpass him in glow and brilliancy of color; others, such as Puvis de Chavannes, may be his superiors in delicacy of tint and outline; still others, as for instance Verestchagin, may have a surer grasp in reproducing actual happening, but not since the days of the Renaissance has there been his like in exultant sense of creative vitality. Most artists are copyists. They merely tell, in one way or another, what they find in real life; they derive all their conceptions from what they see or hear. Only the greatest create their own world. It is to these that Böcklin belongs. Whether we like his conceptions or not, it would never occur to us to deny them their right of existence, as little as we should think of disputing the legitimacy of the manifold forms and types of Nature herself. This alone would be sufficient to give Böcklin a place among the chosen few. What gives him an added significance for our own time, what makes him a representative of modern life, is that he, more intensely than any other artist, seems to have felt in himself the two contrasting passions of the modern world: its feverish striving, its indomitable thirst for boundless activity, and, at the same time, its deep, inarticulate craving for spiritual peace.

Perhaps the most striking example of the Titanic impetuosity of Böcklin's art is his "Prometheus." Not even the masters of the frieze of Pergamon entered more fully into the spirit of fierce revolt that characterizes the ancient story of the fight of the giants against the gods. But to this spirit of defiance there is added in Böcklin a sublime touch of mysticism. This colossal but shadowy figure that we see chained to the summit of the mountain, stretching out over its whole ridge, half mingling with the clouds that surround it, we feel to be a part of the universal yearning and struggling of creation for a higher existence. Indeed, it seems as though dumb nature had found a voice in this suffering man. He, rather than the rocks upon which he lies, seems to form the real summit of the mountain; and as we see the waves of purple Okeanos dashing against its base, as we see the forests on its slope bending down before the raging gale, we cannot help imagining that all this together—sea, rocks, forests, clouds, and man—is one gigantic being, throbbing with passionate life, brimming over, even in defeat, with indomitable energy and desire. How insipid and sentimental do most of the modern representations of Prometheus appear by the side of this truly Æschylean conception!

It is, however, not only in such intrinsically heroic situations that Böcklin's extraordinary sense for the elemental forces of nature and their restless weaving and working asserts itself. Indeed, one might describe most of his pictures as illustrations to the words of the *Earth-Spirit* in "Faust":

> "In Lebensfluten, im Thatensturm
> Wall ich auf und ab,
> Wehe hin und her.
> Geburt und Grab,
> Ein ewiges Meer,
> Ein wechselnd Weben,
> Ein glühend Leben—
> So schaff ich am sausenden Webstuhl der Zeit
> Und wirke der Gottheit lebendiges Kleid."

Or rather, most of his paintings seem to quiver with that intense, eager, ceaseless emotion by which such an activity as the *Earth-Spirit's* must be accompanied.

What an irrepressible animal exuberance, for instance, breathes in his pictures of the sea. To him every wave is a living being. As they dance and glitter in the sunshine, as they roll and heave in the storm, as they break over each other and spread into foamy whirls, as they glide gently upon the sand, every one of them seems to feel, to sing, to wail, to long, or to rejoice. And at the same time the sea as a whole seems to be a huge, many-headed, mysterious monster, of insatiable appetites, of unfathomable power, and of endlessly changing forms. So that we are not in the least surprised to see all sorts of fantastic shapes and faces, mermaids, sea-dragons, centaurs, and fabulous serpents, lurking in the water and on the shore, riding on the crests of waves or diving into the deep.

One of these pictures shows a valley between two gigantic rollers, evidently in mid-ocean; no distant view; nothing but this enormous mass of surging water. But on the top of one of the waves there comes riding along a shaggy ocean monster, a fat, brown, rollicking, sea-captain-like fellow, and his sudden appearance frightens some mermaids that are sporting below, so that they plunge headforemost into the protecting element. Another picture shows the breakers dashing over some barren rocks in the sea; on one of the rocks there sits a grizzly Triton blowing lustily into a tortuous shell which serves him for a trumpet; at his side, stretched out on her back, there

lies a naked woman, letting the waves wash over her voluptuously, one of her hands lazily bent backward to her neck, the other playing with a gorgeous snake that has raised its luring head and part of its glittering body from under the water. In still another picture of this kind we see the towering cliffs of a desolate coast; the surf is just receding, in rapid eddies, through the crevices of the rocks and boulders. In the middle of the cliffs there is a cavern-like chasm, and here there stands, leaning against the bare wall, a strange, superhumanly beautiful woman, her dark hair flowing upon her shining shoulders, her eye rapturously following the receding floods, while at the same time she drinks in the sound of an Æolian harp that is suspended at the opening of the ravine.

In all this, what a wonderful fascination, what an irresistible passion, what a glowing, daring, bewildering life! Is it a wonder that Böcklin touches the heart of modern men? Is not this the way in which modern men live—feverishly working, feverishly enjoying, crowding eternities into a brief, hasty moment? Is not this an age of giants and of demigods? And do we not even in nature see our own selves, do we not even from nature derive excitement and intensified energy rather than edification and calm? I believe that, in spite of the classical form of many of his conceptions, there is, in this respect at least, no more intensely modern artist than Böcklin.

Herman Grimm, to whom we owe an admirable analysis of Böcklin's character, finds in him a lack of spirituality. He notices an underlying sadness in his work, and thinks its effect disquieting rather than uplifting. That here a real limitation of Böcklin's genius is touched upon is made perfectly apparent if we compare his sensuous and decidedly earthy creations with the soaring conceptions of a man with whom in artistic power he has a good deal in common: the unswerving idealist Watts. And yet I cannot help thinking that, if Böcklin lacks spirituality, he certainly does not lack the desire for spirituality. No man could have created such works as "The Silence of the Forest," or "The Palace by the Sea," or "The Playing Hermit" who had not a deep-rooted craving for redemption from this busy show world, who did not feel the awe of the infinite. And does there exist a more perfect symbol of the longing of modern humanity for transfiguration and peace than Böcklin's "Isle of the Dead"? Again we are in the middle of the sea. Out of the endless glassy calm there rises a rocky island. It seems a burnt-out volcano; on its sides we see, hewn into the rock, openings that remind one of the Christian catacombs. Waterfalls float like veils over the surface of the rocks and lose themselves gently in the sea. In the middle of the island there is a labyrinth of cypresses. Their tops rise above the surrounding cliffs and are being lashed by a storm that sweeps along in the higher regions. But in the forest itself there reigns absolute stillness and a mysterious dusk. In the foreground, on the water, there drifts a boat towards the island —no sail, no rudder, no oarsmen; a figure, shrouded in a white garment, stands in it, erect, but with bowed head. Soon it will have reached its goal. KUNO FRANCKE.

VOLTAIRE AND THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.—II.

PARIS, June 30, 1898.

We left Voltaire at the height of his favor at the court of Frederick. This favor was not to be of long duration; in two years the days of royal intimacy and friendship came to an end. Voltaire did not allow his royal friend to domesticate him, as he had done with so many strangers—Italians, Frenchmen, Englishmen, Germans, who had left their respective countries; but we must render this justice to Frederick: he was not the first offender in the quarrel which he had with Voltaire. One of the traits of the great writer was his avarice and an inordinate preoccupation with his financial interests. This induced him to buy for a large sum some bonds of Augustus, the Elector of Saxony. In the last treaty which Frederick imposed on his Saxon neighbor, he promised to redeem these bonds at par, though they had fallen considerably below their par value. He forbade speculation in these bonds, but Voltaire contrived to get some by the help of a Jew. Frederick was very angry when he heard of this transaction, and, for a time, Voltaire, though he still lived in the palace in Berlin, could not show himself at Potsdam. Voltaire had some difficulties with the Jew who had been his broker, and Frederick wrote to his sister, the Margravine of Bayreuth: "You ask me what is this lawsuit of Voltaire's with a Jew. It is the affair of a filcher *(fripon)* trying to cheat a petty thief *(filou)*."

Louis XV. was much amused with this adventure. Frederick, when judgment was given, wrote to Voltaire: "I was happy to receive you, as I value your wit, your talent, your knowledge; and I believed that a man of your years, tired of quarrelling with writers and with living a stormy life, came here as to a port of refuge. . . . But you made for yourself a very disagreeable affair with this Jew." Voltaire wrote back: "I have gained my unfortunate lawsuit, and, after having gained it, I have given this Jew more than I first offered him. This does not hinder me from consecrating my life to you; do with me what you like. . . . I have displeased the only man whom I cared to please. If the Queen of Sheba had fallen in disgrace with Solomon, she would not have suffered more than I do." Pardon was granted, in rather contemptuous words: "If you wish to return here [to Potsdam], you can do so. We don't talk here of trials, not even of yours. Since you have won it, I congratulate you, and I am glad that the affair is over. I hope you won't quarrel any more, either with the Old or with the New Testament."

Confidence was gone, and the peace was only an armistice. Friendship requires some equality, and Frederick could not forget at times that he was the King. Moreover, Voltaire was generally in the wrong. Among the members of the Academy of Berlin was a certain German mathematician named Koenig, who was librarian to the Princess of Orange at The Hague. Voltaire took his part in a quarrel which Koenig had with Maupertuis; he wrote an anonymous pamphlet, in which he represented the Academy of Berlin, which pretended to be an asylum of free thought, as subject to a real tyranny. With the help of Maupertuis, the King composed an answer to this pamphlet; it was published with the eagle, the crown, and the sceptre on the title-page. "If truth," wrote Voltaire to his niece, "must fly away from a throne, it is especially when a king turns author. Coquettes, kings, and poets are accustomed to flattery. Frederick unites the three crowns." The relations between Voltaire and the King became very uncomfortable. Baron Scheffer, the Swedish Minister, wrote to Madame du Deffand (December 15, 1752): "I saw Voltaire at Potsdam, and I can assure you that his lot is anything but enviable. He spends the whole day alone in his room, not from choice, but from necessity. He then takes supper with the King, also from necessity rather than from choice. He feels that he is there somewhat like the singers of the Opera in Paris, when good society admitted them only to sing at table. If I am not mistaken, he will not long endure the tedium of his position."

Meanwhile, Voltaire was taking measures for investing his fortune at Montbéliard (then a posession of the Duke of Würtemberg). He was biding his time, but lost patience when Maupertuis published a work full of hazardous suppositions regarding science. Voltaire tore it to bits in a pamphlet called 'Diatribe of Doctor Akakia, Physician to the Pope.' The King became furious, and wrote to Voltaire: "Your effrontery surprises me, after what you have just done, and which is as clear as the day. You persist in denying, instead of confessing yourself guilty; don't imagine that you will make me believe that black is white." The whole edition was seized, and Voltaire had to subscribe the following pledge (the original still exists in the archives of Berlin): "I promise your Majesty that as long as your Majesty does me the favor of lodging me in the château, I will write against nobody, neither against the Government of France, nor against the ministers or other sovereigns, nor against illustrious men of letters. I will not make use of his Majesty's correspondence, and I will conduct myself in a manner suitable to a man of letters who has the honor of being a chamberlain of his Majesty." Voltaire avenged himself by writing at the same moment to his niece: "I am going to make for my own instruction a little dictionary for the use of kings: *My friend* signifies *my slave; my dear friend* signifies *you are now indifferent to me;* by *I will make you happy* you must understand *I will put up with you as long as I have need of you. Take supper with me to-night* means *I will laugh at you to-night.* This dictionary might be very bulky, . . . and think that I have called him the Solomon of the North. Well! we are not philosophers, neither he nor I!" This duel could not be very long. Voltaire made a pretext of his health, and asked permission to take the waters at Plombières, in the Vosges. The King wished him to go to Glatz in Silesia. Finally Voltaire lost his patience, packed his trunks, and left in a chaise, drawn by six horses, and crossed the frontier, with his books, his secretaries, and his papers.

He remained a few weeks in Leipzig, believing himself safe on Saxon ground. He announced his intention of making a visit to the Margravine at Bayreuth; and Frederick, on hearing of it, wrote to his sister: "I should not be sorry if he went to Bayreuth, because, if you consent to it, I would send somebody there to ask of him the chamberlain's key and the decoration which he still has, and especially an edition of my verses which he sent to Frankfort

and which I will absolutely not leave with him, as he might make a bad use of it. As for you, my dear sister, I advise you not to write to him with your own hand; he is the most treacherous rascal on earth." The Margravine succeeded in avoiding the visit, and Voltaire took the road to Frankfort. The story of his arrest and the arrest of his niece there is well known; it has been the subject of much discussion; new documents on the subject have been published lately. Frederick was particularly anxious to take his verses out of Voltaire's hands, and, in order to satisfy him, the Prussian Resident in the free town of Frankfort showed an energy which bordered on brutality. In his report, he tells that he did not hesitate to arrest the niece of Voltaire, that "insolent *Weibmensch*," who was capable of going to intercede with the Town Council and thus "unsern Handel zu verderben." Voltaire was treated almost like a criminal; he protested in vain, wrote a letter to Francis I., the husband of Maria Theresa, begging him to protect him and to defend his right in an imperial city. He offered in his letter to go to Vienna, in order to confer with "their Sacred Majesties the Emperor and Empress on matters which concerned them"; and the Duke de Broglie asks what these matters might have been.

Frederick, after a while, sent an order for the release of Voltaire, who, after spending a few days at Mannheim, with the Elector Palatine, went to Strasbourg. He remained some time in Alsace, as Mme. de Pompadour sent him word that the King of France did not wish to have him in his neighborhood. He had now fallen from grace with two sovereigns. From Strasbourg he went to Colmar, spent some time in a convent of Benedictines near Senones, with the learned Dom Calmet, apparently to seek documents for a great work in preparation, the 'Essai sur les Mœurs.' He had just finished his 'History of the Age of Louis XIV.,' but his apotheosis of the great king did not make him *persona grata* with Louis XV. He paid a visit to Lyons, and had a reception from the Academy, but he was very coldly received there by the Archbishop, the Cardinal de Tencin, whom he had known at his sister's house in Paris. "This country," said he, on leaving the palace of the Archbishop, who was one of the correspondents of Louis XV., "is not made for me." He never did anything wiser than when he decided to remain in Switzerland, where he went first to consult the famous physician Tronchin. He bought a domain near Geneva, which he christened the "Délices." He composed there his famous invocation to Liberty, the best of his poetical pieces.

"La Liberté! j'ai vu cette déesse altière,
Avec égalité répandant tous ses biens,
Descendre de Morat, en habit de guerrière,
Les mains teintes du sang des fiers Autrichiens
Et de Charles le Téméraire.
. . . . . .
Liberté! Liberté! ton trône est en ces lieux."

He was hardly settled in Switzerland when he heard great news; war had been declared between France and England. Great Britain had assured herself of the neutrality of Prussia and thus protected her interests on the Continent; a close alliance between France and Austria had been substituted for their ancient traditional hostility. In the 'Memoirs of My Life' Voltaire speaks lightly and disdainfully of the treaty of 1756; he attributes the great political revolution which united France and Austria to the offended vanity of Madame de Pompadour and of the Abbé de Bernis; he tells us that in the volume of Frederick's verse which was torn from him at Frankfort, there was this line:

"Évitez de Bernis la stérile abondance."

The anger of the poet Bernis, when he read this line, was no more the origin of the treaty of 1756 than was the famous letter of Maria Theresa to her dear friend Madame de Pompadour, a letter which nobody ever saw, and of which every historian for a century past has spoken. The Duke de Broglie shows how often history is made without any serious documents.

"Recent events," he says, "which have cost France so much, and which have renovated Europe, were perhaps necessary to make us understand that the authors of the treaty of 1756, in opposing the growing power of Prussia, had a just prevision of the dangers of the future, and that their policy differed more in appearance than in reality from the policy of Henri IV. and of Richelieu, since for them, as for their great masters, the question was to hinder a single Power, be its name Austria or Prussia, from growing at our own door to a point at which it could exercise an uncontrolled authority over the vast Germanic continent."

Voltaire wrote a complimentary, even an enthusiastic, letter to a friend of Madame de Pompadour, when he heard of the treaty. We read in it: "I sometimes receive letters from Vienna: the Queen of Hungary is adored. It was just that the *bien-aimé* and the *bien-aimée* should be friends"; and he wrote to Paris-Duverney, the famous financier who was a protégé of Madame de Pompadour: "The union of the houses of France and of Austria after 150 years of enmity; England, which thought she held the balance of power in Europe, confounded in six months, . . . make a splendid tableau. . . . If it goes on, I shall regret being no longer the historiographer of France; but France, who will never be wanting in statesmen and warriors, will also always have writers worthy of celebrating this country."

Correspondence.

THE ANGLO-SAXON UNDERSTANDING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will some of you people who live near the seashore kindly tell us down here in "the provinces" what has become of the "English octopus"? He has entirely disappeared from this section, where, being somewhat amphibious, he was formerly wont to disport himself as vigorously as in Congressman Finerty's district in Chicago itself. His pictures stared at us as full-page "features" of the Bryan literature in 1896—tentacles, eyes, cavernous mouth, and all—the "great bloodsucker of the nations." But suddenly, "abiit, erumpit, evasit!" We are now being gravely told that we, too, speak the tongue that Shakspere spoke, that John signed the Charter for us, too; that the Grand Remonstrance and "Cromwell's Deed" and the Bill of Rights and all such things are parts of our heritage, for "blood is thicker than water."

To those of us who have heard the "octopus" side of the question so vigorously declaimed these many years, this change not only is amusing, but is a great relief as well. If he should be located, "hidden out," in Greater New York, please advise us.

Flournoy Rivers.

Pulaski, Tenn., July 8, 1898.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The emotionalism at present existing between John and Jonathan (which in any race but the Anglo-Saxon might be carried to an hysterical excess) is but an ill-expressed desire to acknowledge the sterling worth of the men of our race. War, with its horrors and wickedness, possesses the cursed virtue of calling the attention of all to our noble traits of endurance and perseverance—traits shown as markedly by the men as by the officers. John cannot but admire, in his cousin, the virtues he himself possesses, and of which he is both proud and thankful. He desires to show it, and Jonathan must render appreciation in return.

England will soon have a celebration in honor of her great Alfred. Probably it would please her national heart to have us as participants if not as co-assistants. Cannot American ingenuity find some way of expressing our good will, and at the same time showing our recognition of the greatness of that ruler? Or, perhaps still better, could we not place in our own land, on shaft or memorial tablet, our acknowledgment of the noble aims of the Anglo-Saxon race—aims which history permits to be represented in the person of Alfred the Great?

Non-Jingo.

Charlestown, W. Va., July 9, 1898.

Notes.

Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'The Spanish Revolution, 1868-1875,' by Edward Henry Strobel.

D. B. Updike, Boston, will put the imprint of his Merrymount Press on a Diary (1743-1751) of the Rev. James MacSparran, one of the earliest rectors of old St. Paul's, Narragansett.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, will publish 'Sister Evangeline,' a Nova Scotian romance by C. G. D. Roberts, together with 'New York Nocturnes, and Other Poems,' by the same writer; 'By the Aurelian Well, and Other Elegies,' by Bliss Carman; 'Ye Lyttle Salem Maide,' a study of witchcraft, by Pauline Bradford Mackie; and 'Wall Street and the Nation: Finance and Politics,' by Henry Clews.

Seignobos's 'Political History of Modern Europe,' translated by Prof. S. M. Macvane of Harvard University, is to be issued by Henry Holt & Co.

Funk & Wagnalls Co. will have ready in the fall the complete poems of Richard Realf, edited with a memoir by Col. Richard J. Hinton. The book will contain five portraits and other illustrations.

A new importing and publishing firm has been established in this city by Mr. William B. Hadley, lately President of the New Amsterdam Book Co., and Mr. E. Roscoe Mathews, hitherto connected with Messrs. Scribner.

An important 'History of the Art of War,' by Charles Oman, Fellow of All Souls, Oxford, makes a beginning in a volume of nearly seven hundred pages on the period from the fourth to the fourteenth century, published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. A volume on the earlier period of classical antiquity, though first in historical order, will appear later. Two others will bring the history down to the beginning of the nineteenth century. The present volume is il-

lustrated by twenty-four maps, battle-plans, drawings of armor, etc., and the author makes full references to the authorities and sources he has used. He is no mere compiler or translator, but handles his subject like one familiar with modern military ideas and history, and with the reasons for the changes in arms, in tactics, and in discipline which have occurred in different periods. In this volume he develops in an interesting way the transition from the Roman infantry legion to the Gothic cavalry corps, with the causes and the very important consequences of the change. The periods of Charlemagne, of the Byzantine Empire, of the Crusades, the rise and development of the use of the long-bow, and the progress of siege-craft and fortification, are all consecutively treated in a clear and instructive manner.

Mr. Ernest Law's catalogue of 'The Royal Gallery of Hampton Court,' which is published in a thick and handsome octavo volume by George Bell & Sons, London (New York: Macmillan), is a useful piece of work well done. No pains seems to have been spared to make it "up to date" in the matter of attributions and of biographical and critical notes. There is much entertaining matter in these notes, and though a work of reference the book is far from dry reading. It is illustrated with a hundred well-chosen and well-executed plates, two of them being photogravures. One of these two is of Cariani's "Venus Recumbent," which does not appear in the catalogue, as, for some reason, it is not exhibited. The last number entered in the catalogue is 942, while the number of this "recently discovered" Venus is 1103, so that there would seem to be some one hundred and sixty unexhibited pictures in the collection. The Venus is apparently a very beautiful and interesting work. How many of the hundred and sixty are worth exhibiting? The list of Registry Numbers, by the way, shows 1,140 pictures, but thirty-three of these are accounted for by the cataloguing of several pictures under one number, as in the case of Mantegna's "Triumph of Julius Cæsar."

We cannot give much praise to 'Heirlooms in Miniature,' by Anne Hollingsworth Wharton (J. B. Lippincott Co.). Its texture is slight and of the magazine-article order, and while it contains a good deal of old gossip that might be amusing, it somehow fails to be readable. The chapter on "Miniature Painting as an Art" contains little that is important, unless certain recipes for "flesh-color," etc., should be so considered. The many illustrations indicate that little of real artistic merit has been produced by the earlier miniaturists of this country.

It is difficult to appraise fairly the value of Mr. J. C. Van Dyke's 'Nature for its Own Sake' (Scribners). The author's purpose has been "to call attention to that nature around us which only too many people look at every day and yet never see," and this purpose the book may probably serve; but those who have both looked and seen—those who are trained observers of nature's appearances—will be apt to think the doctrine rather elementary. It is true as far as it goes, but it does not go very far, and the author seems always to stop on the verge of some really acute piece of observation or analysis. This, however, is recognized by the author himself in his sub-title ("First Studies in Natural Appearances"), and in his statement that "the book is designed as an introduction to a subject which I hope to consider more fully hereafter." How far will what he has here written prove novel, stimulating, or illuminating to the average cultivated person of literary tastes and some love for nature? That is a question which the painter or the careful student of nature finds it hard to answer. It is well-nigh impossible for such an one to put himself in the place of the looker who does not see, or to remember how little he once saw himself—to realize that the commonplaces of the landscape painter are the mysteries or the paradoxes of the public. Mr. Van Dyke has seen nature in many lands and under many conditions, and has brought to the investigation of its appearances eyes sharpened by the long study of pictures. He writes clearly and simply, and indulges in little rhetoric or false sentiment. His "first studies," therefore, will probably reveal to many people many things of which they were unaware, and will perhaps be of more service than would a book made up of subtler and rarer observations.

One of the cleverest skits picturing the Russo-Chino-Japanese situation is Mr. J. Morris's lively book, just out in London (Lawrence & Bullen), entitled 'What Will Japan Do? A Forecast.' In the general style of the 'Battle of Dorking,' it is very valuable, from the author's thorough knowledge of the military geography of the countries interested, and of modern naval capabilities and limitations. Formerly connected with the Public Works service in Tokio, Mr. Morris proved his grasp of the situation in 'Advance Japan,' published in 1895. He shows the Japanese able to cope with the Russians by their superior naval training and mastery of modern problems, holding their own in Korea, and following the example of Great Britain in generous treatment of China and in commercial liberality at newly opened ports. He believes heartily in the efficacy of the torpedo-boat. On good grounds he feels assured of Japan's solvency, steady increase of power and prosperity, and close union in ideas and sympathies with the English-speaking nations. He has written an able book.

The prime object of Andrew Lang's 'Book of Dreams and Ghosts,' of which a new edition is published by Longmans, Green & Co., is to entertain those who are interested in those topics. But interest in such things implies, at least in our days, a desire to form a general opinion about them. Indeed, the amusement consists in the logical exercise, while the deeper interest lies in concern about a future life. With great skill the author aids the formation of an opinion by simply selecting some eighty of the best attested marvels, and arranging them in classes in the order of their increasing marvellousness. Thus, having succeeded in swallowing one set of stories, the reader is immediately offered another, just a little more difficult, and so on, until he somewhere draws a line. This method results in a work really valuable from a scientific point of view. It is not merely in the exacter sciences, such as astronomy and chemistry, that selections of typical facts, as opposed to original observations on the one hand and to digests on the other, are needed for inductive operations. Even in an inquiry so imperfectly organized as is at present psychical research, a book like this of instances better sifted than those in any great collection can for the most part be is almost indispensable. The verdict of good sense seems, as far as we have been able to collect competent opinions, still to be, on the whole, somewhat against telepathy—not altogether as an abstract proposition, but as an explanation of floating stories. The circumstance that the theory has not yet resulted in the production of any new kinds of phenomena, lends support to that verdict. The dress of Mr. Lang's collection is altogether agreeable.

It is a little strange that, after a generation of celebrity, Reye's 'Geometrie der Lage' should now be translated into English for the first time. Part I. comes to us from the Macmillan Co., Prof. Holgate of Evanston being the highly competent translator. The original has long been used in some of our American universities to great advantage. In certain respects it is a more brilliant book even than the treatise of Cremona, and it covers a somewhat wider field. But its merits are too well known to need any comment from us. Later researches into continuity go to show that Topology and not Graphic forms the real foundation and generalization of geometry; and the moment is almost at hand at which Reye's book must be superseded by one which shall lay the foundations of its logic deeper still. Meantime, this well-executed translation, with a useful preface, will serve a good purpose. We shall speak more particularly of the version in noticing the following part.

The general 'Catalogue of the Officers and Graduates of Yale University, 1701-1898,' has just been issued at New Haven, together with the fifty-seventh annual Obituary Record.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number five, is an elaborate description, with a colored map, of the distribution of the French, German, Italian, and Romanic languages in the cantons of Graubünden and Ticino. The number also contains a discussion of the Chilian-Argentine boundary question, an account of the California earthquake of last March, and an estimate of the areas of the river-basins of North American and Australia.

The Society of Civil Engineers of France commemorates the fiftieth anniversary of its foundation in the July and August numbers of its *Bulletin*. The Society was organized on the 4th of March, 1848, under the presidency of Eugène Flachat, and has gradually grown from a membership of fifty-six to one of thirty-two hundred. It consisted at first of four sections, but the recent rapid development of electrical science necessitated the establishment in 1892 of a fifth section, devoted especially to electricity. After occupying temporary quarters for many years, the Society was installed in 1897 in a commodious building of its own, which was dedicated with appropriate ceremonies in the presence of the President of the republic. The members of the Society have contributed notably to the success of the various expositions at Paris, and are among the principal promoters of the Exposition of 1900. Reports on the progress and development of public works, railways, applied mechanics, mines and metallurgy, industrial chemistry, physics, and electricity are contributed by members of the different sections, and may be said to constitute a concise history of engineering during the last half-century.

"The Extinct Rhinoceroses" are described by Prof. Henry Fairfield Osborn in Part

iii. of the first volume of *Memoirs* of the American Museum of Natural History. The work is planned to consist of seven parts, the present publication containing the first two. Part i. is devoted to the morphology of the skull and teeth, and Part ii. to a description of a series of skulls from Nebraska and Dakota, now in the American Museum. The writer discusses the different opinions regarding the classification of the rhinoceroses, but, believing an ideal classification to be an expression of phylogeny, is not at present prepared to propose one. He criticises the systems of Cope and Lydekker, which separate rhinoceroses upon the basis of their parallel progressive modifications, and contends that they can be separated only upon their divergent modifications. A preliminary bibliography, containing about 130 titles, accompanies this memoir, which is illustrated by numerous woodcuts and nine lithographic plates.

The Guayaquis Indians, a Paraguayan tribe concerning which very little has hitherto been known, are described in the second number of the Anthropological Section of the *Anales del Museo de La Plata*. The first portion of the work consists of "Ethnographic Notes," by Charles de La Hitte, and comprises a brief summary of previous accounts of this people, and a description of their habitations, customs, and language. In a second part, Dr. H. Ten Kate describes their physical characteristics, as typified in an adult and three children whom he had an opportunity of examining. The Guayaquis are small in stature and of a very low degree of intelligence, and are believed to be the remnant of an aboriginal race which is likely soon to disappear. Several excellent photographs accompany this work, which presents the attractive appearance characteristic of the publications of the Museum of La Plata.

The problems of art, among a people so highly æsthetic by temperament and training as the Japanese, interest not only lovers of the beautiful, but also the moralist and the genuine student of religion. The nude in art has been condemned by public opinion. The Minister of Home Affairs has prosecuted both editor and publisher of a magazine for violating the press law by inserting a picture of a nude female. Mr. Kuroda, late student in Paris and now professor in the Tokyo School of Art, who received favorable notices of his pictures in the French capital, on exhibiting nude female figures in Kyoto in 1895 created unbounded astonishment. Judgment by the court has been deferred. In spite of the frequent actual exposure of the person in Japan, the intentional expression of it on canvas seems to breed only disgust.

Thoughtful critics of New Japan have reasonably found fault with the present generation, because, while many of the old forms of benevolence went down and out with the feudal system, the new order failed to provide for the fresh claims of humanity and moral progress. A pleasing indication of better things is noted in the recent gift of the great Tokyo merchant, Okura, who recently devoted half a million dollars to the founding of a School of Commercial Education. The occasion of the gift was that of his silver wedding. About two thousand of the leading people of the metropolis attended the garden parties on three consecutive days. The presence of the highest officers of the Government was proof of the tremendous social advance of the merchant from the days of the seventies, when he had few rights which a sword-wearer was bound to respect.

—The spectacular side of the present war is not reflected strikingly in the magazines for July, probably because the newspapers with daily and weekly maps and illustrations have anticipated them. *Vixere fortes*, however, *ante* Sampson, and the *Century* goes back for the subject of an out-of-the-way illustrated article ("Confederate Commerce-Destroyers") to the cruise of the *Tallahassee* and the *Florida*, of whose gallant commanders it may be safely declared that, had their duty not been to burn and run away, they would have covered themselves with glory. Col. Wood of the *Tallahassee* (who seems to have belonged to both arms of the Confederate service) took part in one real sea-fight, for he was a lieutenant on the *Merrimac*, and does not seem to have enjoyed the work of marine highway robbery afterwards confided to him. "Miserable business is war," he observes sententiously, "ashore or afloat," apropos of the case of the *Glenarvon*, a fine new vessel from Thomaston, Maine, which he sent to the bottom. The skipper and his wife stood by, watching the scuttled ship disappear, all her sails set, with tears in their eyes. Mrs. Watt explained by saying, "He has been going to sea for thirty years, and all our savings were in that ship. We were saving for our dear children at home—five of them." Col. Wood seems to have failed to point out to her that this was mere mawkish philoprogenitive sentimentality, but Jingo literature and ethics did not then exist. A paper on "Equality," by James Bryce, will perhaps attract less attention than it deserves. In it he attempts to explain and analyze the different senses in which the word "Equality" is used, and to show how far we have attained equality, and how far it is attainable. Sir George Cornewall Lewis, or the lamented author of 'Liberty, Fraternity, and Equality,' were either alive, would probably object that Mr. Bryce considers too much one side of the shield. We all concede nowadays that equality in some sense is a social and legal and economical ideal; but with those who say nothing about ideals, but simply make their way in the world, there is also a constant ideal, made up largely of inequality. Any one who hungers and thirsts for fame, or wealth, or knowledge, or skill, dreams of his fortune as superior, not as equal at all. This is what is meant when it is said by Mr. Bryce that we must make sure that we are not dreaming of an equality which runs counter to natural laws.

—*Harper's*, besides two or three illustrated articles of a more or less manufactured sort, to say nothing of verses and stories, has a critical article on "Journalism," by George W. Smalley, which will not tend to increase that writer's popularity in newspaperdom. The paper, however, which possesses most originality is that called "A Man and his Knife," by Martha McCulloch Williams. It is an account of some "passages from the Life of James Bowie," the inventor of the bowie-knife. We shall never have any more Bowies, and therefore it is certainly well to pause and reflect on what only fifty years ago promised to become an American type. Bowie's life was that of a desperado and criminal; he was not merely a trader in slaves, but he and his gang arranged matters so that they could first supply themselves with negroes at the low price of a dollar a pound, then turn informers against themselves for violating the statutes for the suppression of the slave-trade, and have the slaves confiscated and sold. Buying them in at a ridiculously low price, they secured half the purchase-money as informers' fines, and thus put themselves in a position to sell the negroes in the open market (there seems to have been no attempt to prevent the absurd use to which the statute was thus put) for $500 or $1,000 apiece. The money earned in this traffic was spent in drink, riot, and murderous fighting, and so Bowie was led to invent his knife, adding by this means a word to the language, and his own name to the bead-roll of fame. Bravery he was always noted for—the true American desperado is invariably brave, and usually, his friends say, not a bully—and he died in the massacre of the Alamo; to Mexicans a cut-throat, and to Texans a martyr. But even the Mexicans knew that he "was too great a man to sleep with common soldiers" and buried him apart. "Thermopylæ had its messenger of defeat; the Alamo had none." The paper closes with the remarkable reflection that Col. Bowie was a true "man of his people, one with them in aims, in achievements, in passions, errors, and desires."

—The Western part of "The Workers," by Walter A. Wyckoff, in *Scribner's*, does not attract as much attention as did the Eastern chapters. This is partly because the "experience" is no longer in kind very new, and partly because the "labor problem" is for the time being made by the war a secondary interest. In the current number we are among old friends—the Anarchists and Socialists—and Mr. Wyckoff gives a curious picture of the interior of a sweat-shop, where the fiercest passions are aroused, not by the lowness of the wages, but by the order of an inspector to "clean up." A young Jew, his "wolfish eyes ablaze with the sense of sharp injustice," calls out: "You tell us we've got to keep clean—what time have we to keep clean when it's all we can do to get bread? Don't talk to us about disease; it's *bread* we're after; *bread!*" What the bearing of this on the doctrines of Socialism may be is not stated; but we have no doubt that the resentment of the dirty at the idea of being made to keep clean when their minds are fixed on more important things, is a real difficulty with which reformers have to contend. The clean are always inclined to impute to the workers a desire for everything which, in their own ideals, civilization and luxury "connote"; but where an indifference to dirt exists, how far can this be safe? This brings us back to the cynical *crux:* You wish to elevate the masses by giving them things that they don't want now, and cannot in the nature of things want until you have established for a class debarred from wealth the standards of the wealthy. Instead of improving the world, you are making it discontented. To this the old-fashioned reformer had a good reply: he could say that wherever he had planted the seeds of individual desire for cleanliness, he had in so far made the world better; the rest was with God. But what has the Socialist to say about it? Mr. Wyckoff is not a Socialist, and merely describes. "The First Shot of the War," and "The First Bombardment," by Richard Harding Davis, are journalistic.

"Hot stuff" we should hardly call it; rather, perhaps, warmed-over stuff.

—The article in the *Atlantic* which will attract most attention is that of Mr. Bryce on "The Essential Unity of Britain and America." He urges the ratification of a general arbitration treaty, and suggests the recognition of "a common citizenship," securing to Englishmen in America and Americans in England rights not enjoyed by other foreigners. What these rights should be, he does not say. An American, Mr. James K. Hosmer, writing on "The American Evolution," goes, however, much further than Mr. Bryce. He proposes a federation, of which the members shall be the United States, Great Britain, and the English colonies. Mr. Henry Charles Lea has a paper on the "Decadence of Spain," which he attributes to pride, conservatism, clericalism, and corruption. No one can dispute his history; but his analysis only deepens the mystery of the problem. Why have these curses wrought the downfall of Spain, and in other countries been counteracted by causes making for civilization and progress? Every country in Europe has suffered from pride, conservatism, clericalism, and corruption; and why should one nation die of it, and the others slough these evils off? The priests have retained control of the education and conscience of the people; but how? We come up here against a blank wall, behind which we cannot see. We state the cause of the rise and fall of Spain as of other nations, in terms of the rise and fall itself. One nation rises because of a certain assemblage of good qualities; another falls because of a certain assemblage of bad qualities. But the philosophy of history does not enable us to say as yet what makes the resultant in one case progress, in another decay. We may, if we like, say that it is a matter of race, or see the hand of divine power in the cast of the die, or mere blind chance; or we may frankly say that we do not know. Buckle went to the other extreme, and said that he had found out, and could explain; but Buckle, too, left the matter where he found it.

—With remarkable timeliness comes a Government publication from the Weather Bureau relating to the climate of Cuba, with a note also upon the weather of Manila. Most of the precise meteorological information upon Cuba available is summarized in this pamphlet. An interesting comparison is made between the average summer temperature of Havana and Washington, showing eighty-two degrees for the former and but seventy-five degrees for the latter, while the average amount of rainfall in the Cuban city is seven inches more than at our capital. Though systematic meteorological observations seem to have been begun at Havana about 1850, the first regularly published observations, instituted at Belen College, Havana, in 1859, have been continued to the present time in annual volumes. For other Cuban localities, facts are very scanty, fragmentary observations only having been made at Ubajay (242 feet above the sea), at Matanzas, the San Fernando mines, Santiago de Cuba, and Trinidad de Cuba. The extreme length of the island is about 750 miles, with an average width of one-tenth that amount, the country gently undulating, not unlike England, though its highest mountain, Pico de Tarquino, rises 7,650 feet, and a lesser ridge practically divides the island into two watersheds whose rivers flow north and south. Variations in temperature and rainfall are caused largely by differences in altitude, and position with reference to the prevailing winds, which blow for the most part from the east, the "northeast trades" being especially regular and uniform. The warmest month is July. At Santiago the temperature is higher than on the northern and western coasts. In Havana sudden changes are frequent, one record showing in three hours a drop from eighty-nine degrees to seventy-four degrees. The warmest hours are between noon and two o'clock. Absolute humidity is very great, while the average rainfall is about fifty-two inches for the year; the rainy season extending, as in other tropical countries, from May to October, and the greatest rainfall occurring in the months of October and June. About one day out of three in the summer is rainy at Havana, showing heavy downpours of short duration, but with almost no clouds except during the showers. The wind velocity is about 8½ miles hourly in winter, 6½ in summer, and somewhat more on the northern than the southern coast. Little damage is said to result from the frequent thunder-storms, while tropical hurricanes, usually occurring once or twice in a summer, are most liable in August, September, and October.

—Although regular observations have been made and published for many years at the Observatorio Meteorológico de Manila (rainfall for thirty-two years and other phenomena for seventeen), general information upon climatic conditions is meagre. The average temperature is eighty degrees F.; April, May, and June are the hottest months, May showing eighty-four degrees as an average and sometimes rising to 100 degrees. September, the most humid month, shows 85 per cent. of moisture; April, the driest of all, but 70 per cent. The rainy season, as in Cuba, extends from June to October, the largest average fall occurring in September. Curious variations in amount are recorded, one year about 121 inches, another but 35 inches. Despite the dispassionate statements of concise scientific publications, imagination is still left much freedom in portraying the climatic conditions under which are now living so many unaccustomed Americans.

—A curious episode in modern university annals was the migration, about half a year ago, of eight professors of the so-called "free" Roman Catholic University in Freiburg in Switzerland. This institution was established some six or seven years ago for the special purpose of demonstrating that freedom of scientific research was perfectly compatible with the spirit and trend of the Church. It was called "free," in contrast to the universities of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, which were regarded as controlled unduly by the State. Experience has now shown that in this "free" university, the "Lehrfreiheit," the ideal so dear to Continental scholars, has not been able to establish its throne. The professors who have severed their connection with the Freiburg University, namely, Drs. Effmann, Gottlob, Hardy, Jostes, Lörkens, von Savigny, Streitberg, and Sturm (all, we believe, Roman Catholic laymen and Germans), have united in the publication of a Memorial (*Denkschrift*), in which they give the why and wherefore of their exodus. From this document it is apparent that the French Dominican monks are in absolute control of the University, and any teachings not in conformity with the interests of this order have in recent years brought down upon the heads of the offenders the opposition and even persecution of the fathers, which finally ended in withholding the salaries of several teachers who would not withdraw views not acceptable to those in authority. The *Denkschrift* is an interesting and instructive document, and again shows how inevitably ecclesiastical authority and freedom of scientific research merely for truth's sake come in collision.

GARNETT'S ITALIAN LITERATURE.

A History of Italian Literature. By Richard Garnett, C.B., LL.D. [Literatures of the World Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1898. Pp. xii+431.

The questions which naturally come to a reviewer in taking up this book are, "For whom is it written—for adepts in Italian literature, whom it may help to sum up and coördinate a wide course of Italian reading, or for beginners, whom it may serve as a guide, leading them by wise steps from book to book and from period to period?" The difficulty arises from the fact that Dr. Garnett has written much more than a literary manual and something less than a literary history, if we accept the literary histories of Ticknor and Taine and Scherer as the standards, in proportions and method, for works of this kind. The difficulty, however, has been solved by Dr. Garnett in the best way possible, for he has produced not only the first English history of Italian literature worthy of notice, but also a book which both the adept and the novice will prize. He is truly catholic in taste; he has an unfailing sense of the continuity of Italian literature, and is so widely read in the other modern European literatures that he can reinforce his criticism by comparison; he has unusual skill in epitomizing in a few lines or a paragraph the characteristics of the book or author he is considering. Thanks to these qualities, he has given us, in the compass of four hundred medium-sized pages, a work which leaves the impression of being exhaustive. Dr. Garnett quotes approvingly Jowett's dictum that Italian literature is "the greatest in the world after Greek, Latin, and English"—an opinion which is not likely to please the partisans of German or French, but is capable of being stoutly defended, in spite of the fact that for two centuries past French and (more recently) German have had much more than Italian to say to the world. We do not intend to enter on an academic discussion of this kind here; we wish merely to emphasize the fact, too little acknowledged, that a liberal system of culture should not exclude Italian.

In the earlier part of his work Dr. Garnett has a comparatively easy task, for the course of development in the first two centuries of Italian literature is simple and has been often surveyed; and as the great figures are few, the historian assumes the more interesting rôle of biographer. We believe that he is right in not assigning high rank to the immediate precursors of Dante, who have enjoyed, since D. G. Rossetti's book on them appeared, a rather exaggerated reputation. Cino da Pistoja, Guido Guinicelli, Cavalcanti, and their followers have all the freshness and naïveté that belong to the youth of a literature, but are their poems much superior to those of Wyatt and Surrey? From them to Dante is

an advance so extraordinary that it is not to be explained on any product-of-the-times theory. Although Dr. Garnett describes clearly enough this sudden maturing, his pages on Dante are the least adequate of any in the book. He somewhat forestalls criticism by admitting that to treat Dante on a proper scale would require a third of his volume; nevertheless, it would have been possible to outline even in thirty pages the chief features of that great genius. No one can properly measure Dante's unique place in Italian development who does not understand that to the Italians 'The Divine Comedy' has been what the Bible has been to Protestant peoples. This at once places it outside the pale of ordinary epics, and suggests the measure by which Dante himself is to be judged. It would have been better to accentuate this point than to revive, as Dr. Garnett does, the old discussion whether Dante is a greater poet than Milton. We are surprised to be told that Virgil, in 'The Divine Comedy,' is the only portrait that "evinces any considerable power of character-painting"; that "Dante's virtuoso-like skill in graphic delineation has been favorable to his renown"; that Browning, alone among English poets, rivals him in "intensity of minute description"; that "Dante's cabinet pieces are more successful than his vast pictures." We cite these opinions without comment, because to comment upon them would merely show that the present reviewer and Dr. Garnett hold views too dissimilar to be reconciled by criticism. Of Browning, too, we should say that of all eminent English poets he was the least endowed with the qualities which are generally recognized as peculiarly Dantesque. We note further that, in his list of aids to the study of Dante, Dr. Garnett makes no mention of Lowell's essay, which is in every way more comprehensive, profound, and concrete than that of Dean Church. Prof. Norton's translation of 'The Divine Comedy' ought also to have a place in even the briefest bibliography.

Of only two other Italian masterpieces do we find Dr. Garnett's account insufficient. The first is Machiavelli's 'Prince,' which he declares is "antiquated." But substitute "government" for "prince," and the main characteristics which Machiavelli depicted are still recognizable. Governments are as immoral now as princes were in 1500—that is, self-interest is their guiding principle. Take the men who have shaped European politics in this century—Metternich, Napoleon III., Bismarck, Gortchakoff, Disraeli—were they not Machiavellians? The unity of Germany was a noble consummation, but what of Bismarck's doctored telegram from Ems? The liberation of Italy is one of the most splendid achievements of modern times, but did it owe nothing to Cavour's Machiavellianism? Gladstone alone, of the great statesmen of our age, allowed moral considerations to influence his policy. And if we look about at home, what are our bosses, our Quays and Crokers and Platts, but the vilest varieties of the species which Machiavelli described with scientific precision? Until the acts of governments shall be regulated and judged by the same moral criteria as are now applied to the acts of individuals, we hold that 'The Prince' will in no sense become antiquated or obsolete: to interepret that treatise otherwise is to miss some of its significance.

The other work to which we referred is Michael Angelo's poems. What Dr. Garnett says of them is good, but he by no means sufficiently indicates their extraordinary value, nor enables a beginner to surmise that, after Dante, Michael Angelo is the Italian poet whose personality has most interested the world. He may not have "acquired the secret of poetic form"; he may not, like Petrarch, mark a stage in Italian and European literature; but his individuality, whether expressed in poetry, in painting, or in sculpture, remains among the few supreme illustrations of human genius.

After these few strictures on Dr. Garnett's book, we have little else save commendation to record. Such chapters as he has written on Petrarch or on Boccaccio, in which biography and criticism are finely blended, are models. His pages devoted to brief analysis of verse-forms, his little prefaces to such subjects as the drama, or epic poetry, or the novel, abound in the fulness and mellowness of real scholarship. Possibly, it would have been well to give a little more attention to the political condition of Italy, because after 1500 her literature was more deeply influenced by her political condition than was the case in England, France, or Germany. It would have been well, also, to remind the reader from time to time of the great artists who were contemporary with the writers at each period, for literature was only one of the many organs through which Italian genius expressed itself.

Many readers will be most grateful to Dr. Garnett for his account of recent authors, about whom little methodical criticism has appeared in English. He gives due prominence to Leopardi, whose centenary will be celebrated in July, and who is the most important figure of the past three centuries, not excepting Alfieri and Manzoni. To Giusti also he does full justice, although he overlooks the obvious parallel between Giusti's political satires and Lowell's 'Biglow Papers.' Coming to men now living, Dr. Garnett has much to say of Carducci, who has been strangely neglected by the English and American literary cult-makers. Perhaps it is because Carducci is more intellectual than Maeterlinck, Ibsen, Verlaine, and similar idols, that he has had to wait longer for appreciation; furthermore, he demands intelligence in those who would understand him. To D'Annunzio Dr. Garnett assigns high talents, with the possibility of achieving, both in fiction and in poetry, work more excellent than he has yet produced. De Amicis, certainly the most popular of living Italian writers, is somewhat curtly dismissed.

Mention should be made of the translations of Italian poetry with which the volume is enriched. Many of them are excellent, though for ourselves we doubt whether they would give a reader unfamiliar with the originals much real satisfaction. But Dr. Garnett is to be commended for having shown that the great verse-forms of Italian poetry are of a higher order than those which Swinburne and Swinburnians unto the third and fourth dilution borrowed from Old French. His final word is that the characteristic of Italian literature is refinement, as that of French is clearness.

The book has a good many misprints, due probably to the fact that the plates, being made in this country, were not revised by the author. We note a few of them: "Dinoi Campagni" for "Dino Compagni," p. 27; "benche" for "benchè," p. 58; "Arquà for "Arquà," p. 61; "consolâit" for "consolait," p. 77; "San Onofrio" for "Sant' Onofrio," p. 246, etc. Politian died in 1494, not in 1492 (p. 116). Dr. Garnett refers to the "Emperor of Germany" (meaning the Holy Roman Emperor), has "Guelfic" where "Guelf" would do, and "sensuous" where the implication is plainly "sensual." Recanati, Leopardi's home, is not near Rimini, but Ancona (p. 354). We have noted one curious mixed metaphor: Gaspara Stampa, we are told, "struck upon the fatal *rock* of *fluency*" (p. 195)! There is no uniformity in giving the titles of works: some of the titles are Italian, some English, and one at least (*Romeo and Giulietta*) hybrid. It would be petty to point out these slips but for the hope that by correcting them Dr. Garnett may make his work typographically worthy of the permanence which its scholarship and interest deserve.

CAPTAIN MAHAN'S IDEAL.

The Interest of America in Sea-Power, Present and Future. By Capt. A. T. Mahan, D.C.L., LL.D., U. S. Navy, etc. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 12mo, pp. 314.

Under the title given above, Captain Mahan has republished a series of eight papers which he has contributed to magazines during the last six or eight years, and in all of which he has industriously advocated making the United States a great naval Power among the nations of the world. His valuable naval histories, which have given him deserved repute as an author, have all been elaborations of the same theme, directly or indirectly. A strong pride in his profession naturally led him to wish that his country's navy should be second to none. The acknowledged aptitude of Americans for sea-life, and the heroism of our sea captains from Paul Jones to Hull and Bainbridge, and from these to Farragut and Dewey, would persuasively lead him to burn with the desire that he and his fellow-officers might command fleets of ships-of-the-line as numerous as ever followed the broad pennant of a Nelson or a Rodney. Zealous army officers, conscious of talent and of courage, have in like manner chafed under the limitations of our standing army, and have wished for an organization which could mobilize hundreds of thousands of trained soldiers as quickly as Moltke did in 1870.

It is not hard to excite a certain degree of popular enthusiasm with visions of military glory and of an awe-struck world, if not of world-wide conquests. Yet level-headed American statesmen have not failed to see, hitherto, that the progress of the country in prosperity and the growth of the people in the traits which mark true nobility and enlightenment will be best furthered by adherence to the policy of Washington and the fathers. A sedulous cultivation of peaceful relations, a restriction of our armaments by land and by sea to modest proportions which should attest our freedom from aggressive policy, a careful avoidance of complication with European quarrels and ambitions, have not only secured us the good will of great foreign Powers, which is based on the knowledge that we do not mean to meddle with them, but have been the conditions of such unexampled progress in wealth and in population as has made our country the wonder of the world.

European publicists have exhausted language in half envious admiration of the cir-

cumstances which have enabled a people of their own stock to develop representative institutions upon a great continent in a temperate zone, isolated by oceans which are barriers against aggressive wars while they are speediest highways for commerce and for the human intercourse which makes for progress in art, in science, and in everything that uplifts the race. They have deplored the inherited antagonisms which have kept their own continent in a chronic expectation of renewed wars; which have made each nation strain to the utmost to enlarge, and still even more to enlarge, their armies and navies, till the burden upon their finances and the drain upon the population threaten to crush them as destructively as conquest by a stranger; which has piled up their public debts until payment is hopeless, and it is only a question how soon the mortgage upon the resources of a coming generation shall bring about bankruptcy and repudiation.

Thoughtful men among us do not find it hard to see how unspeakable has been our advantage over European nations in all this. They have seen, also, that the consciousness of the possession of power works subtly to demoralize the possessor and make him seek the opportunity to use it. He becomes a bully without knowing it. He is blind to the rights of others when they stand in the way of his whim or his passion. Jingoism is the expression of this narrow, ignorant, heedless impulse to glory in power and force, and to sacrifice the nobler ends for which human society should strive.

Captain Mahan has made himself in a peculiar way the mouthpiece of this tendency toward aggression. Starting with a naval officer's very natural and pardonable desire to magnify his office and to increase the navy of which he has been so creditable a representative, his papers have more and more appealed to motives and tendencies at war with modern ideas of Christian civilization. Looking about for arguments which may add more ships to our fleets, he becomes the advocate of a meddling policy that may have a finger in every pie and a chance for a quarrel in every foreign complication. Ignoring the patent fact that with a small navy and a very small army we have gone through a century of youth and physical weakness without finding European nations smitten with a desire to quarrel with us, he now clamors over our weakness, and rings innumerable changes on the assertion that the only way to prevent our subjugation is to increase our military establishments on land and sea till we shall match those under which Europe groans.

He sees on every side "dangerous germs of quarrel against which it is prudent at least to be prepared," and maintains that to retain our repose and the enjoyment of our commerce, "it is necessary to argue upon somewhat equal terms of strength with an adversary." Yet everybody knows that we built up a carrying trade second to none in the world before our civil war, and held it without disturbance till our own troubles let loose upon us, not the great navies of Europe, but three or four improvised commerce-destroyers under the Confederate flag. Our strength has been all the more appreciated by the world because it was so largely latent. That we kept afoot no great armies or navies gave assurance that we would not rush into serious quarrels on slight provocation; but the recognized tenacity of the race gave equal assurance that, if forced into collision, it would not end until our resources had been used to the utmost. We have been, in fact, more influential in the family of nations by reason of this apparent carelessness of present readiness for a fight.

It is curious to note how Captain Mahan's wish for great armaments affects his naval sense in international questions. He does not disguise his sympathy with Drake's buccaneering in the West Indies. He labors to stir the same spirit and to arouse a passion for conquest. We hear little or nothing of the rights of resident peoples to self-government, but much of the chance that if we don't grasp their lands some one else will. It is easy to persuade ourselves that the control of an isthmus, a strait, an island, is a necessity to a nation, "if not of existence, at least of its full development," and then "who can deny the right to predominate in influence over a region so vital to it?" Nay, once started in that line of argument, such a claim becomes "reasonable, natural, it might almost be called moral." It is a very short step then to take military possession and begin a war.

When such a writer as Captain Mahan is asked how great an expansion of armaments will be demanded by his argument, he finds it convenient to be very vague. It should be "adequate to the utmost demand that can then be made upon it, and, if possible, so imposing that it will prevent war ensuing, upon the firm presentation of demands which the nation believes to be just." Another mode of putting it is, "the estimated force which the strongest probable enemy can bring against you, allowance being made for clear drawbacks upon his total force, imposed by his own embarrassments and responsibilities in other parts of the world."

As to "just demands," we find the author holding that in international controversies "there is not uncommonly on both sides an element of right, real or really believed, which prevents either party from yielding, and that it is better for men to fight than for the sake of peace to refuse to support their convictions of justice." The climax is reached when Captain Mahan exclaims, "How deplorable the war between the North and the South! but more deplorable by far had it been, that either had flinched from the maintenance of what it believed to be fundamental right." There is no real standard of right and wrong, both sides believe they are right, it would be most deplorable for either to yield; therefore, war is the only right result! Can militarism go further?

As to the measure of preparation, the attempted limitations are futile, and most of all in naval warfare. It won't do to disclaim the need of considering "what is the largest army or navy in the world, with the view of rivalling it," for you can have no guarantee that your possible adversary will force his quarrel with you when he is embroiled with other Powers, but he will do it rather when you are so embroiled. Your only salvation, then, when once the gospel that might makes right is fully proclaimed, is in being the strongest, at all times and in all places of possible contact.

Shocking as this creed of Moloch is, and sedulous as Captain Mahan is in veiling it in circumlocutions, it is yet found only too plainly confessed. He closes his "Twentieth-Century Outlook" with the declaration that "Nothing is more ominous for the future of our race than that tendency, vociferous at present, which refuses to recognize in the profession of arms, in war, that something which inspired Wordsworth's 'Happy Warrior,' which soothed the dying hours of Henry Lawrence." The specious sophism is a double one. The noble characteristics of a Sidney or a Lawrence are not the natural products of war, but of the spirit of ideal devotion to humanity and of self-sacrifice conquering the fierce and savage influences of war, rising above them to a height that is the more sublime because it dominates the brutal tendency of bloody slaughter. To slip from approval of Lawrence's unselfish heroism to the praise of war itself—war, of which the horrid barbarities of Cawnpore were the typical features when unchecked by the influences of modern civilization and Christianity—is only to prove how wrong-headed the heat of advocacy may make an estimable man.

The author, in a still later essay, has complained that his critics do not heed the qualifications with which he accompanies his sweeping doctrines. It is simply the question which is the earnest expression of his convictions, and which a perfunctory repetition of conventional formulæ. When he significantly asks, "Is the outlook such that our present civilization with its benefits is most likely to be insured by universal disarmament, the clamor for which rises ominously—the word is used advisedly—among our latter-day cries?" what meaning can there be in his assertion that "none shares more heartily than the writer the aspiration for the day when nations shall beat their swords into ploughshares"? Would a universal disarmament, accomplished, be so great an evil that a general call for it is an ominous clamor? Then his real aspiration must be that ploughshares shall be beaten into swords.

When he sneers at diplomatic efforts to establish a system of international arbitration as "a realization in modern policy of the ideal of the mediæval Papacy," can he expect to be credited with a desire to promote peace? When he characterizes Washington's advice against entangling alliances as fit only for "the infancy of the republic," and adherence to it as being "bound and swathed in the traditions of our own eighteenth century," can anybody believe that he seriously desires to avoid meddling in the quarrels of other nations? When he declares that force, "that rude and imperfect, but not ignoble arbiter, . . . so far has won, and still secures the greatest triumphs of good in the checkered history of mankind," can he ask to be thought the champion of reason and of law? When he tells us that "communities which want and cannot have except by force, will take by force unless they are restrained by force," can we give much weight to the verbal admission that there is some respect for international law in the nineteenth century?

The spirit of the book is so plain that he that runs may read. Military glory and far-reaching domination are the great ends of man's aspiration. To give opportunity for these, the United States must have numerous distant, outlying possessions, each sticking out like a sore thumb to be hurt by whatever passes, each wanting its impregnable fortifications and its great garrison to defend it, each demanding its fleet to scour the adjacent seas, and great reserve armies and navies at home, besides, to overpower every possible antagonist. When the people's "so-

ber second thought" is spoken, we do not believe it will be the adoption of such a policy for our twentieth-century programme.

Collections and Recollections. By One Who has Kept a Diary. Harper & Bros.

Mr. John Murray, in his testimony before the Lords Copyright Committee, the other day, spoke of the practice of reviewing books by the method of stringing together extracts from them, as "a positive nuisance." But there are some books, and 'Collections and Recollections' is one of them, which can be reviewed in no other way. Mr. G. W. E. Russell (for we suppose he makes no denial of being the author) brings out of his diary—and, occasionally, out of his commonplace book—a delightful medley of things new and old, stories either true or *ben traviata*, as one of his pompous personages says. He has formal chapter-headings, and gravely squares his elbows now and then as if to give us a serious character-study or an essay on manners and morals or on parliamentary oratory; but you soon come to find that these are only so many between-jokes, so many devices for letting the reader's laughing-muscles calm themselves before their next exercise.

Now there is no way to characterize a good story except to tell it, and, with all due respect to Mr. Murray, and in the absence of the law he desires forbidding it, we shall exhibit Mr. Russell's wares by sample, duly advising our readers that our display by no means exhausts the stock or varieties, for a knowledge of the profusion of which they should apply to the central storehouse.

There are several anecdotes illustrative of Wellington's grim humor:

"The Government was contemplating the despatch of an expedition to Burma, with a view to taking Rangoon, and a question arose as to who would be the fittest general to be sent in command of the expedition. The Cabinet sent for the Duke of Wellington, and asked his advice. He instantly replied, 'Send Lord Combermere.'

" 'But we have always understood that your Grace thought Lord Combermere a fool.'

" 'So he is a fool, and a damned fool; but he can take Rangoon.' "

. . . . . .

"Mrs. Arbuthnot (wife of the Duke's private secretary, familiarly called 'Gosh') was fond of parading her intimacy with the Duke before miscellaneous company. One day, in a large party, she said to him:

" 'Duke, I know you won't mind my asking you, but is it true that you were so much surprised when you found you had won the Battle of Waterloo?'

" 'By God! not half as much surprised as I am now, mum.'

"When the Queen came to her throne her first public act was to go in state to St. James's Palace to be proclaimed. She naturally wished to be accompanied in her state coach only by the Duchess of Kent and one of the ladies of the household; but Lord Albemarle, who was master of the horse, insisted that he had a right to travel with her Majesty in the coach, as he had done with William IV. The point was submitted to the Duke of Wellington, as a kind of universal referee in matters of precedent and usages. His judgment was delightfully unflattering to the outraged magnate—'The Queen can make you go inside the coach, or outside the coach, or run behind like a damned tinker's dog.' "

Mr. Russell speaks admiringly of Sir William Harcourt's intimate acquaintance with the poets, and cites the following as among his "extraordinarily apt quotations":

"That famous old country gentleman, the late Sir Rainald Knightley (who was the living double of Dickens's Sir Leicester Deadlock), had been expatiating after dinner on the undoubted glories of his famous pedigree. The company was getting a little restive under the recitation, when Sir William was heard to say, in an appreciated aside, 'This reminds me of Addison's evening hymn:

"And Knightley to the listening earth
Repeats the story of his birth." '

Surely the force of apt citation can no farther go. When Lord Tennyson chanced to say in Sir William Harcourt's hearing that his pipe after breakfast was the most enjoyable of the day, Sir William softly murmured the Tennysonian line:

'The earliest pipe of half-awakened birds.'

Some historians say that he substituted 'bards' for 'birds,' and the reception accorded by the poet to the parody was not as cordial as its excellence deserved."

Our Diarist confesses to a soft side for the clergy, perhaps because they yield him such material as this:

"A Dissenting minister, winding up a week's mission, is reported to have said, 'And if any spark of grace has been kindled by these exercises, oh, we pray thee, *water that spark.*' An old peasant-woman in Buckinghamshire, extolling the merits of her favorite curate, said to the rector, 'I do say that Mr. Woods is quite an angel in sheep's clothing'; and Dr. Liddon told me of a Presbyterian minister who was called on at short notice to officiate at the parish-church of Crathie in the presence of the Queen, and, transported by this tremendous experience, burst forth in rhetorical supplication: 'Grant that as she grows to be an old woman she may be made a new man; and that in all righteous causes she may go forth before her people like a he-goat on the mountains.'"

Plays, Pleasant and Unpleasant. By Bernard Shaw. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. 1898.

After reading the seven plays which make up these two volumes of Mr. Shaw, the remaining impression is one of mingled melancholy and indignation at the spectacle of so much wasted natural ability and perverted talent. But for the lack of a little sanity and sense of proportion, a man so observant, accomplished, and witty, and, above all, so independent and courageous, could scarcely have missed substantial success in any of the various departments of literature to which he has contributed at various times, whereas his writings are so disfigured by extravagance, eccentricity, and egotism—partly humorous and intentional, but largely unconscious and inevitable—that the genuine truth, power, and purpose contained in them are apt to be overlooked. They are read for the sake of the sparkling sayings and amusing conceits which abound in them, and are then forgotten as easily as last night's fireworks.

The most obvious commentary upon all these plays, written (it must be remembered) by a man who for years has been emptying the vials of his wrath and sarcasm upon the modern theatre for its conventionality, artificiality, and clumsy misrepresentation—charges, by the way, only too well founded—is their curious, almost comical indifference to the truth of life; not so much with regard to the deeper or more subtile influences and motives which actuate humanity, but in the every-day conduct and carriage of men and women, of the suggested types, in the situations and circumstances devised for them. Space, of course, will not permit a detailed examination of half-a-dozen very long plays, crammed with recklessly complicated characters, but an instance or two may be quoted by way of example.

To begin with the "unpleasant" pieces, to use Mr. Shaw's thoroughly appropriate phrase, which he apparently supposes to be excluded from the stage solely on account of their topics. This, certainly, is not true, or is true only in a very limited degree. As a matter of fact, his "Widowers' Houses," with its misleading and insignificant title, deals with a social problem of genuine interest, the exaction of rack-rents for rotten tenements by rich and conscienceless landlords, and suggests the outline of an ingenious and interesting story, which a playwright like Pinero, or even Henry Arthur Jones, might be able to put into effective theatrical form. But Mr. Shaw, having a good case, although not so good a one as he deems it (there being two sides to this as to most other questions), spoils it by overstatement, by all kinds of extravagance in drawing and excess in color. Here and there may be found exceedingly trenchant strokes of cynical humor and satire, but the characters themselves are distorted like the figures in the gross caricatures of Gillray. It is impossible to believe in any of them, from the transformed agent *Lickcheese* to the indisputably unpleasant heroine. As for "The Philanderer," it is difficult to credit that it ever could have been intended for anything but burlesque, although the author speaks of it as a topical comedy. It is full of comic inspiration, and delivers many a shrewd and telling hit at social shams and follies, but it is preposterously unfit for stage representation, and quite worthless, because wholly false, as a picture of any existing phase of society. Comment upon it, therefore, would be superfluous, but it is worth pointing out that the "new woman" in it is as utterly conventional and unreal as anything that could be found in contemporaneous drama, being nothing more nor less than a stock figure from the comic papers, a queer model for an "independent."

The charge of conventionality, however, cannot be preferred against *Vivie Warren*, the heroine of "Mrs. Warren's Profession," a perfectly unpresentable and supererogatory play, but able and vigorous in spite of its manifold absurdities. This young lady, fourth wrangler in the Cambridge mathematical tripos, is depicted as a marvel of masculine common sense, suffering from occasional lapses into sentimental idiocy. The sane part of her, although much overdrawn, has a certain plausibility and fascination, but the most liberal application of the *varium et mutabile semper* rule cannot be made to account for her as a whole. It may be admitted, perhaps, that she is not altogether out of drawing with the group in which she poses. The story is grotesquely horrible, but is founded on the direst fact. In the described conditions there is no exaggeration, as all persons familiar with the subject can testify, and Mrs. Warren and the wretch Crofts are sketched with extraordinary veracity—Ibsen himself in this respect could do no better; but the accuracy of personal detail in these particular instances does not offer anything like full compensation for the abuse of the privilege of coincidence and the habitual disregard of probability and the ways of the world in the general scheme. In motive the play is wholly moral, even commendable

in its bold effort to throw light upon a hideous, notorious, but scrupulously veiled iniquity; but in manner it is tactless, flippant, and dangerous because of the pervading cynicism that disguises the moral intent. Moreover, the theatre is no place for operations on social abscesses. Mr. Shaw deals a heavy blow at the hopes of the Independent Theatre, of which he has been one of the most vociferous champions, in proclaiming as its object the public advertisement of such an abominable traffic as this.

Of the pleasant plays there is not much to be said. They are excellent reading, full of amusing quips and jeers, smart cynicism, and all sorts of perverse cleverness, which includes an immense amount of shrewd observation, without any apparent capacity for logical or practical application. One of these pieces, "Candida," has been acted in England, with disastrous financial results, and has been hailed as a masterpiece by the "independents," but shares with its companions the fatal fault of being essentially unlifelike. Some of the personages, as, for instance, the fluent, capable, well-meaning, but egoistic parson, his practical, energetic wife, and her unscrupulous old mammon-worshipping father, are very human at times, but the youthful poet and the part played by him are outrages upon common sense. "Arms and the Man," thanks to Mr. Mansfield, is pretty well known in this country, and need not be discussed now. "You Never Can Tell," which opens in the vein of eccentric light comedy, but degenerates finally into untrammelled farce, is notable for its comic fancy and its exuberant spirit, and possibly might make a success with the right actors, if such could be found. A really fine comedian could do wonders with the old waiter. "The Man of Destiny," a Napoleonic episode, is not a remarkable achievement.

The influence of Ibsen is clearly discernible in Mr. Shaw's choice of topics and in his profuse and minute stage directions. It is a pity that he did not try, more successfully, to imitate his master in the matters of careful design, finished workmanship, and some deference to the laws of nature. In publishing these two plays he has furnished amusement for a lazy hour or two, has demonstrated the futility of mere will-o'-the-wisp brilliancy, and provided the amplest justification of the managers who declined to invest money in them.

Life in an Old English Town: A History of Coventry, from the earliest times, compiled from official records. By Mary Dormer Harris. [Social England Series.] The Macmillan Co. 1898.

The "series" plan must have proved profitable to the publishers, for a fresh venture of the kind is announced every month. Even the fastidious will think of it indulgently—though it has much to answer for—if only it finds a market, otherwise impossible, for a few such books as this. With a title and a shape which suggest nothing but would-be popular historical gossip, we really have here a scholarly and original contribution to the mediæval municipal history of England. The conjunction of present-day cheap bookmaking with the more competent scholarship now happily less rare than it used to be, is producing some interesting results; and this is one of them. The wisdom of the publishing serpent is here so thoroughly united with the harmlessness of the scholarly dove that the last chapter is avowedly a guide, and a guide both brief and sensible, to the sights of Coventry at the present day. It is an example worth following.

Coventry has already enjoyed more than average good fortune in its historians. Dugdale, in the seventeenth century, gave it a large place in his 'Antiquities of Warwickshire'; Sharp's 'Dissertation on the Pageants' is known to all students of Mystery Plays; Poole's 'Coventry' (1870) is an excellent specimen of the solid and expensive local history of the generation now passing away; and within the last three or four years the story of the parliamentary representation of the town has been set forth with minute care. But, strangely enough, no writer before Miss Harris has made any continuous or systematic use of the manuscript Leet Book of the town, a bulky folio containing a yearly account of municipal affairs from 1421 to 1555, and forming a priceless source of information on almost every aspect of contemporary civic life. It is in having utilized this for the first time that Miss Harris's service to historical science mainly consists. And now that the people of Coventry have been shown how full of interest is this treasure committed to their charge, it is to be hoped they will not long delay to follow the example of the corporation of Nottingham, and give us the Leet Book in a well-edited edition. If the taxpayers are lukewarm, there is an opportunity for private enterprise. The bicycle ought to do at least as much for the history of Coventry as the biscuit (*Americanè*, "cracker") has recently done for the history of Reading.

Miss Harris surveys the whole range of her subject, beginning with Lady Godiva and ending with the Pageants, making everywhere first-hand use of all the sources accessible. Her most original work, however, will be found in chapters 12 and 13, on "The Lammas Lands" and on "The Companies of the Crafts." From the former of these we learn to realize how important to the mediæval townsman were his rights of "common," and how vitally the "enclosures" of the fifteenth century affected the old agrarian basis of society. This is a truth which is being impressed upon us just now from several sides, *e. g.*, in Prof. Maitland's 'Township and Borough.' In the latter we get some welcome light on the relations between the greater and the lesser crafts, and between all of them and the magistracy. And both as craftsman and as champion of common rights we make the acquaintance of a borough agitator of the English type, a certain Lawrence Saunders—according to the poet of the people, "him that speaketh for our right"; according to the authorities, "a seditious man, of great presumption and obstinacy."

Still, thankful as we are for what we have got, it ought not to be concealed that from the point of view of the serious student of mediæval institutions there is much that is wanting. Miss Harris belongs to the school of Mrs. J. R. Green. Like Mrs. Green, she goes to the original authorities, and would not wittingly invent the tiniest fact. But she displays a quite excessive confidence in her own intuitive insight into the motives of her characters. Moreover, she is so bent on being interesting to the generality that she does not stop to explain what she knows of the institutional framework. But yet, dull as the subject is, this framework must be conceived of in some sort of way. For instance, much as we are told of the squabbles about the Lammas fields, we are nowhere given a plain account of the original agricultural organization of the town. What was the geographical extent of the "vill"; what became of the five "hides" recorded in Domesday? Or, again, the reader of the chapter on the Crafts who wants to know what the industrial life of Coventry actually was, would like to be told just how many crafts there were in Coventry, when each first made its appearance, and how many members each had. Probably the Leet Book nowhere responds to these questions in just this form, but it would be surprising if it did not authorize an approximate answer.

One word as to the illustrations. Some of them are very fair and really illustrate. The "Butcher Row" helps one to imagine a mediæval street, and Gee's picture shows what Lammas Day had become in the eighteenth century. But what ought to be the most interesting—the Earl of Chester's Charter, the page from the Leet Book, and Speed's map—are reduced so small as to be hardly legible. The editor would do well not to let his vaulting ambition thus overleap itself in the subsequent volumes.

Municipal Architecture in Boston. From designs by Edmund M. Wheelwright, City Architect, 1891 to 1895. Edited by Francis W. Chandler, Professor of Architecture, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Fellow of the American Institute of Architects. Part I. Boston: Bates & Guild Co. 1898.

The experience of Boston with its public buildings ought to be instructive to its fellow-cities. So far as we know, it is the only prominent city in the United States that has tried the experiment of a permanent city architect, appointed by the Mayor, under conditions that have given an adequate test. The first appointment was made as long ago as 1874, and the first incumbent, Mr. Clough, built good buildings, which were honestly carried out, with reasonable cost to the city. But an office which awards every year contracts to the amount of hundreds of thousands of dollars is a rock of offence to any municipal government, and Mr. Clough's successors quickly became the prey of the spoilsman. In the course of a dozen years, all the familiar evils of contractors' rings and political hangers-on had gathered about the Architect Department, as it was queerly called, and its expenses, at first limited to $5,000 a year, had in 1888 grown to $24,000. The cost of building done that year was $177,000; that is, the architectural service performed, for which the architect usually receives 5 per cent., was costing the city nearly 15 per cent.

In 1891 Mayor Matthews appointed Mr. Wheelwright, who took the office to reform it. He did reform it thoroughly—so thoroughly that not only were its expenses brought well within those of private practice, for the same amount of work carried on, but he brought upon himself the inexorable wrath of the rings of disappointed contractors, and of the politicians their friends. Then followed a notable struggle between the Mayor, who appointed and reappointed Mr. Wheelwright every time the vacancy came before him, and the Aldermen, who every time refused to confirm him. Af-

ter four years of this, Mr. Matthews ceased to be Mayor, and Mr. Wheelwright gladly went back to private practice, leaving behind him an enviable reputation, a city architecture greatly improved by his incumbency, and a recommendation to abolish the "Architect Department," which was done by Mayor Curtis, Mr. Matthews's successor.

Certain important facts were exhibited by this Boston experience: that if the right appointment were made, a city's architectural work might be admirably and economically carried on in design, construction, and administration; that there was every likelihood that, in the long run, the right appointments would not be made; and that under the wrong ones the "Architect Department" was peculiarly apt for corruption, maladministration, and political abuses. If these things were not difficult to prophesy, the demonstration of them was irrefragable; and cities which are without the gift of prophecy may well learn from the demonstration.

The volume which now is handsomely issued by the Bates & Guild Co. is the first of two which are announced, and contains forty-three folio heliotype plates from school-buildings built for Boston by Mr. Wheelwright, with an introduction and a valuable essay on school-house architecture, by Prof. Chandler, and a commentary on the buildings, liberally illustrated in the text by plans and supplementary cuts. The buildings, all of quiet design, in a classic or Italian style, and of simple materials—brick, with a modest use of terracotta and cut stone—show how much character, dignity, and even elegance an able architect may secure with these slight means by straightforward, appropriate design, by skilful use of proportion and refinement of detail. Though of necessity pretty uniform in type of plan, they are models of good arrangement, according to the needs of school-houses as they are understood in this country. One wonders, as he looks them over, that the same architect should in four years have designed so many buildings for so nearly uniform uses, with so much variety and at such a level of excellence.

Prof. Chandler's essay on the planning and construction of school-houses is admirable—clear, practical, comprehensive, and judicious. He discusses in detail their arrangement, construction, lighting, heating, ventilation, hygiene, and furnishing, in the light of modern knowledge, and with the illustration of Mr. Wheelwright's large experience. We doubt if the English reader will find the subject so adequately treated elsewhere. We can hardly agree with Prof. Chandler when he repudiates that provision of the Boston laws which requires that school-houses shall be made incombustible throughout, still less when he urges that eighty pounds per foot is a sufficient allowance for live load on the floors, in buildings where, especially in the exhibition-rooms, the sudden surging of a large number of people is to be provided for. But we must praise his suggestions of economy in school-building, which could hardly be better supported than by this score of thoroughly built and well-designed examples, the cost of which, built in two, three, or even four stories, ranges from $2.50 to $3 per square foot of ground area, with only two exceptional cases where it rises to $3.24 and $3.32.

The execution of the volume, both plates and letter-press, is admirable in its kind—as handsome as could be asked; our only criticism is that it is rather sumptuous for the occasion. The simple buildings look a little overdressed in so elaborate a toilet, and the book is too big and probably too costly to have the circulation it deserves. Both Mr. Wheelwright's designs and Prof. Chandler's essay are valuable enough to be freely distributed among architects and students. We would, therefore, suggest that the whole text, with its incorporated illustrations somewhat extended, would, if reprinted in quarto form, make a book which would be exceedingly useful and which ought to be widely sold.

The New Psychology. By E. W. Scripture, Director of the Yale Psychological Laboratory. [Contemporary Science Series.] Scribners. 8vo, pp. 500; 124 illustrations.

The present volume worthily fills its place in the highly modernistic series edited by Mr. Havelock Ellis. It consists in the main of a general account of all that is done in the psychological laboratories. We cannot say that it renders a satisfactory measure of justice to American work. The uninformed reader will gather that, except at Yale, the experimental psychology of this country does not rank very high, which is far from the truth. Considering how young the experimental science of the mind is, and that it is not of full-blooded experimental parentage, it is not surprising that, to a chemist or physicist, the psychological laboratories should not appear as marked by great experimental ability. It is probably a more significant fact that the results, after all, seem to be confined to a narrow department of the mind, although precisely what the significance of this fact may be it is too early to judge with confidence.

There is nothing at all in this book about cerebral physiology, except some words of exaggerated praise, accompanying the opinion that that study throws little light on psychology. The psychophysicists, however, can hardly afford to dispense with the aid of the cerebral physiologists, for it is a question whether both together have accomplished as much as Berkeley, Hartley, James Mill, Young, and the rest of the old associationalists.

Apart from its account of psychology, this book does, in a sense, mark a stage in the growing importance of that science. Fechner's 'Psychophysik,' from which the science dates, was published in 1860 (a date Dr. Scripture ought not to have omitted); but the present general interest throughout the scientific world in the subject arose about 1888, when Dr. Stanley Hall's *Journal of Psychology* was established, and when Prof. James's expositions were beginning to attract attention. Yet, young as is the movement, in this volume psychology already begins to jostle astronomy from her throne, as that one of the sciences from which the logic of science is to be learned. Thirty years ago, when Herschel's 'Outlines' was still in use in colleges, when Bertrand and others were still explaining to the general public how Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Keppler, and Newton had laid the foundations of science, the ordinary student expected that it would be in the course of his study of astronomy that he would become acquainted with the methods of scientific discovery and with the precautions needed in applying them. But the first four chapters of this book—one-sixth of the whole in space and about half its whole significance—are devoted to the general consideration of Observation, Statistics, Measurement, and Experimenting. This is in part due to Dr. Scripture's field of view being limited by a German horizon, and to a consequent confusion between psychology and logic, a science properly and in itself no more connected with psychics than with physics. Nevertheless, as well as the horoscope of twentieth-century science can be read, there are still much greater heights of importance to which psychology is destined to rise before its culmination; and its educational conjunction with the logic of science may be expected to become closer and closer.

The chapters on method are well enough executed to be exceedingly instructive to beginners in science, though the author does not always attain the American standard of clearness. For instance, in defining what it means in the doctrine of chances to say that a die turns up a particular face "about one-sixth of the time," Mr. Scripture not only talks about a "scale of certainty" (meaning a scale of uncertainty), which has nothing to do with the frequency with which the face turns up, but he also introduces the probability-function, thus substituting a theorem for the definition on which that theorem rests; and while he thus admits alien ideas into his definition, he altogether ignores several essential elements, and, in doing so, leaves the door open for serious fallacies.

Again, Dr. Scripture is excessively strict, not to say stern, in requiring that statistics and bodies of measurements shall conform to the characters of random collections. He demands, for example, that the number of extreme values shall not exceed that determined by the theory. This would, from a theoretical point of view, be perfectly just, provided the probable effects of given amounts of departure from randomness were calculated and allowed for. Practically, however, Dr. Scripture's rule would have the effect of stripping science in every branch of almost all observations except such as had prudently not been often repeated or not been made numerically exact. It would leave astronomy without a leg to stand upon. We are not surprised to find this hyperrhadamanthine theory associated with practices equally removed from good sense in the direction of laxity. Thus, as a model of the proper treatment of observations, a series of eight observations are given, their mean taken, and their "mean error" calculated (not with strict accuracy, by the way, and several of the formulæ exhibit this fault), although of the eight observations one departs from the mean in one direction by four times the amount by which the worst of the others departs, along with all those seven, in the opposite direction. Dr. Scripture suggests that the "median," or middling value, would be better than the mean, which is as much as to say that, rather than rank the discordant observation as of equal value with the others, it would be preferable to use but one of the eight as a measure and all the rest as mere qualitative indicators. In reply to this, a remark in the previous chapter is pertinent: "Yet [if we substitute counting for measurement], in a case where a possibility of measurement exists, we are really throwing away an accurate method for a poorer one." Here native Yankee gumption peeps out. Had Dr. Scripture studied the works of first-rate mathematicians

among his own countrymen, as well as those of fourth-rate writers in inferior German translations, he would have learned of a better way of treating series of observations into which abnormal observations are mixed than that of merely counting them. There are other instances of extremely lax practice in treating measurements; but the above example will suffice.

The portion of the book devoted to psychological experiments proper is divided into three parts entitled Time, Energy, Space. This adopts an idea of Ostwald, the chemist, that Energy ought to be substituted for Mass, as a fundamental quantity in dynamics. Nothing more feeble has been put forth by a man of ability since Sir Isaac Newton's commentaries on the book of Daniel. That where there are three connected variables, independent functions of them may be substituted for the variables themselves, is a matter of course; so that nobody will dispute that, if we choose to do so, we can, for example, instead of saying that momentum is the product of mass into velocity, say that it is the quotient of the kinetic energy divided by the velocity. In that case, one might say, the less the velocity, the greater the momentum; meaning that if a moving body burst so that a portion of it had the same energy as the whole had had, then the greater its velocity, the smaller would be its momentum. But because moving bodies do not usually burst and in that sense alter their masses, but do continually change their kinetic energies, it follows that Ostwald's system would be inconvenient in experience; and since the human mind is formed upon the ordinary course of experience, that system is equally unnatural for the human mind. It has, in fact, nothing at all to recommend it, unless it be its enveloping the whole subject in a fog of metaphysics.

A fifth part of the book gives the history of the new psychology. We notice one interesting remark, that Fechner's law was in part anticipated in Daniel Bernouilli's theory of "moral expectation." We are glad to acknowledge that that idle theory did contain the germ of a great truth, which Dr. Scripture has so acutely pointed out. We will not say more of the historical part, because we wish to avoid appearing utterly to condemn a work of a good deal of merit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E. The Documents of the Hexateuch. Vol. II. Putnams. $4.
Biological Lectures. Delivered at Wood's Holl. 1896-97. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.15.
Block, L. J. Capriccios. Putnams. $1.25.
Brownson, H. F. Orestes A. Brownson's Early Life, 1803-1844. Detroit, Mich.: H. F. Brownson.
Chailley-Bert, Joseph. L'Education et les Colonies. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Chester, Norley. Stories from Dante. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Collections and Recollections. By One Who has Kept a Diary. Harpers. $2.50.
Darmsteter, James. The Zend Avesta. [Sacred Books of the East.] Christian Literature Co.
Douglas, W. S. Cromwell's Scotch Campaigns. 1650-51. London: Elliot Stock.
Edgar, Hon. J. D. Canada and its Capital, with Sketches of Political and Social Life at Ottawa. Toronto: George N. Morang. $2.50.
Foster, R. F. Common Sense in Whist. Brooklyn: R. F. Foster.
Frankel, A. H. In Gold We Trust! Philadelphia: William H. Pile's Sons.
Furneaux, Henry. Cornelii Taciti Vita Agricolæ. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Gannett, Henry. North America. Vol. II. The United States. [Compendium of Geography and Travel.] London: Edward Stanford.
Gautier, Judith. Khou-n-atonou (Fragments d'un papyrus). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Gibbs, W. E. Lighting by Acetylene. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Greenough, W. P. Canadian Folk-Life and Folk-Lore. Illustrated. G. H. Richmond.
Groos, Prof. Karl. The Play of Animals. Appletons. $1.75.
Hope, Anthony. Rupert of Hentzau. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Hopkins, Prof. W. J. The Telephone. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Irving H. B. The Life of Judge Jeffreys. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Kerr, Joe. The Cheery Book. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Lafleur, Prof. E. The Conflict of Laws in the Province of Quebec. Montreal: C. Theoret.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. LV. Stow-Taylor. Macmillan. $3.75.
List of Private Libraries. Vol. III. Germany. Leipzig: G. Hedeler.
Lowndes, M. E. Michel de Montaigne: A Biographical Study. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Lys, Christian. The Hepsworth Millions. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Macgoffin, Barnes. Where the Smile Comes In. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Mackie, Pauline B. Ye Lyttle Salem Maide. A Story of Witchcraft. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Masson-Forestier. Angoisses de Juge. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Millar, John. The School System of the State of New York (as Viewed by a Canadian). Toronto: Warwick Bros. & Rutter.
Moore, F. F. The Millionaires. Appletons. $1.
Morris, Prof. E. E. Austral English. A Dictionary of Australian Words, Phrases, and Usages. Macmillan. $3.75.
Moses, Prof. Bernard. Democracy and Social Growth in America. Putnams. $1.
Newbigging, Thomas. Essays at Eventide. London: Gay & Bird.
Oakley, Hester C. As Having Nothing. Putnams. $1.
O'Neill, Kate. Punctuation Practically Illustrated. A. Lovell & Co. 50c.
Pritchard, Rosalind. London and Londoners, 1898. London: Scientific Press; Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Proctor, Mary. Stories of Starland. London: G. W. Bacon & Co.; New York: Potter & Putnam Co.
Prothero, R. E. The Works of Lord Byron. Letters and Journals. Vol. I. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Rannie, D. W. Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne. Vol. IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Read, Carveth. Logic, Deductive and Inductive. London: Grant Richards.
Reed, Miss Helen L. Miss Theodora. A West End Story. Boston: R. G. Badger & Co.
Riley, J. N. Poems Here at Home. [Homestead Edition]. Scribners.
Scheppegrell, Dr. W. Electricity in the Diagnosis and Treatment of Diseases of the Nose, Throat, and Ear. Putnams. $4.50.
Sudermann, Hermann. Regina: or, The Sins of the Fathers. John Lane. $1.50.
Sutherland, Alexander. The Origin and Growth of the Moral Instinct. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $8.
Taylor, Prof. A. R. The Study of the Child. Appletons.
The Atlantic Monthly. Vol. LXXXI. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
The Game in Wall Street, and How to Play it Successfully. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.
"The Living Age." April-June, 1898. Boston: Living Age Co.
Turner, H. G., and Sutherland, Alexander. The Development of Australian Literature. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Tyler, Prof. M. C. Glimpses of England: Social, Political, Literary. Putnams. $1.25.
Walch, Caroline C. Doctor Sphinx. F. J. Neely.
Williams, Sherman. Choice Literature. Primary and Intermediate Grades. 6 vols. New York: Sheldon & Co.
Wisser, Lieut. J. P. Explosive Materials. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 21, 1898.

The Week.

Gen. Shafter's statement that it would have cost 5,000 lives if Santiago had been stormed instead of surrendered, as it was on Sunday, may not have been intended as a full justification for his prudent and patient course in pressing for surrender, but such it undoubtedly is. It took nearly two weeks to bring the negotiations to a conclusion, and it would appear that Gen. Shafter was subject to a good deal of nudging from Washington to make him hurry; but deliberation and firmness combined finally carried the day. Counting in what would have been the inevitable Spanish losses if Santiago had been carried by assault, we have probably a saving of 10,000 lives as a result of calm negotiation. Both Gen. Shafter and Gen. Toral acted like humane men most anxious to avert needless bloodshed. As soon as they were given a free hand by their respective Governments they arranged terms based upon the actual military situation, and honorable to both sides.

President McKinley's letter of instructions for the government of Santiago may be taken as a proclamation to the world as well as an order to Gen. Shafter. It does not commit the Administration to any particular policy after the Spanish forces shall have been entirely expelled from Cuba, but it gives in outline the general views entertained by our Government touching that island. These general views are that the civil, political, and religious rights of the inhabitants shall be respected, that private property shall not be confiscated, and that the local laws shall be enforced so far as they are not in conflict with the necessities imposed by military occupation and movements. The most important clause of the instructions is that in which the President decides that the present administrators of the law shall continue their functions, if they accept the supremacy of the United States, viz.:

> "The judges and the other officers connected with the administration of justice may, if they accept the supremacy of the United States, continue to administer the ordinary law of the land, as between man and man, under the supervision of the American commander-in-chief. The native constabulary will, so far as may be practicable, be preserved. The freedom of the people to pursue their accustomed occupations will be abridged only when it may be necessary to do so."

The significance of this clause is twofold. It negatives the idea that the government of the island is to be turned over to the insurgents, and it conveys the virtual promise that Cuba shall have self-government—that is, government by the majority—whenever Spanish authority shall be entirely overthrown. In so far it keeps faith with the resolution of Congress which declares that, in entering upon war, we had no other purpose than to bestow liberty upon the people of Cuba, and that when this should be accomplished we would withdraw from the island.

The seizure of the Caroline Islands, which it is now practically admitted in Washington that the *Monterey* was ordered to make on her way to Manila, is not intended to secure a coaling-station so much as a missionary station. It appears that the different missionary societies doing work in the Carolines urged the President to take them out from under the Spanish flag, so that the act, if it is done, will be one not of military necessity, but of religious expediency. We observe, also, that representatives of the leading mission boards met last week to consider plans for harmonious division of fields in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, all of which they coolly assumed would soon be United States territory. In their minds, of course, this is only the exercise of wise foresight in preparing for the inevitable. But in thus indicating to the Government that they are prepared to support it in stripping Spain of all her colonial possessions, these heralds of peace have undoubtedly aided in delaying peace.

It is not necessary to magnify the importance of the "*Irene* incident" in the Philippine Islands. If the Germans were doing anything improper, it is clear that they did not continue it against the wishes of the American commander. It is equally clear that whatever was done is of little consequence unless it was authorized by the German Government, and as that Government has assured our own of its pacific intentions, we are justified in concluding that the act of the commander of the *Irene*, if contrary to law or comity, will be disavowed. Admiral Dewey has displayed such excellent judgment as to make it probable that the interests of his country will be maintained with proper dignity and without needless friction. The manner in which the incident is discussed by the militant element in the English press is significant of what is before us if we embark on our voyage of imperial destiny. However friendly the English people may be, it is not doubtful that this element would regard a quarrel between our Government and that of Germany with the greatest satisfaction. Such a quarrel would tend to weaken Germany and hinder her from meddling with the colonial designs of England. At the same time it would greatly encourage the element in this country which favors a military alliance with England. Moreover, such a quarrel would tend to diminish the danger to which English manufacturers are exposed from American competition. When the advantages of stirring up ill-feeling between our Government and that of Germany are so obvious, it is not surprising that the London *Times* should proclaim that the conduct of the Germans had come "perilously near producing complications of an exceedingly untoward kind."

Rumors of peace are flung from every quarter, but have done little as yet except to emphasize the enormous difficulties in the way of peace. Is there any trustworthy evidence that the two governments are at present within sight of a basis for even negotiating, to say nothing of agreeing? The alleged terms which Spain puts forward are promptly declared in Washington to be quite inadmissible. Our reported proposals are affirmed in Madrid to be monstrous and wholly out of the question. This, of course, might be only the customary fencing of two parties who, after a little, will sit down to a table and talk reason. But, as much as we hope our view of the situation may turn out erroneous, we are bound to say we see no immediate prospect of successful negotiations for peace. One should observe how Senators are rising in arms as soon as a hint appears in the press that President McKinley may not be disposed to exact the uttermost farthing from Spain. Senator Davis, chairman of the foreign affairs committee, as if purposely to warn Mr. McKinley not to forget the Senate, came out in an interview on Friday coolly assuming that Spain is to be utterly stripped of her colonial possessions, and Senator Cockrell favored us with similar views the next day. If this is to be our ultimatum to Spain, we do not think she will lie down under it any more readily than she did under our ultimatum of last April.

Most candidates for Congress thus far nominated have been rather shy about expressing an opinion as to the proper policy for our Government to pursue regarding Spanish territory which may come into our possession during the war. Representative Littauer of the Twenty-second New York District, who was renominated the other day, was more definite than most of his colleagues who have been heard from in what he said on this subject. Mr. Littauer said that he "was one of those who earnestly stood by our patient, wise, and patriotic President against the taunts of Democrats and the impatience of Jingoes, in the po-

licy that every honorable means must be exhausted of inducing Spain to put an end to the war in Cuba"; and, diplomacy having failed, he now has "no fear that our people will become intoxicated with the demonstration of their power in war so as to enter upon a policy of colonial expansion and empire." Mr. Littauer justified the annexation of Hawaii, but insisted that it "has no relation to the acquisition of further territory," and opposed the retention of more than coaling stations for our navy and harbors for our commerce in the Spanish islands which we take during the war, holding that we should "give the people of these islands the opportunity to secure good government through self-government and by the most feasible methods."

An impressive deliverance on the subject of our national policy with regard to Spanish possessions that may come under our control during the war has been made by the Hampshire County (Mass.) Association of Congregational Ministers. At its summer meeting, about a month ago, a committee was appointed to prepare a statement of the sentiments of the body on this subject, and a majority of the members of the Association have approved the report of this committee. While avowing their "belief in benevolent intervention upon sufficient cause," and holding that our intervention in Cuba was fully justified, the clergymen declare that, "because we believe in benevolent intervention, we do all the more earnestly protest against the prostitution to selfish and unjust gain, and denounce all solicitation from industrial, financial, political, journalistic, *and alleged religious ambitions* to debauch our national honor by perverting this undertaking from its plighted, unselfish purpose to ends of conquest and colonial empire." The land-grabbers have already tried to defend the policy which they advocate by claiming that the people of these various islands are not capable of governing themselves, and consequently we must govern them. To this plea the Massachusetts ministers make a fine rejoinder. They believe that "liberty under God is the birthright of man, and to be taken from no people until, after opportunity of self-government, their misgovernment shall have become a scandal and intolerable disturbance to the peace of the world." They point to Japan "as an example that an Oriental people, if willing to maintain political and religious liberty, may come to power and honor among the nations of the earth."

The outbreak of yellow fever in Cuba calls attention to one pressing duty that devolved upon Congress at the recent session which was neglected. This was the passage of a law to render more effective the existing system of quarantine under the management of the Marine Hospital Service. This has already proved its great utility as far as it goes, but it is not carried as far as it should be. The necessity of its extension was made perfectly plain by the Senate committee on public health, which brought in a bill granting additional quarantine powers and imposing additional duties upon the Marine Hospital Service, but no action was taken upon it, and things are therefore still left as they were last summer, except so far as the war may justify the President in taking action in an emergency without reference to State or local regulations.

The Common Council of Philadelphia has been even more remiss than the Congress of the United States in its neglect of the public health. For years that city has suffered more, proportionally, from typhoid fever than any other in the country. The cause is well known to be the impurity of its water supply. A system of filtration which would make the water pure has been devised; it is entirely practicable and can be applied as soon as the money needed is voted by the Common Council. The necessity of immediate action has been emphasized by a recent outbreak of typhoid fever in the northwest section of the city, which was clearly attributable to the pollution of the water supply by sewage. Yet, in the face of all this, the Common Council, by a vote of 52 to 50, has postponed for six months an ordinance appropriating the money needed to construct filtering plants. The majority who took this action, in the words of the *Press*, "practically and in effect sentence some 200 persons to die of typhoid, and some 4,000 persons to suffer from a disease whose prostrating effects extend over years." The motives for this shameful policy are well known. "The ordinance," says the *Ledger*, "is antagonized by a combination consisting of factional enemies of the administration, supporters of private water schemes akin to the malodorous Schuylkill valley jobbery, and obstinate individuals with impractical and obsolete ideas of their own"; and it declares, in so many words, that "a system of purification would have been introduced before this if corruptionists could have seen their way clear to swindle the taxpayers in connection with it."

To find a total import trade as small as that of the fiscal year 1898, the student of our commerce must turn back as far as 1879, when the country's population was smaller by nearly twenty millions than its present total. Only five years ago, in the fiscal year 1893, the United States imported $866,000,000 worth of foreign goods. In the past fiscal year the total fell to $616,000,000. The net result is an excess of exports over imports wholly unparalleled in our history, the so-called balance of trade in our favor reaching $615,259,000, against the $286,263,000 balance which in 1897 was hailed as breaking all past records. It is needless at this time to recite the various striking effects produced on our general finances by this extraordinary year of trade. Not least among the visible results is the import of very nearly $100,000,000 gold in excess of exports, this sum not including the arrivals from the Klondike. With the year's domestic gold production reckoned at upwards of sixty million dollars, it is not surprising that the use of gold in all bank and Government exchanges has been freely resumed, and that even the recent advance subscriptions of small subscribers to the Government loan have resulted in an increase of $12,000,000 in the Treasury's gold balance. Such is the story of a year which is likely long to remain a landmark in our commercial history. In view of all the peculiar influences which combined to bring about such results, it is safe to say that the most interesting present problem lies in the question how far these trade conditions will now be modified or reversed. That the export total of 1898 will be repeated is hardly to be expected; the total shipments, even in June, fell off some $15,000,000 from the aggregate of May. But the merchandise import trade of June decreased $2,000,000 from that of the previous month, $4,700,000 from that of April, and fully $10,000,000 from that of March.

It is an extremely edifying spectacle which five of the architects of our Greater New York charter present when they sign a formal statement to the Governor in favor of legislation undoing their own folly in regard to the combined debt of the new city. Not a man of the five, including Gen. Tracy, would pay the slightest heed to protests which were made to them last year on this very subject. Every authority of any standing in such matters called attention to the inadequacy and crudeness, to use no stronger terms, of those sections of the charter which refer to debt and taxation, but the charter-makers were stone deaf on the subject. As those sections were constructed and finally enacted, they invited the new sections of the city to incur all the indebtedness they possibly could before coming in, with the assurance that, after they were in, the new city would foot the bills. As the Comptroller points out, something like $22,000,000 of county debts, in addition to the full constitutional limit of city debts, was thus dumped upon the new city, and made to constitute a part of its common indebtedness. In fact, the opportunity to do this very thing was the chief inducement held out to the new sections to come into the enlarged city. Now,

the charter-makers who perpetrated this act, turn about and assure the Governor that they "heartily approve of the elimination of county debts" from the total city indebtedness. How do the sections of the city which would have this $22,000,000 thrown back on them for payment, like this kind of dealing? That they ought to be made to pay it, cannot be denied; but would they not be the victims of a confidence game if, after being beguiled into consolidation by the promise of having somebody else pay their debts, they were forced to pay them themselves?

In commenting upon the recent decision of the Nebraska Supreme Court regarding the question of home rule in cities, we spoke of the law which it annulled for unconstitutionality, conferring authority upon the Governor to appoint Fire and Police Commissioners in cities of the metropolitan class, as having been passed by the last Legislature, which was a Populist body, for partisan purposes. We have since been reminded that, while the act upon which the court rendered judgment was passed by the Populist Legislature and applied by the Populist Governor, the odium of introducing the principle rests upon the Republican party. A law was passed by a Republican Legislature and approved by a Republican Governor, some years ago, at a time when Omaha was usually Democratic, which gave to the Governor the power of appointing the Fire and Police Commissioners for that city. The constitutionality of this law was disputed by the Opposition, but the Supreme Court sustained it. As soon as a Populist (Holcomb) was elected Governor, all the other State officers being Republican, a Republican Legislature amended the law so as to give the appointing power to a board consisting of the Governor and two other State officers, both of whom were Republicans. This also was contested in the courts, but the Supreme Court decided in favor of the appointees of the two Republican officers (the Governor refusing to act with them). When at last the Populists gained control of the Legislature and had reëlected their Governor, they simply restored to the Governor the appointing power as it had been under the original Republican law. Then the Republicans, in their turn, contested the constitutionality of what was practically their own law, and the same two judges who had once sustained it reversed themselves, declared the law unconstitutional, and put forth a stout defence of the principle of home rule. This is, of course, a worse showing for the Republicans than for the Populists, and justifies the fear expressed by our correspondent that a court which has made three conflicting and contradictory decisions upon the same law, but always in favor of its Republican allies, may find an excuse for rereversing itself if the necessities of the Republican machine shall ever seem to require it.

The Dominion of Canada is enjoying an expansion of trade similar to that of this country. Of course the same causes account in part for this: bountiful harvests here, failure of crops abroad, together with a general revival of activity in business on account of the revival in the United States. But in Canada there has been a reduction of customs duties, while here we have raised them: Hence in Canada the revenue from customs has increased, while our revenue has seriously fallen off. The volume of imports into Canada has increased, in spite of the large reduction of duties, from $19,478,000 in 1897 to $21,467,000 in 1898. How greatly our own imports have declined, as well as the customs revenue, it is unnecessary to repeat. Instead of a large deficit, filled only by using up the payments for the Pacific railroads and additional taxation, the Canadian Government is able to show a surplus of probably more than a million dollars. The postal revenue has increased, the circulation of bank-notes has increased, the railway returns have increased, foreign trade has increased; but the taxes have been diminished. The people who use cotton goods have to pay less for them. Woollen goods that cost $1.25 may now be bought for $1.00, and so on in the case of many articles. The effect of the still lower duties that go into effect this year ought to be carefully observed by our legislators.

The formation of an Anglo-American League, which was formally accomplished in London on July 13, is significant at least as showing that the talk of an alliance is not to be abandoned. But it is hard to maintain a league that has no definite purpose, and the resolution adopted in London is extremely vague. It recites that the peoples of the United States and England are similar in race, literature, and governmental institutions, and that as they are "drawn together by strong common interests in many parts of the world," the two nations ought cordially and constantly to coöperate. This sounds very well, but the important question is to know what such coöperation means. Is this country to coöperate with England in maintaining the balance of power in Europe, and in defending her colonial possessions against the attacks of her enemies? Is England to coöperate with this country in extending its sovereignty over the islands of the Pacific and the continent of Asia? Such coöperation means nothing less than an offensive and defensive alliance, for if we are not prepared to exhibit our sympathy by material aid, England's enemies will laugh at our "cordial coöperation" with her. On the other hand, if there is to be no military alliance, coöperation must necessarily relate to commercial relations, and we are brought face to face with the question whether we shall coöperate with England in her free-trade policy, or try to wrest her markets from her. It was on this account that Lord Farrer said that in this movement prudence was as necessary as enthusiasm. He referred to the anticipated policy of American expansion, and sharply distinguished the English principle of the "open door" in the development of her commercial empire, from the policy of other nations in closing the door when they established colonies. If the United States is prepared to coöperate with England in freeing commerce from protective duties, the Anglo-American League may have as glorious a future as the Cobden Club has had a past. But if this country is to compel its new colonies to trade exclusively with us, English coöperation will not be desirable, nor will it be offered.

The Liberal party in England are laughing at the collapse of the scheme for pensioning old people. At the election in 1895 one of the cries was, "Vote for Chamberlain and old-age pensions," and it was necessary for the Conservative Government to do something to show that it intended to support the scheme. Accordingly a committee was appointed to investigate the whole subject, and it has just presented its report. It examined thoroughly all the plans suggested by Mr. Chamberlain and others, as well as one contributed by one of its own members, Sir Spencer Walpole, and it finds them all impracticable. Furthermore, it declares that the principle upon which they all rest, and upon which every similar scheme must rest, is pernicious and incompatible with the existing constitution of society. The report of the committee is really a trenchant criticism of modern socialistic tendencies, and shows that Harcourt's declaration, "We are all socialists now," is very far from the truth. It might be supposed that Mr. Chamberlain would evince some discomfiture at such a rebuff as this, but as he had cheerily announced, "I never promised old-age pensions," he will evidently mind this blow no more than the collapse of his visions of colonial empire. The committee were empowered to examine any plans that might be presented having the purpose of encouraging the working classes to make provision for old age, by state aid or otherwise, and to consider especially their probable cost to the exchequer and to the local rates, their effect in promoting habits of thrift and self-reliance, their influence on the prosperity of the friendly societies, and the possibility of securing the coöperation of these institutions. No less than a hundred schemes were laid before the committee.

CHANGING THE CONSTITUTION.

The acquisition of the Hawaiian Islands was accomplished under the most unfavorable conditions for calm and deliberate action. The imaginations of most Congressmen were so heated by visions of commercial empire and military glory as to make them indifferent to all warnings and deaf to all arguments. In the Senate the supporters of the Administration openly took the position that they would not defend its policy, but would let their opponents talk themselves out. The result was that the constitutional questions involved in the acquisition of new territory were not fairly faced by those who voted for it, and in the country at large the gravity of these questions appears to be almost unnoticed. Nevertheless, the action of the Senate has effected an important change in the Constitution, and, what is more remarkable, a change that deprives the Senate of one of the most valuable of its powers.

It was contended by the opposition that no precedent existed for the acquisition of territory by joint resolution. All previous extensions of the borders of our country, except in the case of Texas, had been made by the exercise of the treaty-making power vested by the Constitution in the President and Senate. Texas, it is true, was admitted to the Union by joint resolution, but it was admitted as a State. The Constitution expressly confers upon Congress the power to admit new States, yet many of the most distinguished constitutional lawyers of that day believed that their admission by joint resolution was beyond the constitutional grant of power. Daniel Webster was not in Congress when Texas was admitted, but when he came there at the next session he gave his opinion that its admission by joint resolution was unauthorized. Texas was an adjoining State, and its inhabitants by a great majority had asked for admission to the Union; but Mr. Webster and other great lawyers maintained that the Constitution was changed when Congress admitted it by joint resolution. The precedent, however, was established, and it had to stand; but it is no precedent for the acquisition of territory in any part of the world without the vote of its inhabitants, and with the positive disclaimer that a State is being admitted into the Union.

The present action of Congress is thus without precedent; but henceforth it will be a precedent, and the Constitution will be interpreted in accordance with it. In other cases the Constitution may be protected by the Supreme Court. Individual citizens whose liberties have been infringed by act of Congress may appeal to that high tribunal and have its decision on the constitutionality of the oppressive statute. Not so in the case of the rights of a legislative body like the Senate. If it relinquishes its own powers, and refuses to assert its own rights, it can appeal to no other body to restore what it has abandoned and defend what it has neglected. As Senator Spooner observed, no other power and no other officer of Government would question the validity of the acquisition of Hawaii after the joint resolution was adopted, but the question for Senators to consider was simply what was involved in their oath to support the Constitution of the United States. The action of a majority of the Senators must be taken as showing that they believe that territory may be constitutionally acquired by the United States by other means than treaties, and it is henceforth a constitutional principle that for such purposes the treaty-making power may be dispensed with. It is almost incredible that the gravity of this objection was absolutely ignored by every supporter of annexation. Even Senator Hoar, whose speech contained the best defence of the new policy that was made, was silent on this point.

It is a remarkable spectacle to see a legislative body, preëminent among such bodies for the tenacity with which it maintains its prerogatives and the assiduity with which it extends them, throwing away for ever the most dignified and important of them all for the accomplishment of an intrinsically small and temporary purpose. So long as the treaty-making power existed unimpaired, the country was reasonably secure against recklessness in territorial expansion. The necessity of the Presidential initiative, the necessity of a concurrence by two-thirds of the Senators, insured deliberation and prevented hasty and impulsive action. The framers of the Constitution did not insert the requirement of a two-thirds vote without good reason. They justly considered that in the foreign relations of the country no important action should be taken against the desire of any considerable number of the States of the Union. With the change now made in the Constitution it will require only a bare majority in both houses of Congress to annex territory in any part of the world. Acquisitions will be made that never could have been made had the treaty-making power remained unimpaired. In place of treaties we shall have joint resolutions, and whenever the frenzy of war seizes on our representatives they will no longer encounter a check from the Constitution, but will carry out their impulses by the most expeditious means. The step taken is irrevocable and it is in vain to deplore it; yet the fact that so momentous a step should be taken without notice in the excitement of war, is one more reason why good citizens should insist with all their might on the preservation of peace. We owe all our currency troubles to the changes in our Constitution caused by the civil war. Our children may have to charge many foreign troubles to the constitutional changes which would not have taken place had it not been for the war in which we are now engaged.

THE GOVERNMENT LOAN.

As an experiment in a "popular loan," the Government's offer of $200,000,000 3 per cents, which closed a week ago, has undoubtedly succeeded. The statement of the Treasury authorities that a thousand million dollars have been tendered is of itself not so significant as might be imagined; because, as most people are aware, the largest bids are submitted in behalf of syndicates whose members have forwarded other bids on individual account. Moreover, as happens with every public loan where oversubscriptions are anticipated, a large part even of the individual bidders have asked for three or four times as much as they expect to get, reckoning that they will thus fare better on a pro-rata scaling down of bids on the allotment.

The really significant fact, however, lies in the Treasury's announcement that practically the entire loan will be covered by bids of individuals, the corporations getting the bonds, as a rule, only at second hand. No doubt a part of these heavy individual applications have been encouraged by the fact that while the Government offered the 3 per cents at par, bids of 102½ were made in the open market for the bonds "when issued." Supposing that the whole loan could have been disposed of at that sum, it will appear that the Government has sacrificed several millions by fixing its issue price at par. But it must be remembered, on the other hand, that the $50,000,000 5 per cent. loan of February, 1894, was tendered at a minimum price, which, as the Treasury pointed out, was the equivalent of a 3 per cent. bond at par, and that it was only with the greatest difficulty that the loan was floated, even with the aid of syndicates. Nor did this loan, when floated, sell appreciably above the minimum issue price. Therefore the present oversubscription on the basis of 3 per cent. is pretty conclusive proof, first of the better position of the investing public, and second of the improvement in the public credit.

As regards the financial management of the loan, the present condition of the money market is witness to the foresight and sagacity of the Treasury. To withdraw suddenly from the channels of trade such a sum of money as $200,000,000 would disturb in the most embarrassing way the financial situation. Such a withdrawal seemed to be unnecessary, because the single purpose of the pending loan was to provide against the continuing deficit on war account. There could be no advantage in suddenly heaping up an enormous money fund at Washington, removed entirely from the use of trade, only to throw it gradually back again on the market dur-

ing the progress of the war. Obviously, then, the end to be achieved was for the Treasury to acquire the title to such money, but to withdraw it from its usual depositories only as fast as it was needed for disbursements.

This was not a simple task, because in the nature of things some arbitrary date or dates must be fixed for subscription to the loan, and in this country the Government's defective banking facilities make it extremely difficult to keep its surplus on the open market until required for use. Even to deposit the entire sum with national banks would have been impracticable, because such deposits must themselves be secured by other Government bonds placed by the banks in the hands of the Treasury; and the supply of such outstanding bonds is limited.

The problem has been met in a way which the present unruffled condition of the money market proves to be as effective as it is ingenious. The Treasury's plan of five equal instalment payments, forty days apart, practically guarantees that the war deficit will merely be met as it arises. The money already paid in against the small subscriptions (where the full amount is required at once) has raised the Treasury's balance to the figure recorded at the opening of the war. There remains to be subscribed, against the larger bids, something less than $150,000,000, and payment of this amount is distributed by the circular over the next five months. But the Treasury's revenue deficit, at the present rate, is averaging at least $30,000,000 monthly; so that five months would apparently use up all the proceeds of the loan, leaving both Government and money market, at the close, where they were before the war. With payments made in these widely separate instalments, the use of Government bank depositories is easy, and it is reasonable to expect that no part of the loan will henceforth be withdrawn from the use of trade. The proceeds will continue to be loaned by the banks to business interests until the Treasury needs them for its own expenses; withdrawn and disbursed again by the Government, they will return to the normal banking channels.

It is, of course, a matter of mere conjecture how far this $200,000,000 loan will serve to meet the extraordinary expenses of the war. The answer to this question depends, not only on the area and duration of the conflict, but on the productiveness of the new war taxes. It is somewhat significant that the Treasury returns of revenue and expenditure for the first fortnight in July, while showing an increase over the corresponding period last month of six millions in the receipts, reported also an increase in the expenses for the period of no less than eight millions; so that the average daily deficit is considerably larger than it was before the new taxes went into operation. Payment of mid-year interest and pensions has, of course, considerably swelled the July expense account; but it is noticeable also that disbursements for the army, which were $4,605,000 in the first two weeks of May, and $7,620,000 for the same period of June, rose before the middle of July to $10,640,000. With the various military preparations under way, it can hardly be expected that the ratio of deficit in current revenue will be reduced. In short, the extraordinary taxes and the loan will together serve, in all probability, only to keep the Government's finances on an even keel.

TAXATION OF COLLEGE PROPERTY.

The recent decision of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts in the case of Williams College, and the attempt to tax the property of Yale University in New Haven, are events of much gravity. It is argued with some plausibility that it is proper to tax college property which produces an income, when that property is not used directly for college purposes. But it is evident that the distinction has no substantial basis. The income of the college, from whatever source, is applied to its educational purposes, and it is immaterial, from that point of view, whether the property is used directly for these purposes or not. In other words, the practical result is the same whether taxes are levied on a college dormitory or lecture-room, or on a store owned and rented by the college, the income derived from which is applied to the payment of teachers' salaries. There may be substantial reasons for taxing such rented real estate, but, of course, the income applicable to educational purposes is thereby reduced.

As a matter of fact it has been the general rule, acquiesced in by the colleges, to tax lands owned by them when not included in the college grounds or occupied by students or members of the faculty. Under the supposed authority of the Williams College decision a number of assessors in Massachusetts have this year proceeded to tax houses occupied by college presidents, students' dormitories, playgrounds, infirmaries, and refectories for poor students. In some cases the houses occupied by college professors have been taxed, although they were within the college enclosure; it being claimed that such houses were used for private and not for public or charitable purposes. Mr. Samuel Hoar, appearing before the Legislature in behalf of the Massachusetts General Hospital, has pointed out that on this principle the dwelling-houses of the resident physicians, the dormitories for nurses, and the porter's lodge belonging to that institution would all be taxable. He contends that this principle is contrary to law, and not asserted by the decision in the Williams College case. The officers of Harvard University have taken steps to decide this point, by appealing from their assessment, and a case has been made up for presentation to the Supreme Court, which will finally settle the question. But the question of public policy involved is of more general importance than the construction of a particular statute.

The question may be sharply defined by a comparison. We may assume that the work accomplished by the Massachusetts General Hospital is not only a benevolent but an absolutely essential work. If no private individuals undertook this work, the Government would have to undertake it. But if the Government undertook it, the absurdity of levying taxes on the buildings of the hospital would be obvious. Even the wayfaring man could see that in order to pay these taxes other taxes must be levied if the work of the hospital was to go on without interruption. Moreover, if the hospital was managed by Government, the managers would be salaried officers appointed by the Legislature according to established political custom. But under private management no salaries are paid, and the managers have no inducement to assume their responsibilities except devotion to the public welfare. The expense of maintaining the hospital would, therefore, be greater, and experience is conclusive that the management would be inferior. It is easy to see which system would be preferred by politicians; but it is difficult to see how the public can have any hesitation in the matter. The hideous abuses that have taken place in the city hospitals in New York ought to warn its poor of the nature of the tender mercies of politicians.

The case of the college differs in no essential point from that of the hospital. If private benevolence did not establish colleges, the State would have to establish them, and it is speaking within bounds to say that the colleges under private management are better than those under Government management. Those State universities which have the largest element of private management are the best, as in Michigan, and those, as in Kansas, in which the Legislature takes an active part, are discredited. No one thinks of imposing taxes on these State institutions, and a very little reflection should be sufficient to convince people that if it is desirable to establish colleges it is absurd to levy taxes on them. The public pays taxes in order to support a system of public schools. If private persons relieve the public from this burden by their benevolence, it seems unreasonable for the public to retort by imposing taxes on the fund which has alleviated taxation.

The claim is made by some municipal governments that the local burdens of

taxation are increased by the exemption of college property. This claim may be conclusively disposed of by asking the people of Williamstown or Amherst if they regard the existence of the colleges in those towns as detrimental. What would these towns have amounted to had the colleges not been located there? What would they amount to if the colleges were removed? If the colleges have increased the population and wealth of the communities in which they are situated, it is certainly a short-sighted policy for such communities to do anything to impair their usefulness. The inconsistency and incongruity of such a policy are well brought out by an illustration employed by Mr. Hoar. In the town of Concord, he says, the State has built a reformatory. The real estate of this institution is valued at $1,285,000, and it is, of course, exempt from taxation, the other real estate in the town being assessed at $2,808,000. The town of Amherst has $2,487,000 of taxed real estate, and Amherst College has $500,000 of exempt real estate. The figures for Williamstown and Williams College are not very different. Is the lot of Concord more desirable than that of Amherst and Williamstown? But the citizens of Concord do not demand that the State Reformatory be taxed; nor would the people of Amherst and Williamstown on sober reflection desire that their colleges should be managed by the Legislature. They would consider that the tax exemptions from which they have been deluded into imagining they now suffer, would then be increased, while the standing of the colleges would inevitably be lowered. The interest of all classes of the people against the politicians is so clear in this instance that it ought not to be difficult to establish it.

A DOUBLE SYSTEM OF LAND TITLES.

According to the Chicago *Tribune*, a good deal of dissatisfaction is felt in Illinois over the adjournment of the Supreme Court of that State without disposing of the "Torrens law" question. The law was approved on May 1 of last year; it was submitted to a popular vote in the county in which Chicago lies in June, 1897, and received a majority of the votes cast. The question was raised as to its constitutionality, and this question was argued last year. There is certainly some reason for disappointment that the court should have found itself unable to decide the question. The only constitutional issue ever raised about the system, so far as we know, was that of the performance of judicial duties by a ministerial officer in the Registry of Deeds; but this is an obstacle which the Legislature was supposed in its latest enactment to have surmounted. It is certainly one in its nature not insurmountable, either by law or by constitutional amendment, for at the worst the judicial duties under the Torrens system may be given to one person, and the ministerial to others, and if it should turn out that the Legislature of Illinois in this case has not succeeded in accomplishing its task, another attempt will no doubt be made. The matter is not of local concern only: the Legislature of Massachusetts recently passed a law for the introduction of the Torrens system in that State. It is as applicable to one State as to another.

The present condition of land titles in the United States is far from perfect, and is the outgrowth of a system peculiar to this country. It is a double system, while in all other countries there is but one. In England the antique régime of private titles without any registration made it impossible to find out under what title a man held possession until he had placed his title deeds in your hands or produced them in court. On the Continent, there is to be found some scheme of registration like our own, but probably nothing equal to it in uniformity and simplicity. When the American system of a county record first became known to the world, it was hailed as a new proof of our ingenuity and of our success in introducing simplicity into the law. It made every transaction relating to land public, and, by the simple device of giving to recorded deeds the effect of "notice" to all subsequent purchasers, it rendered the record title perfectly safe. It was a system which almost seemed to render it possible to dispense with lawyers and law, and there are still places in the United States (mainly, we are sorry to say, in the country districts), where excellent conveyancers are to be found, who have never been brought up to the bar at all, who will work for the wages of a carpenter or bricklayer, and have all the principal titles of their county at their fingers' ends. Indeed, in the country some persons do not go beyond the Register of Deeds, but take the examination of his clerks and his voucher as sufficiently conclusive.

Unfortunately, this ideal state of affairs seems to have been adapted only to thinly settled, rural communities, or to what used to be considered cities. Since our civilization has become mainly urban, we have found defects in our land-title system, the nature of which may be ascertained and understood by any one who will take the trouble to read the advertisements of one of the new title companies, which commends itself to the public by publishing awful examples of what happens to those who rely on the old American systems—how (not to go into technical details) one poor wretch has been turned out of house and home by the mistake of a name; how another has been done out of a fortune by the intervention in the chain of title of a "man of straw"; how a third has been brought to destruction through the existence of an unsuspected lunatic or infant, who, after the lapse of half a century, has suddenly made his appearance, *compos mentis*, or of mature age, to assert his rights. The worst of these stories is that they are true, and they consequently cause alarm among the holders of titles.

To dispel these fears, and give absolute security to holders of land, the title companies offer title insurance, and this title insurance is based on a new system of private registration, in which the history of the piece of land transferred is traced. The title companies invest their capital in a reëxamination of all the land titles in a given locality, and as a result are able to insure them. By this means they have greatly reduced the cost of title examination, and introduced title insurance. This is probably as ingenious a device for getting over the difficulties presented by the growth of the American system as could be imagined, but it is not the Torrens system.

The Torrens system makes the State the absolute guarantor of all titles, and thus the purchaser is secure, not merely of the value of his land, but of the land itself. Although introduced originally in one of the English colonies, in which all land titles were of very recent date, there is no difficulty in introducing it anywhere, as is proved by the success of the title-insurance companies; it merely carries their work one step further. It is entirely a permissive system—that is, no landholder is compelled to bring his land within it unless he desires to do so—and its advocates rely entirely on its intrinsic superiority to the present double system, half worked by the State and half by private corporations, to secure its general introduction.

There is only one reason that we know of that can be suggested for thinking that the Torrens system is beyond our reach, and that is the incompetency, inefficiency, and, possibly, corruption existing in many of the registries. It is said that "searchers" and copyists may be appointed, not because they are qualified by experience, but because they are dependents of Tammany Hall or some other local machine; that the Register himself, or the judicial officer who is to take his place, may be one of the Boys. The argument, however, if valid, goes too far, for these are among the evils from which the present system suffers. Even the title companies get the raw material for their elaborate compilations from the Register's office. Those who have given attention to the subject and who know the high qualifications required for the person placed at the head of the Torrens machinery, wherever it is introduced, are inclined to think that the change would make it impossible to fill this new office with any mere politician, and thus probably

result in helping to take it altogether out of politics. This is a question which every community must decide for itself, and those interested in the matter in other cities can well afford to await the result of the experiment in Chicago, where there certainly cannot be said to be any undue haste in perfecting the necessary legal machinery.

THE BLACK ELECTION LAW.

The more Gov. Black's election law is examined the worse it appears. While pretending to be a bi-partisan measure, it is really quite the opposite. Thus, it provides that the Superintendent, "whenever he deems it necessary, may appoint without nomination, and at pleasure remove, not more than one hundred additional deputies to be employed by him in enforcing the provisions of this act." Every one of these men may be a Republican. It provides also that all deputies "shall be subject to the direction and control of the State Superintendent," who can remove them at pleasure, and assign them to duty as he wishes. All these provisions concentrate power in the hands of the Superintendent, who is to be a partisan Republican. And yet the Governor says that the measure is a necessity because Tammany has violated the bi-partisan spirit of the election laws, which he is determined to uphold!

Again, there is a provision which gives the election deputies superior police powers over the regular city police, making it a felony for the latter to hinder such deputies in their work or to refuse to assist them on demand, punishable by imprisonment for not more than three years and forfeiture of office. The possibilities of trouble in this provision are boundless. Imagine what would happen in one of the east-side election districts were the special deputies to try to oppose the "will of the people" about the polling-place, and to assert their right to supersede and direct the regular police. They would be given what the Boys call a "whirl" from which they would not recover till the returns were in and counted. It is folly to assume that the regular police force is going to yield its authority to such a harum-scarum, undisciplined force as those deputies will be, or that disorderly people about the polls are going to respect their authority. Nothing save disorder and conflict can ensue, under cover of which the fraudulent voting can be carried on more easily than would otherwise be the case.

It is greatly to be desired that the Democrats should raise the question of the constitutionality of the Black election law at once. If it can be so hung up in the courts that it cannot be applied to this year's elections, what now seems to be a serious menace to the public peace on election day will be avoided. The Governor has taken the course which is most surely adapted to cause trouble by selecting as the head of his special election machinery the late Chief of Police, Mr. McCullagh. He thus opposes the deposed Chief to the new Tammany Chief, who succeeded him, giving McCullagh superior powers over Devery and his men whenever it shall please him to exercise them. From this point of view, the appointment of McCullagh is the very one which should not have been made; and if the Governor were not completely blinded by partisanship, he would have recognized that fact. If he wished to cause rioting at the polls, he could not have taken steps better calculated to cause it.

Ex-Senator Hill, quick to improve the opportunity, is out with a tirade against the law which is as violent and artificial in its virtuous indignation as the Governor's special message was. When such a man comes to the defence of pure elections against attacks upon them by Republicans, it is extremely difficult for honest men to take either side in the controversy. When Mr. Hill denounces the measure as "an attack upon Tammany Hall Democracy," and predicts that it will on that account not only unite all Democratic factions, but "arouse a spirit of indignation among fair-minded men of all parties," he simply causes the "fair-minded men of all parties" to take a more favorable view of the law than they had been able to take before he spoke. What he would do with elections if he were to have his way with them we know from long experience. He fought every election-reform measure for years while he was Governor, and crowned his record with the Maynard conspiracy. The less uproar he creates about Gov. Black's conduct, the better chance will there be for the Democratic party to arouse indignation because of it.

That the law is as mischievous as it is unjustifiable, no man can question. Even so excellent Republican authority as the *Tribune* recognizes its defects, and protests earnestly against the conduct of its party's representatives in embodying them in law. That the law will accomplish anything whatever in the direction of pure elections is a manifest impossibility. It will enable both political machines to make the State pay for their gangs of workers about the polls, and this is likely to be the most formidable obstacle in the way of its repeal; indeed, we venture to give warning to the "fair-minded men of all parties" that Tammany's zeal for carrying the law into the courts at once may be cooled by this feature of it. "Why not let the law stand," Tammany statesmen may ask, "so long as we can get several hundred of our workers upon the State pay-roll during registration and election, and can trust to the power of the local police to keep the law from doing us any harm?" Argument of this kind is very powerful in Tammany, and it is not improbable that the Governor had faith in its persuasive influence when he was constructing his bill.

Decidedly the most pernicious influence of the law lies in the fact that it not only makes the State pay for two gangs of machine workers, but gives them admission to the polling-places, even to the precincts within the guard-rails. As these deputies are all to be partisans, selected by the political machines of the two parties, they will be party workers in the full sense of the term, and their admission to the polling-places will, consequently, be a virtual repeal of one of the most beneficent provisions of the secret ballot law under which our elections have been conducted during the last eight years. That law forbids this kind of political vermin to come within 100 feet of the polling-places, and under its operation they have gradually retired entirely from their former business of bribing and bulldozing. Now Gov. Black, in the name of pure elections, brings them back again into the innermost precincts of the polling-places, and makes the State pay them for their services. This is nothing less than a crime against honest elections, and it should deprive the Governor of the support of every honest citizen.

A NEW WAY TO SEE OLD MASTERS.

LONDON, July 1, 1898.

I foresee the day when the bicycle will be as essential a factor in the "new art criticism" as the camera. The modern student has told us that the perfection to which his scientific, or comparative, study of art has been brought is in a large measure due to the railroad and the increased ease in getting from one gallery to another. But surely the independence of cycling insures less distraction, and the loss of speed is compensated by the chance to stop at places in between—for instance, at the little towns and villages of Germany and Italy, where, I understand, so many an unsuspected masterpiece has been discovered, so many a link in a long chain of evidence that proves a painter, never heard of before, to be the most important master in the art annals of his country!

But, seriously, my own experience has convinced me that the visit to the Dutch galleries is best made on a bicycle. There is no more beautiful way of journeying than by cycle, there are no more interesting collections in the world than the Dutch. And so, by taking your machine to Holland and wheeling over its brick highways, or along its canals, and stopping in each town on your route an hour, a day, a week, a month, according to its attractions and your time, you combine two of the most delightful pursuits of our modern life. For the cycler who measures his pleasure by the ground covered, the distance will seem too short. The country is practically all suburbs, and no sooner do the spires and windmills of one town sink on the horizon behind you, than those of the next rise on the sky-line

in front. But if you wish to come to the galleries fresh, you will find this an advantage. Besides, you will want to linger by the way, for the landscape—"the meadows streaked with sunshine and spotted with the cattle, the city twinkling in the distance, the thunder clouds glooming overhead"—is the same that you see in many a Dutch picture, and, somehow, familiar knowledge of their country seems to help you to understand Rembrandt and Hobbema, Ruysdael and Ver Meer, and to bring you into closer sympathy with Franz Hals, Terburgh, and De Hooghe. Fromentin felt that Holland itself was the best of all clues to Dutch art, and even Fromentin must have come to know Holland more intimately had he cycled along its dykes, among its windmills, under its spacious cloud-swept skies.

The perfect season for the journey, of course, is the spring, about Easter, when the fields of tulips lie like gigantic flags on either side the road, and every stolid Dutch cycler you meet has his handlebars wreathed with blossoms, and the air is heavy laden with the perfume of hyacinths. This is the season for Holland, as the time of the rhododendrons is for London, of horse-chestnuts and lilacs for Paris. But the riding is good throughout the summer, when, after all, you have a chance of fewer showers and more sunshine. And the autumn, too, has its possibilities, and this year, it must be remembered, there will be opened at Amsterdam in September what promises to be the most wonderful exhibition of Rembrandts ever made anywhere. Whoever proposes to go to it cannot do better than follow in my wheel tracks. The galleries on the way will be an appropriate introduction or prelude.

I made the journey from London by Harwich and Rotterdam—the Hook of Holland route. You land while the morning is still young and the men and maid-servants are still busy washing the pavements in good Philadelphia fashion, or, rather, in the fashion Philadelphia borrowed from Holland. I had not too much time at my disposal, and I was able to economize it at Rotterdam, where the gallery, though it contains a few paintings and some drawings and prints of interest, is comparatively insignificant. The masterpieces of Holland are not here, nor has the gallery itself the charm, the beauty, the architectural and historical value of the museums of Leyden and Haarlem. An early start, therefore, is possible without scruple, though the loss would be yours should you not stay in the town long enough to see how it is dominated by its great windmill, how picturesque are some of its remote canals.

From Rotterdam to The Hague is a short afternoon's run. A fairly good road goes with the canal to Delft, one of the prettiest, daintiest of all Dutch towns, and another good stretch connects Delft with The Hague, which, in its crowded, noisy main street, where you cannot ride for the people, who walk wherever and how they choose, you think (with Thackeray) "the neatest, gayest little city"; which, in its deserted squares and alleys, you find the town of perfect silence and profound repose it seemed to Fromentin. But The Hague, if you have come to see the pictures, means in anticipation two things only: Rembrandt's "Lesson in Anatomy" and Paul Potter's "Bull." I know of nothing more amusing, in the many contradictions of art criticism, than the contrast between the delight both gave to Thackeray, the amateur, and the disappointment they occasioned to Fromentin, the artist. It is so hard nowadays to see pictures as they really are, and not as tradition has painted them, that we ought to be all the more grateful to Fromentin for having made the task easier for us in Holland. He had the courage to express his disappointment, and I think few honest lovers of art to-day will not share it with him. A vigorous study, a powerful work for a very young man, "The Bull," with its brutal realism, may be. But a picture—no. I have never had a moment's pleasure in it save when I saw it in Mr. Cole's wood-engraving, which seems to retain only its fine qualities. Nor is "The Lesson in Anatomy" a picture. I would not go as far as Fromentin and call it commonplace. Nothing Rembrandt painted could be quite that. But, like the "Bull," it lacks unity; the heads, finely painted as each is, have no pictorial relation; the foreshortening of the dead body is obtrusive in its violence. Had you never seen a Rembrandt, its vigor, its skill, its daring might take your breath away. But compare it with the Rembrandts at Amsterdam, in the Louvre, in the London National Gallery, or, for that matter, with the others at The Hague (for the interest here is not confined to "The Bull" and "The Lesson in Anatomy"). There are several Rembrandts not to be ignored in any serious appreciation of the painter, and, as it is, the most impatient cycler cannot miss his two little pictures of his mother and of a man laughing. And I think, of the other work at The Hague, few can ever forget the fine view of Delft by Ver Meer, in which you see the inspiration of James Maris and the modern school; nor the churches of Van Vliet and De Witte, without whom one wonders if Bosboom would have been; nor the portraits by Franz Hals, overshadowed necessarily in the next stage of the journey at Haarlem; nor the Terburgh; nor the Ruysdaels—altogether enough great and beautiful things to prolong the visit to The Hague for many days.

But when you start again, you will be tempted to think the pleasure on the road as keen as the pleasure in the gallery. There is no more charming ride than from The Hague to Haarlem, with a rest by the way at Leyden. On the outskirts of the capital is the beautiful wood where, when I wheeled through it, the spring was covering the trees with its pale-green leaves, and the ground beneath with its first white blossoms. And beyond, on all sides, everywhere, are the motives of the pictures you have just left. "The country is an etching by Rembrandt. Here is a bit of horizon by Paul Potter with a herd; there a great sky by Ruysdael," or an avenue of trees by Hobbema. And far too soon—it is the only drawback to the journey—you are in Leyden, with its memories of Rembrandt, and its delightful little museum, where the big Regent pictures seem in such perfect decorative keeping. I think it is at this museum that you are first impressed with the dignity and stateliness of these groups, so characteristic of Dutch art. Even when by unknown or unnamed artists, they are always painted in accordance with a certain formula that has a decorative quality as splendid as the convention of the Venetians. I remember at Leyden, particularly, a portrait group of a family, by J. Van der Does, that would simply seem stupendous anywhere save in Holland.

At Haarlem one is conscious only of Franz Hals. He towers in the Gallery as Velasquez does in the Prado. He carries one's admiration by storm. His great swaggering burghers, his Arquebusiers of St. George and St. Andrew, in their doublets and broad sashes and feathered hats, feasting as riotously as the modern members of a London City company, are as beautiful, as elegant, as really great and inspired as the Madonnas of the Florentines or the pagan allegories of the Venetians. Thought is what some critics have found wanting in the work of Franz Hals; he is no thinker, they say. But why should we ask for thought—another word for literary sentiment—from a man who gives us life itself, life in its utmost exuberance, and who paints with a power, a vivacity, a knowledge, a distinction before which one can but take off one's hat in wonder and respect? One looks at the walls covered with the Regent pictures, joyous, animated, full of variety and color, first, perhaps, in sheer amazement at the force of the man, and then with something of exultation in their manly beauty and dignity. I defy any one to turn critic when face to face with them. One may have one's preferences, and though I am told it savors of heresy, I confess mine for those two wonderful groups of his last years, the Governors of the hospitals for old men and women. It seems to me that in his treatment of the five aged, wrinkled women, so elegant, despite or because of their sombre black gowns and deep white collars and prim caps, so calm and so gentle and yet so stately, in color and complexion and character, each face differing so entirely from the others, there is not only more atmosphere than in the earlier pictures, but a fine emotion not common with him. I would not willingly miss the pictures at Amsterdam—there is a thrill of gayety in the very memory of the portraits of himself and his wife; scattered here and there in other galleries are canvases almost as remarkable. But you cannot understand the full extent of his genius until you have been at Haarlem. There, he does not allow you to see anything else, though the entire collection abounds in interest, and the town hall turned into a museum is a building not to be dismissed with indifference.

From Haarlem to Amsterdam you can keep with the canal all the way, and I have no doubt at times the ride has the charm of the rest of the little journey. But for me, unfortunately, it meant rain in torrents. All those big clouds that sweep with such good effect across the skies of James Maris seemed to break over my poor head, and I arrived in Amsterdam a limp, drenched rag, fit object for the laughter and ridicule of the people, whose predominating virtue is not politeness. The average Dutchman—the average Dutch boy, more especially—is as rude as the Dutch weather, and if you cannot stand storms and showers, if you shrink from ridicule, you must leave your bicycle at home and go to Amsterdam in orthodox tourist fashion.

In Amsterdam, the charm of the city to me is in the quiet streets, where, at the windows of the prim, neat brick houses, women, with faces made placid by leisure, sit looking out, for all the world as in West Chester or other old Quaker towns of Pennsylvania; and the wonder of its galleries is Rembrandt's "Syndics." For the single portraits at the Rijks Museum and the Six Gallery one is well prepared. London alone,

with its national and private collections, leaves one little to learn of the greatness of Rembrandt as a portrait-painter. Nor am I forgetting the "Night Watch," perhaps the most bewildering, and inspiring, and disappointing picture in the world. I hesitate to add a word to the mass of criticism and comment already written upon it. If I had but Fromentin at hand, I should quote his exact words, and so shirk all responsibility. It seems insolent to express a doubt about a work that can make even Van der Helst insignificant. In the room where it hangs the other large Regent pictures cannot but efface themselves. That the composition has always been a riddle, that the light study realistically is incomprehensible, matters little. You may be sure that Rembrandt understood composition and light better than his critics, better than Nature. And, besides, the new and entirely original grouping was doubtless an attempt to break away from the accepted convention that with time threatened to grow formal and lifeless in those huge canvases.

It may be that in saying this I have really explained why a picture so powerful, so impressive, should not be altogether successful. You feel in it the experiment. It has not the completeness, the serenity, the dignity, the absolute finality of the "Syndics." This is the masterpiece of Amsterdam—as perfect, as beyond criticism, as the "Meninas" of Velasquez, the "Sacred and Profane Love" of Titian, the "Concert" of Giorgione. I have heard it seriously argued by an artist that no really great, no really perfect, picture can contain more than one figure. But before the "Syndics" his argument must fall to the ground. Rembrandt made no new departure in the grouping; so far as this goes, it differs slightly from many of the Regent pictures. But in the painting of each figure, in the harmony of the group, in the treatment of such lesser details as the pattern of the tablecloth or the panelling on the wall, in the portrayal of character, it is supreme.

The last paragraph of so general an article is no place to discuss, or, indeed, to refer to, the other chief treasures of Amsterdam. And, besides, just now the immediate fact to be emphasized is that it is in this town, where already several of Rembrandt's most important works are found, the coming loan collection will be held. When there is such a nucleus to begin with, some idea can be had of the promised splendor of the September exhibition.

I might add, for the benefit of the cycler, that the return to Rotterdam can be made by the roundabout way of Zaandam, with its hundreds of windmills, the high dyke along the Zuyder Zee, to Hoorn, and so back, by Alkmaar, or else southward from Amsterdam, by Utrecht and Dordrecht. And so delightful is the little journey, from beginning to end, that were there no galleries to visit, I should still recommend it. N. N.

Correspondence.

BI-PARTISANSHIP IN CINCINNATI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "reformers" have possession of the city of Cincinnati. They succeeded in getting the Legislature that went out in May to pass a number of reform measures, the chief aim of which was to sweep away at one blow the old Board of Administration (the local governing body) and to enable the reformers, through their agent the Mayor, to appoint a board of their own choosing. The new board, the B. C. A.—dubbed by the newspapers the A. B. C. Board—while perhaps not as bad as the old one, consists of men who, as statesmen, are by no means of the Gladstonian type. As soon as the board was appointed under the so-called "ripper" legislation, an action in quo warranto was instituted to try their title to the office.

The act contained this clause: "Two of such members, *each of different political parties*, shall be designated to serve one year, two each *of different political parties* for two years," etc. The attack on the law was made chiefly on this score, that it is not in the power of the Legislature to restrict eligibility to office to members of a political party. If the law had read "members, no two of the same political party," there could have been no exception to its constitutionality, and so the Supreme Court held. That part of the law which restricts the choice of the Mayor to those who may chance to be members of a political party, is adjudged to be contrary to the spirit of republican government, and therefore unconstitutional. The Court saves the A. B. C. Board, however. It holds the body of the law valid, and simply strikes out the restrictive clause. This enables the Mayor to make choice from any body of men he pleases, and the mere fact that half of the new body happen to be Democrats and half Republicans does not invalidate the board as at present constituted. But the outcome is rather hard on the Mayor, for he might have appointed men all of his own party, though it need hardly be said that, with the dear, good reformers, party principle (which, translated, means a place in the public service) is of no particular brand. B. G.

Cincinnati, July 12, 1898.

FEDERAL LAWS HELD UNCONSTITUTIONAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have not seen Mr. Hoar's address before the Virginia Bar Association, but your editorial article upon it in your issue of July 14 shows that he has fallen into an error which seems to be not unusual. Marbury vs. Madison was not the only case of a Federal law held unconstitutional before 1864. Mr. Coxe, in his 'Judicial Power and Unconstitutional Legislation' (Introduction, p. 8 *et seqq.*), examined this subject, and it is from him that I take the following statements:

The Reporter's Appendix to 131 U. S. Reports (pages ccxxxv. *et seqq.*) contains a list of laws held unconstitutional, and cites *three* such decisions by the Supreme Court, which are more or less distinctly in point; but the most remarkable thing is that both the Reporter and the Supreme Court (which seems to have revised the Appendix)—as well as now Mr. Hoar—have omitted the case of Dred Scott vs. Sandford. This case, though it has been a subject of endless controversy, did certainly decide a Federal statute unconstitutional, and the statute was, moreover, one not relating (as those concerned in all the earlier cases had done) to the judicial department in particular.

Yours, etc., Wm. M. Meigs.

Philadelphia, July 15, 1898.

THE BRYN MAWR ENGLISH EXAMINATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for June 9, Mr. Henry S. Pancoast criticises as "a positive breach of contract" the spring examination in English for entrance to Bryn Mawr College. The question proposed in the examination reads as follows:

"Give a short account in chronological order of the chief periods in the history of English literature and the chief authors in each period, in so far as such an account may be collected from the books prescribed for this examination."

To his grave accusation Mr. Pancoast has been led—as every reader of his letter must have noticed—by substituting for the only interpretation of which the question admits as it stands written, one of his own making, and then arguing that familiarity with the reading required by the college in preparation for this examination does not enable the student to answer the question so interpreted.

The "required knowledge," he defines as an "exact chronological knowledge of the chief periods of English literature and of the chief authors in each period"; but certainly the question as it stands asks only for such knowledge as may be gained from the prescribed reading. And although he claims that the reading does not contain "such an account," a moment's thought would have shown him that it must contain "such an account as may be collected from" it, however meagre or extended that account may be.

The reading itself has evidently been selected with a view to illustrating the representative periods in the development of English literature; and there can certainly be no reason why the student should not be told (if the questions are not suggested by the reading itself) something of the relation of the authors to one another, of each to his age, and even of the literary significance of the age.

Keeping literally, however, to the words of the requirement, what knowledge is gained from familiarity with the selections alone? In one of two essays on the list of reading, Matthew Arnold reviews Mr. Stopford Brooke's 'Primer of English Literature'; he reviews it in the order in which it is written—of course a chronological order. He comments very briefly on Mr. Brooke's treatment of "English literature from the Conquest to Chaucer"; of Chaucer himself; of the Elizabethan age, and Spenser and Shakspere; and of Milton. After Milton we have his comments on the eighteenth century in its relation to the development of English prose. The arrangement of periods of literature in the 'Primer' is then criticised, and the remaining nine or ten paragraphs of the essay deal with Mr. Brooke's treatment of the representative authors in these periods.

Add to this Arnold's essay on Gray, also required. The candidates, having been asked to read "The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers," know something of Addison, and are intelligently interested, therefore, in the development of English prose, and in Arnold's discussion of the task of the eighteenth century which forms so important a part of this second essay. This discussion emphasizes, moreover, and brings out perhaps a little more clearly by contrast, the poetic charac-

ter of the Age of Elizabeth and of the early nineteenth century.

The knowledge thus gained of the stages in the development of English literature is slight and elementary enough, to be sure, but it is nevertheless a knowledge of chief periods and of the chief authors in these periods. And unless some candidate should prove that with such knowledge, and with the required understanding of "grammar, punctuation, and general arrangement," she yet failed to pass the examination, may we not assume that Bryn Mawr has been consistent and just in the interpretation of this question?

There are grounds on which objections might be made to the question, but they are not those on which Mr. Pancoast has based his complaint. It might be said that while fair and possible, the question is unsatisfactory in that it is too much a question of fact, and has little or none of the suggestive character of the questions in former examinations for entrance to Bryn Mawr. And it is this spirit of suggestion, this appeal to the candidate's ability to think for herself, that characterizes the ideal training in English for college. For the point to be determined ought to be, not how many facts a student shall know, or how much she shall have read, but rather, how she has read it, what she thinks of it, and how clearly, forcibly, and grammatically she is able to express what she thinks.

The school-girl between fifteen and seventeen years old has discrimination and power of appreciation. She has also ideas of her own, and these are developed by exercise. Crude they may be, amusing they may be, clever they often are. But whatever the character of her thoughts on any subject, she should be encouraged to formulate and express them, to arrange her ideas logically, to explain and defend her own point of view. Such training will be helpful to her in all her work through life.

And this is the training emphasized by the requirement of the Bryn Mawr matriculation examination in English. It is to be hoped that nothing will ever happen to alter the character of that requirement.

HELEN J. ROBINS.

PHILADELPHIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Pancoast's letter in the *Nation* of June 9 concerning the Bryn Mawr examinations in English is particularly interesting to teachers of English preparing pupils for those examinations. There were two parts to the composition examination, (*a*) which Mr. Pancoast quoted, and which was based on the list of books in the Bryn Mawr catalogue, and (*b*) based on the list made by the New England Commission. The following is the second part, with which this letter is concerned:

"(*b*) Give a brief account of Burke's character and temper as a statesman, and of the considerations that in political matters most weighed with him, in so far as such an account may be collected from the speech on conciliation."

The "character and temper" might be dealt with with comparative ease, but to expect an average girl of sixteen to eighteen years to write intelligently and logically of "the considerations that in political matters most weighed with him in so far as such an account, etc.," seems to me absurd. Such a question, to the average sub-freshman, would be not only "staggering," as was suggested in the *Nation* of June 30, but paralyzing. It is unreasonable to require such critical ability of young girls as is expected not until the junior year in college. Every college professor knows that the first two college years are taken up largely for the average girl—we must consider the average—in learning how to grasp facts readily and to assimilate them. The girl is not then trained to judge and criticise, because, in the first place, she has not the material for such a process. Criticism implies a background of facts by which to measure and compare. Is it not unreasonable, then, to require a candidate, in her entrance examinations, to display a maturity of mind of which *a priori* she is incapable?

From this special case one is led on to a general consideration which attacks some of the methods in use at Bryn Mawr. If the standard at that college must be "so high," why should not the authorities make it to a degree a graduate college by altogether eliminating freshman work? In that case only girls would go there that wished advanced work—a condition which would exclude the average girl. As the matter stands, girls around Philadelphia select that college because it is near home, and in selecting it they treat it as though it were a college with an ordinary college-entrance standard. The result is that they must "cram," and they are pushed into their freshman year with an impetus from which they never recover. They are worked to death, or else their precocity is developed. The former alternative is lamentable, for nothing can make up for lost health; the latter is abominable. A precocious girl is almost always either a self-conscious bore or a nervous invalid. We do not want precocious girls—we want girls that are developed naturally and in an all-around, womanly fashion. And surely we do not want invalids.

To a careful observer of colleges for women, it cannot but seem that Bryn Mawr aims at a unique position among the colleges, and that her methods are not broad, university methods, such as should obtain in a college like Bryn Mawr. It is surely better to pass well an examination of average difficulty than barely to pass an examination almost beyond a student's power. It is time enough when a girl is in college to find out what she does not know; her entrance examinations should be given her with the opposite aim, in order that she may not be discouraged at the start. I believe this broader method is used by Radcliffe College, and certainly no woman in this country could ask for a higher degree than that of Harvard University.

It would be a pity to believe that a criticism made years ago, when Bryn Mawr was first opened, might still be legitimately advanced now, after the college has had time to adjust itself to its surroundings—a criticism made by a professor then teaching there, viz., that "the course of the freshman year was a course 'on paper,' because the girls were not prepared for the work." If New England schools, public and private—and where are there better schools than in New England?—if New England schools cannot prepare average pupils for those examinations, how much can other schools accomplish? CAROLYN SHIPMAN.

NANTUCKET, MASS., July 14, 1898.

Notes.

Thomas Whittaker's fall announcements include a library edition of 'Cathedrals of England,' with 168 illustrations by Herbert Railton, in two royal octavo volumes; 'The Romance of Glass-Making: A Sketch of the History of Ornamental Glass,' by Walter Gandy; and 'Frances E. Willard: A Story of a Noble Woman,' by Florence Witts.

A translation of Bull's 'Fridtjof Nansen,' by Mordaunt R. Barnard and Dr. P. Groth, will be issued in September by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Still another volume of Victor Hugo's is promised for the early autumn, and there seems no reason to apprehend that the supply of Hugo's works will cease before the demand for them ceases, or even afterwards. The "Master" left behind him a prodigious mass—a sea—of notes, of reminiscences, of scenes from plays, of sketches, and fragments of works. "Océan" was, in fact, the name that he himself applied to these literary remains. In going through them there have been continual surprises and some discoveries. The forthcoming volume of 'Choses Vues' will contain at least three things of a certain importance: reminiscences of the siege of Paris; notes on the Assembly of 1848, recovered by Mme. Lockroy from among the papers of Charles Hugo; and a "True Story" of the execution of Louis XVI. These last pages were written about 1840, and the story was taken down from the lips of an old man who was present at the execution, and whom Hugo met by chance. Of this the *Revue Bleue* remarks, with much justice, that there are few journalists nowadays who would leave for fifty years an interview of such vivid interest at the bottom of a drawer.

We are glad to announce the appearance of the late Prof. George Martin Lane's 'Latin Grammar,' under the supervision of his colleague, Prof. Morris H. Morgan, from the press of the Harpers. Our appraisal of it must wait, but it is easy to see at a glance one distinction which makes the work—severely systematic as it is in presentation—fairly readable; and that is, the idiomatic rendering of the illustrative examples from Latin authors. For this, Prof. Lane had a genius.

From Messrs. Scribner we have the seventh of the eight volumes allotted to Frederick the Great in the beautiful Centenary Edition of Carlyle's Works; and two more volumes in the uniform edition of the Works of James Whitcomb Riley—both of verse, with that mixture of dialect humor and of elevated feeling which alone, among our present generation of poets, suggests the distinction of Lowell. Had Mr. Riley but written less, or suppressed more—he might not have attained to a uniform edition.

Omar has no rest, and on both shores of this continent FitzGerald's transfusion of his Rubáiyát is again brought out in handy form—by William Doxey, San Francisco, in his "Lark Classics," and by Nathan Haskell Dole, Boston. The Californian edition will rank among the best of the minor ones for beauty and carefulness of print. It contains FitzGerald's sketch of Omar, the preface to the third edition, the notes, and some other accompaniments. Mr. Dole's prettily bound book is less attractive on the typographical side, but is unique in facing the English quatrains with a rubricated Latin transla-

tion by the Oxonian Herbert Wilson Greene. This gives it the quality of a curio. There are no notes or variants.

The sixteenth edition of 'Fenn on the Funds,' the great handbook of public debts, etc., has been prepared by the well-known financial writer, Mr. S. F. Van Oss, and is published at London by Effingham Wilson. The editor's work has consisted principally in bringing the tables and figures down to date, but this, in a work of such magnitude and such completeness, is no slight task.

Some particulars concerning 'Industrial Experiments in the British Colonies of North America' have been gathered by Miss E. L. Lord, and are published by Johns Hopkins University. They make apparent the intimate connection believed to exist between the maintenance of the royal navy and the colonial supplies of such naval stores as pitch, tar, resin, turpentine, and masts; all now as obsolete in naval construction as the colonial governments are in the political world.

The 'Life of David Dudley Field,' by Henry M. Field (Charles Scribner's Sons), is to be regarded as a tribute of fraternal affection rather than as a true biography. Mr. Field's career was in many respects very remarkable, and his abilities were admitted to be of the highest order, but many important events in his career are unmentioned here, and his abilities did not produce the results which his brother naturally attributes to them. We cannot discuss the general question of codifying law, but Mr. Field's attempts in this direction are not generally regarded as so successful as they are represented to be in this book. We would not minimize the results of his arduous labors, or question his disinterestedness in undertaking them, but we must recognize the fact that he was more highly honored by the foreign jurists whom he met at conferences and dinners, where his brilliant qualities were displayed to great advantage, than by his professional brethren in this country who were acquainted with his methods of practice. Such a 'Life' as this may find a place in the family archives, but is calculated to mislead the public, both by its omissions and by its misapprehensions.

The fifth volume of the deservedly renowned series, "La Peinture en Europe," has just appeared, and is even an improvement on the last (treating of Belgium), which we noticed in these columns. The authors, MM. Lafenestre and Richtenberger, have spared no pains in making the new volume, 'La Hollande,' as complete and satisfactory as possible. They have in person visited all the works of art, neglecting none of the private collections abounding in Holland. They have consulted the best authorities, and almost without exception have adopted the best views. Indeed, it is hard to imagine what more, in the way of guidance to pictures, the intelligent traveller could demand than is given him here. The hundred excellent reproductions furnish souvenirs of every real masterpiece in Holland—of such as are in private hands, no less than of those in public galleries. All this for ten francs! We can but pray for a speedy appearance of the succeeding volumes.

In the eighth volume of the 'Land of Sunshine' (Los Angeles), nothing is more striking than the article, "The Prince of Impostors," which tells the story of James Addison Reavis, now an inmate of the New Mexico penitentiary for one of the most extraordinary attempts at land-grabbing ever known. The narrator, Will M. Tipton, played a prominent part in the legal pursuit of this unblushing forger, whose manufactured family portraits pleasantly illustrate the story, along with examples of his skill and audacity in garbling or interpolating.

Ex-Secretary Olney's address on the "International Isolation of the United States" gives the historic stamp to the eighty-first volume of the *Atlantic Monthly* (January-June, 1898). Its view of our mission, "not merely to pose but to act," and our duty, "to shake off the spell of the Washington legend and cease to act the rôle of a sort of international recluse," is conformable with this writer's official part in the war (to give it its true name) with England on behalf of Venezuela. This view is not, as the public knows, shared by his late chief, or by his colleague, ex-Attorney-General Harmon. The *Atlantic*, speaking for itself (or at least anonymously), in an article, "The War with Spain, and After," seems to say ditto to Mr. Olney, but a rider at the end, perhaps by another hand, cries halt. "For the Old World's troubles are not our troubles, nor its tasks our tasks, and we should not become sharers in its jealousies and entanglements."

Mr. Horace E. Scudder's withdrawal from the editorship of the *Atlantic Monthly* is now announced as definitive. While retaining his connection with the house of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and devoting himself to important literary work, he yields direction of the magazine to Mr. Walter H. Page, who has for the past year had it in charge during Mr. Scudder's absence in Europe.

After the fashion of the day, the *American Historical Review* for July might have had "Spanish Number" stamped upon its forehead. Prof. W. G. Sumner leads off with a renewed study of a very perplexing subject, "The Spanish Dollar and the Colonial Shilling"—*i. e.*, "What ought the Spanish piece of eight to have been, in weight and fineness, according to the mint laws of Spain, when it was adopted into the monetary system of Anglo-America? and what was it in fact by weight and assay?" The examination chimes in with current moralizing on the causes of the decline of Spain, among the chief of which Prof. Sumner reckons the debasement of the vellon (a silver-copper coin created in 1497), "and the incredible confusion of the laws about coinage in the seventeenth century." Prof. F. J. Turner reviews in an interesting manner "The Origin of Genet's Projected Attack on Louisiana and the Floridas," making especially plain the interaction between France and the United States consequent upon our Revolution. This paper again is closely allied with the "Diary and Letters of Henry Ingersoll, Prisoner at Carthagena [Venezuela]," in connection with Miranda's expedition, now first printed. Jefferson, who was thought to have connived at Genet's intrigue, and to have countenanced Miranda's ambition, furnishes a connecting link between these two episodes. He further figures in an unpublished letter to Gen. George Rogers Clark in 1783, sounding him in regard to a trans-Mississippi exploration such as he afterwards commissioned his brother to undertake, with such famous results. President Tyler's flattering review of Fiske's 'Old Virginia' has for an appendix a note from the Hungarian scholar, Lewis L. Kropf, ridiculing Capt. John Smith's pretensions to veracity so far as concerns his exploits in Hungary, Transylvania, Wallachia, and Moldavia, and taxing him with clumsy forgery in the matter of the grant of arms from the Prince of Transylvania.

In pursuance of the plan of making the *Review* the organ of the American Historical Association, and in return for the subsidy already granted by that body, members are to be supplied gratis with the first and second numbers of volume iv. (volume iii. is just concluded). On the other hand, subscribers not members are urged to enroll themselves as such by paying their three dollars to the Association.

Into the class of the more dainty photographic publications like the *Camera Notes* of this city comes the new Boston venture, *Photo Era*, of which the second number is before us. The form and typography are laudable, and the illustrations excellent—one a landscape print in natural colors.

An interesting but inconclusive and desultory article by Richard M. Meyer, in the June number of *Cosmopolis*, is entitled "Zur Entwicklungsgeschichte des Tagebuchs." The diary, as he would have it understood, is but little more than a century old. He names as the three great masterpieces of the *genre* the journals of Amiel, Hebbel, and the Goncourts; he rather superfluously defends his exclusion of Marie Bashkirtseff. The art of journal-writing is, he maintains, on the decline, and it is only from England or America that a monumental work of the kind can be expected, for these countries alone are "free from the curse of a hampering model." Dr. Meyer confesses that he knows no journal in English written in the grand style, but surely, with all the limitations of definition, Scott's charming volume is entitled to rank beside the overestimated work of Hebbel, however different in quality. Dr. Meyer is not wholly unacquainted with English literature, for he cites with striking inappropriateness Whistler's 'Gentle Art of Making Enemies,' and he is familiar with Bret Harte's (!) 'Innocents Abroad.' Moreover, his perspective in judging English literature is such that he does not hesitate to pronounce 'A Bad Boy's Diary' "eine prächtige Parodie." In spite, nevertheless, of uncertainty and lack of scientific accuracy, this article is stimulating. In it lies the germ of a scholarly book upon an interesting theme, in which the autobiographical records of strongly individualized characters may be classified, contrasted, and made to throw new light upon the psychological history of the period in which they were set down.

A recent number of the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen contains an interesting account of the late Prof. Reinhold Mejborg, whose works on early Scandinavian architecture occupy a high place in literature as well as in science. Mejborg was born in Denmark, in 1845. After teaching in the provinces for several years he settled in Copenhagen, where he attracted the favorable attention of Steenstrup. The rest of his life was devoted to his chosen specialty, in connection with which he made frequent journeys through Denmark, Sweden, and North Germany, examining old buildings and questioning peasants about early customs and the significance of obsolete ornaments and utensils. His most important works are 'Communal Buildings,' 1881, 'Old Danish

Buildings,' 1888, and 'Schleswig Peasant Farms,' 1892. This last book has been translated into German, and has been very favorably received by German scholars. The first two parts of a continuation dealing with Danish peasant farms have been published, and a large quantity of material had been collected, which it is to be hoped will make the completion of the work possible.

The June Bulletin of the New York Public Library is notable for its Calendar of Washington's copy-press letters (236 in number) in the possession of that institution, to which is appended a supplementary list of 440 more in the State Department at Washington; the whole brought together in an index of recipients.

The July Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains, in addition to the record of the recent accessions, a brief list of the "lighter works of travel and observation" in the Philippine Islands and Cuba. An examination of the classified list of additions to the Library leads us to suggest that a more flexible system should be employed, so as to obviate the necessity of having nine unimportant subdivisions each with only a single title. On the other hand, some classes are too comprehensive. No one, for instance, would look for dog stories, or a book on the speed of a horse, under "Agriculture," or Wordsworth's poems under "Drama."

Speaking of Wordsworth, "Dove Cottage" at Grasmere has lately been richly endowed by Prof. Knight with all his editions of Wordsworth's poems, besides many Wordsworth relics and portraits, sketches and engravings, letters and manuscripts. In acknowledging the gift, the trustees of the national museum, as it must now be called, assured Prof. Knight of the thanks which it would bring him "from all parts of England and the colonies, and from the United States of America," and affirmed that Dove Cottage now occupies, "as a goal of pilgrimage, a place in this country second only to Stratford-on-Avon."

Prof. Petrie's volume on Deshasheh, giving the results of his excavations during 1896-'97 among the remains of the Sixth Dynasty, has been issued in London by the Egypt Exploration Fund. Its distribution to subscribers falls in the fiscal year ending August 1. We may remind our readers that a New York State Branch of the Fund has been organized for convenience of membership and distribution, as well as for the apportionment of archæological objects found, a number of which are already in our Metropolitan Museum. A minimum subscription of five dollars entitles one at pleasure to the publications of the Exploration Fund, the Archæological Survey, or the Græco-Roman Branch. The first volume of the last-named division will appear this year, and will contain some 300 quarto pages of facsimiles and text of papyrus fragments from Oxyrrhynchus. The work of the Fund is notoriously important, and is sagaciously conducted. The Secretary of the New York Branch is Charles R. Gillett, D.D., No. 700 Park Avenue, New York city; the Treasurer, Andrew Mills, No. 341 Bowery.

—The meeting of the American Library Association, just held at Lakewood-on-Chautauqua, was equal to the best of the previous twenty-two conventions. Mr. Putnam of the Boston Public Library made an admirable President, conducting the meeting with energy, firmness, and tact. Miss Hazeltine, librarian of neighboring Jamestown, as inspirer of the local committees, had provided for everything with such foresight and efficiency that all material arrangements seemed to go of themselves. The gathering was more numerous than ever before, over 500, and an unusually large proportion attended every session, possibly the effect in part of the studious air of Chautauqua. The programme was, as usual, too full; nevertheless, by skilful management and the omission of papers by absent authors, it was all performed within the time, without any suppression of debate by the Chair. There was, however, too much self-suppression. The whole assembly was unconsciously infected by the chairman's desire to get through in time; some would not rise to speak, and some who rose were concise to the verge of unintelligibility in their fear of delaying the proceedings. It is well that there should be short, crisp talks, condensing all that a man knows of a matter into half that time; it is not well that a subject which requires ten minutes' development should be squeezed into five. A continuance of such condensed mental diet produces an effect on the audience like reading successive articles in a dictionary. But this is almost hypercriticism. The fault was on the right side; the audience was in attendance, not to be amused, but to work, and if at the end of the four days they were thoroughly tired and in a state of intellectual indigestion, there was the opportunity to recover in the "week of rest," which was to take the place of the usual post-conference excursion. Nevertheless, few stayed to rest, though the beautiful neighborhood is calming and the weather was superb. The older members were interested to see how entirely the mechanical side of librarianship, and even the burning matters of fiction, cataloguing, and classification, that occupied so much attention in the early days of the Association, have dropped out of sight. They have given place to questions concerning the relation of the library to the public, particularly to the young, through the schools and otherwise, and to the modern plans for the extension of the library's influence by branches, by museums, by exhibitions and lectures, by travelling libraries. The selection of books, too, and especially the annotation of the titles of the books selected, is now a necessary topic at each convention. And the public-document question is always with us. This was in the general session. But it was amusing to notice how, in the section meetings to which the older questions were appropriately relegated, the hungry members leaped upon such scraps of cataloguing and classification as were dealt out to them. Interest in those subjects has by no means died out.

—Only one novel scheme was brought forward, but that was so revolutionary that no other was needed. Mr. Dewey proposed that libraries should be the distributing agents of publishers, taking orders for books and delivering them at the wholesale price. He would even have the library not merely save to the book-buyers of a town the rent of the book-store, the salary of the clerks, the other expenses, and the net gain of the bookseller, but actually pay the expressage on the books ordered. He pointed out—what the trade journals have long been lamenting—that in country towns and small cities the book trade is almost dead; that the shops in these places are obliged to sustain themselves by selling stationery, sporting goods, and other "notions"; that they have a meagre stock, and no salesmen with any knowledge of literature; that there is a public functionary who, if he is fit for his post as librarian, is able both to assist in selection and to manage the business part of the transaction. The same educational aim that justifies the expenditure of public money for storing and distributing books for public reading would, Mr. Dewey thinks, justify its use to assist private persons to procure there tools of education for private ownership. The end—general instruction—is the same, though the roads to it are not precisely parallel. This proposition met, as was to be expected, with eager objection from the booksellers present. Nor did it get any support among the librarians; it was too novel for some and too socialistic for others. Its advocate could have pointed to the convenient French and German custom of subscribing to newspapers through the post-office, but in a country which has not yet been able to establish a parcels post and a postal telegraph a scheme so nationalistic as this of Mr. Dewey's will not meet with immediate acceptance. One other scheme of the material kind, an indicator charging system that has been in successful use for over two years, was talked of among some of the librarians, but for want of time did not get broached. The next meeting of the Association will be held at Atlanta, under the presidency of Mr. Lane of Harvard College Library.

—The second volume of Prof. A. B. Hart's 'American History Told by Contemporaries' (Macmillan) bears the sub-title "Building of the Republic," and deals with the period from 1689 to 1783. In general, the volume continues the good impression and promise of distinct usefulness made by its predecessor. The topical arrangement is none the less admirable for being familiar. Four chapters, treating respectively of New England, the Middle and Southern colonies, and Georgia, are followed by five chapters on the colonial governments, illustrative of the general principles of colonial control, the executive, legislative, and judicial departments, and local administration. Another group of five chapters, perhaps the most entertaining of all, is devoted to various phases of colonial life, including slavery. Four chapters on the French colonies, the Indians, and the intercolonial wars bring us to the eve of the Revolution. The Revolution is treated systematically, with reference, first, to its causes, as shown in the new conditions of English colonial control, the westward expansion, the Stamp Act and revenue controversy, and the final resort to coercion; second, to its conditions, as determined by the experiences and movements of patriots and loyalists, and the opposing forces of British and Americans; and, finally, to the general course of the war down to the peace of 1783. The 205 extracts under these several heads are almost equally apportioned, as to numbers, among the various subtopics. The selections are pertinent and really illustrative, they are drawn from a wide range, and, so far as we have tested them, appear to be accurately reproduced. As in the preceding volume, constitutional documents and statutes are generally excluded. That a large number of the pieces will seem, to all save specialists, quite new, shows how little attention is ordinarily paid to the literature of the later colonial period. We could wish that room had been found for fuller treatment of the French colonies and the

progress of settlement in the West, as well as for the strictly industrial side of colonial history. Explanation of occasional unfamiliar terms, also, would be helpful. What, for example, is the average reader to understand by an "ozenbrigs Shirt" (p. 299), or by the "neglecting" of the inhabitants of Albany "in Riding their quota of Stockadoes" (p. 209)?

—The centenary of Michelet was kept on July 13 with more or less observance throughout France. A centenary edition of his works will, as is customary on such occasions, mark what may be considered a renewal, or a resurrection, or an exacerbation of the author's literary fame, according to the point of view from which it is regarded. Calmann Lévy has the work in hand, and the first volume is already out. This is the 'Oiseau,' with a preliminary study by M. François Coppée, and some very pretty things he finds to say of his author. It is true, however, that, as with many French compliments, the quality of honey is more perceptible in the mouth than it becomes just afterwards. M. Coppée prepared himself for his work by rereading Michelet entire, and sat down to write, as he says, with his pulses quickened and his mind dazzled. Taine said once: "Michelet est le Delacroix du style"; to M. Coppée the judgment seems inadequate. There were certain resemblances between Michelet and Delacroix: both were passionate souls, "des âmes d'orage," but to compare Michelet to a painter, however great, is to lessen him, for he was before everything a poet and a great poet. And so M. Coppée goes on to point out that Michelet was absolutely the poet when his work lay in the domain of science and of history. He gathered his material far and near, sometimes in very deep mines, but he fused it all in the blast-furnace of his own imagination, and created for us a Middle Age, a new earth and a new sea, new animals and a new sex by his *mens divinior*. All this is an easy thing to write while one's mind is a little dazzled. The second monograph to appear will be 'La Mer,' with a study by Pierre Loti. Then will follow the 'Bible de l'Humanité,' by M. Sully Prudhomme. For the rest of the volumes MM. Berthelot, Gaston Boissier, Michel Bréal, Claretie, Faguet, Anatole France, O. Gréard. Lavisse, Jules Lemaître, Albert Sorel, and a half-dozen others have promised their collaboration. These are eminent names—some of them of high eminence—and whether their juxtaposition with his will increase or diminish Michelet's fame is a question which time will decide.

—Madame Michelet still lives to witness her husband's centenary festival. She has devoted her life for many years to the work of arranging, classifying, and transcribing the great mass of literary material which he left behind him. Michelet had the habit of jotting down his thoughts on any scrap of paper that was at hand, and these hasty notes grew into formless heaps of almost inextricable confusion. Just before he died he said: "I am leaving fifteen years' work for my wife." But Mme. Michelet has already been busy for the twenty-four years which have passed since her husband's death, and her work is as yet unfinished. Whether she ever will accomplish it may perhaps be doubted. One result of it, however, we are likely to see in a volume that is to appear this fall, which will probably show both grace and charm in itself, and certainly in the way in which Mme. Michelet gives it to the world. It is a volume of letters addressed to her more than fifty years ago by her husband before their marriage. This will be the last volume of the centenary edition of Michelet's works, and will be sent to all the subscribers to that edition. Mme. Michelet feels that the book will contain what to her is priceless, and so will not permit it to be sold, but gives it.

—It is quite evident that the Italian Government is convinced that the Church dignitaries had not a little to do with the recent bread riots in that country. A stop has been put to the publication of a number of radical clerical papers, and the diocesan and parochial committees which have been organized throughout the kingdom, in recent years, in the interests of the ecclesiastical propaganda, and the origin of which has been directly ascribed to the initiative of the Pope himself, have been dissolved by Government decree. The editor of the Milan *Osservatore Cattolico*, Don Albertario, who had fled the country, was upon his return immediately arrested, and his trial is awaited with considerable interest. Archbishop Ferrari of Milan, who deserted his post in the midst of the troubles and in spite of the requests of the Government to remain and use his influence for the restoration of peace, will probably be deprived of his exequatur. A letter to him from the Pope has been published in the *Osservatore Romano* in which the Cardinal is mildly censured for his action, but which strongly defends him against the attacks made on all sides. On the other hand, voices favorable to the support of the political authorities are also heard occasionally in the ranks of the Church. A characteristic pastoral letter has been published by Bishop Bonomelli of Cremona, in which the workingmen are warned against participation in socialistic agitation, and the land-owners are urged to treat the laborers with more justice and liberality. The Bishop also takes the clerical press sharply to task for trying to equal the anti-clerical journals in rampant radicalism. This letter is either ignored by the clerical press or is treated with bitter irony.

RECENT FICTION.

Helbeck of Bannisdale. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. The Macmillan Co.

The Crook of the Bough. By Menie Muriel Dowie. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Children of the Sea. By Joseph Conrad. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Tales of Unrest. By Joseph Conrad. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Her Ladyship's Elephant. By David Dwight Wells. Henry Holt & Co.

Folks from Dixie. By Paul L. Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

During the "eighties," the position of great English novelist became conspicuously vacant. George Eliot and Charles Reade, survivors of a famous group, passed away, and the ingenious spirit of Wilkie Collins grew weary of inventing and solving exciting puzzles. Thomas Hardy had a hopeful band of admirers; and persons able to discern the light of genius glimmering through bewildering eccentricities strove to gain for George Meredith a public favor long coldly denied. A young man, Robert Louis Stevenson, was getting talked about as an interesting story-teller, but most of the critics said that his essays were much better stuff than his stories, and, in spite of accumulated evidence to the contrary, some of them are of the same opinion still.

The future was not absolutely dark, yet an impression that one of the sacred national torches had been extinguished prevailed, when a letter from a distinguished statesman announced that it had been caught up by Mrs. Ward and was flaming with a very superior, modern brilliancy through the pages of 'Robert Elsmere.' Then the Elsmere madness swept over the English-speaking world. A form of composition similar to that which the French call a *pièce à thèse* and the Germans a *Tendenz-Roman* got an English habitation and a name—the "subject novel." This was not the first English novel in which the life-drama of a chosen few was involved in and deeply affected by popular movements and general tendencies of feeling and thought; but it was the first notable one in which ideas feebly stirring among the mass directed and dominated the conduct of the few, in which public opinion became private destiny. Writers of some kinds of literature are universally called great, though their readers may ever have been hard to find, but the first credible intimation of a novelist's greatness is the publisher's account-books. None so great, therefore, temporarily, as Mrs. Ward, and none with a greatness of some permanence so assured, if she should continue to identify the personal interests of a group of men and women with the experimental development of current ideas, well-advertised social movements, or even popular prejudices. She has continued, and at intervals of about two years published an opportune novel, always a clever and conscientious exhibition of types of the times. Every one has come to expect a discussion of subjects immediately agitating his own and neighbor's breasts, and to meet people who satisfactorily exemplify all sides. And though Mrs. Ward is under no sort of obligation to fulfil such expectation, it is like trifling with fortune to offer a public tuned to welcome topics of the hour and types, a topic for which the first keen relish was abated in the reign of Elizabeth and a leading character, "Helbeck of Bannisdale," who, even in the Middle Ages, would probably have been an exceptional English Catholic layman. To-day Helbeck stands for himself alone, a person whose views and practices differentiate him almost as sharply from any large number of Catholics as from Protestants and pagans.

The spectre of Rome, always vaguely present to the anxious British Protestant, and haunting the contemptuous Agnostic, is not now positively menacing; and if it were, it would be insult to Mrs. Ward's intelligence and taste to suppose that she had drawn Helbeck as a timely warning. What she probably had most in mind, and wished most forcibly to convey, was a sense of the spiritual battle which a devout Catholic must fight before he can yield to passion so far as to determine to marry a girl who has no religion, no knowledge of or sympathy with religions, but a positive inherited scorn for the Catholic faith, and an impertinent contempt for the rules and ceremonies of the Church. Doubtless many good Catholics have faced a similar situation; and the process by which the inner man might arrive at his solution is a tempting field for psy-

chological exploration. Mrs. Ward has unluckily overlooked or evaded this study of the soul, as she overlooked or evaded it in Elsmere and in the later development of Marcella. A correspondence between Helbeck and his spiritual director, a Jesuit priest, is mentioned, but the substance is not given, and curiosity about the drift of an important conversation, by which Helbeck is persuaded to do something contrary to his convictions, remains ungratified. Once Helbeck tries to explain his religious nature to his impatient fiancée, but the explanation takes the form of confession of experience, punctuated with miracles of that vulnerable sort not often used by Catholics in argument with unbelievers. In the course of the story a wise Cambridge professor asks what the ordinary Protestant knows of Catholicism's treasure of spiritual experience. Mrs. Ward's presentation of Helbeck, of Father Leadham, of two or three nuns and a parish priest, would probably move him to further comment on the poverty and superficiality of that knowledge.

As a picture of a single Catholic drawn from the outside there are, in the book, many imperfect observations and deductions. A man thus cut off by his own will from every worldly interest, sternly indifferent to human beings except as they are Catholics, ascetic, devout, absorbed in the salvation of his own soul, would hardly wish to be a Jesuit, but would yearn for the seclusion and sacrifice of the severer orders, and before middle age would have entered one. Mrs. Ward is herself not exempt from a mysterious horror of the Jesuit, whom she calls the Protestant bogey. Helbeck's unwillingness to attempt to draw Laura Fountain to his faith is, of course, possible, but not probable, and his hilarity over the failures of Protestant missions, his violent speeches against Anglicans, are not characteristic of a Catholic who is also an English gentleman of long descent.

In delineating Laura Fountain Mrs. Ward is on safer ground. She knows the little Cambridge girl intimately, and presents her with a sympathy and thoroughness which give life and some charm to a novel otherwise cold and insignificant. Laura's relations, the Masons, one of whom is an excitable Protestant, not uncommon in her class, take up much space in the tale; they are harsh people, unessential, and made intolerable by their loquacity in Westmoreland dialect. The description of Laura's life with them does not illuminate her character, and one long episode (including the journey to Froswick, the shocking tragedy in the steel-works, and Laura's appearance with the dawn at Helbeck's window) is a singularly dull and tortuous road, which may lead anywhere, yet surprises us immensely by ending in a love scene. All the first volume is an introduction, and yet the intended situation when reached astonishes us. There is everywhere great effort and nowhere commensurate success, except perhaps in descriptions of scenery. Mrs. Ward loves Westmoreland as dearly as did Wordsworth, one of the persons in whom Helbeck took no interest, though it might easily have been in his own wood of Bannisdale that the poet saw

> "A host of golden daffodils,
> Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
> Fluttering and dancing in the breeze."

Miss Dowie, the author of a novel obscurely named 'The Crook of the Bough,' should be an authority on the development and variations of the new woman. Some years ago she showed how safely a girl may traverse the Carpathians alone and in man's attire—an exploit very entertaining for the general public, and doubtless full of profit for aspiring yet timid sisters. Since that time she has vigorously, though less picturesquely, proclaimed that women can do all that may become a man, and has occasionally reported how hard they are trying and how well succeeding. Therefore a conversation, early in her novel, between three of the emancipated promises much information of the sort significantly called "inside." Two friends of Miss Netherdale have been summoned, with dispatch, to hear that she has just received and promptly rejected an offer of marriage. The case was, of course, past advice, but Miss Netherdale, unreasonably agitated by a first offer, sought for opinion. As a milestone marking the progress of women, the discussion is disappointing. Miss Peel, a college-bred person, inquires chiefly into the practical advantages associated with the offer; the second friend (frivolously named "Nettie") contributes illtimed flippancies, and Miss Netherdale has no more novel reasons to give for her refusal than that she didn't care for the man, and that, being blessed with the close companionship of a brother, believed to be rising in the Commons, there had not been enough temptation for a change of state.

A consciousness of failure to characterize by talk may have inspired the expository pages immediately following. Here we are impressively exhorted to observe that when flippant Nettie had left the room, neither of the others said a word about her. This statement, the author is well aware, "must tax belief even to its foundations." Nevertheless, she pledges her word for its truth, and for the even more amazing declaration that women of the "newer code" do not gossip or backbite, that "honor" is their beacon-light, and that their modesty and delicacy are of a "snow-white," "gossamer-fine" quality unperceived of their grandmothers, happy (poor things!) in the practice of crude, conventional virtues. Ungrateful though it may be to question authority, we are obliged to point out that the red-hot haste of a "gossamer-fine" to tell about an offer excites distrust, and that the grandmothers to whom good instinct and good taste always dictated reserve about such intimate affairs, appear to the impartial to lose nothing by comparison.

A much more important incident than this confirms the sad suspicion that, whatever the new woman represented by Miss Dowie may be, she is unquestionably "no lady." The chief situation, an excellent one for purposes both of analysis and of dramatic effect, is the admiration conceived for Miss Netherdale by a young Turk, a brilliant and beautiful *aide* of the Sultan. Col. Hassan adores the greatness of England and believes that it rests on the freedom and influence granted to women. Miss Netherdale, clear-eyed, serene, severely clad, full of strange information, is to him England's greatness incarnate, a being superior, remote, whom love in the Oriental sense must flagrantly insult. But the gossamer-fine one falls in love with his handsome person and fine manners, and bids for passion openly, coarsely, in the fashion of common (indeed, lewd) women of all time. The young Turk's point of view is so cleverly taken and the pain of his disillusionment so well rendered, that one is both angry with and sorry for the author who has thrown so good a thing away. In spite of her wild notions about women's duties, functions, etc., and in spite of attachment to senseless compound adjectives, deeper reflection might have saved Miss Dowie from a picture so defamatory, we trust, of the ladies who live by the "newer code." She has in the rough a remarkable talent for description; she sees at once the significant in a landscape or a crowd; she often strikes swiftly at the heart's secrets, at the meaning of a social or political movement. Her natural faculties are, indeed, so unusually good that she ought to take rank in letters; but unless she should learn to reflect, to think about everything from characterization to grammar, she can never rise; such stepping-stones being in her profession imperative for progress towards higher things.

'Children of the Sea' and 'Tales of Unrest,' recent volumes by Mr. Joseph Conrad, show an imaginative power which was never let loose in his earlier long-winded tales of South Sea savages and traders. The former book is an account of a voyage from India to England. There are no sensational incidents, nothing exciting, except a vaguely threatened mutiny and a bad storm, which the *Narcissus* outrode. Everything that happens has happened innumerable times on the high seas, yet the narrative makes an indelible impression, because the narrator appears to be a seaman who knows all about the sea and a ship and sailors of every complexion, and because he has got the poet's trick of heightening and deepening, modifying and exaggerating, producing a harmony of untruth which is a powerful representation of truth. The resemblance to Loti's work is conspicuous, but there is all the difference of race. The Englishman is less sensuous, less sentimental than the Frenchman, more spiritual and also more brutal. Then, Mr. Conrad has no form; he wanders, wavers, does not lead, but is driven. His expression is often effective, yet always too copious. Instead of patiently seeking the one word, he takes the half-dozen that offer themselves. On the other hand, he often takes pains to select one very wrong word, such as "like" for "as" and "lay" for "lie." These are temptations which all good poets have striven to overcome.

To call the volume of shorter tales 'Tales of Unrest' is to understate a case. They are all very tragic, in one way or another quite horrible. One, "The Idiots," might have been done by Maupassant; it has something of that air of imperturbable veracity which gave his writings such authority as might abide in an official edict of Fate. The others are less impressive, hardly more agreeable, yet all have much power and some meaning, some question about the inscrutable mystery and enduring pain of life.

'Her Ladyship's Elephant' is an uncommonly smart little comedy, and the adjective may be taken in both the English and the American sense. The principal characters, including the elephant, are refreshingly unconventional; so are the knot and the catastrophe; yet the development is a respectful acknowledgment of the ancient conventions and traditions of light comedy. Nobody with a proper feeling for quality cares whether the incidents of a comedy are true or not. The only requirement is that they shall be

funny and seem probable for the moment. Therefore the author's note about the elephant is unnecessary. He is as an elephant unimpeachable, and as an instrument for reuniting long-separated, distressful lovers uniquely perfect. The facts of the situation are of no importance. Mr. Wells's manner is just appropriately light, not flippant. He takes the ironical view of serious misfortunes, in the shameless American way. His English is an international blend. Some pages bristle with phrases sacredly British; others are recklessly American. Mr. Wells is obviously an idle story-teller, scornful of serious intentions; he is probably funny because he cannot help it, and not with set beneficent purpose. Nevertheless, a tale which again and again excites spontaneous laughter is such a boon that its author must consent to be regarded as a benefactor of his kind without responsibility.

In his stories of Southern negro life Mr. Dunbar seems not to have made the most of his opportunity. From him, "the first negro poet," as Mr. Howells has said, "to divine and utter his race," one looked for something deeper, a more intimate revelation of his people's life. The revival experiences and 'possum pleasantries which make up the greater part of the book, are well given, but the thing has been done before with quite as much sympathy and success. Once, indeed, Mr. Dunbar touches upon a situation, as yet unexploited in fiction, over which one could have wished him to linger, so full is it of fresh interest, of real pathos: the position of the negro who, cultured beyond the usual attainment of the white, goes to live and labor among his submerged Southern people. The isolation, the two-fold alienation, the discouragements, of such a one are suggested in "The Ordeal at Mt. Hope," but in its execution the story disappoints by trailing into the feebleness of a temperance tract. For the most part, however, the stories are of excellent workmanship, nor is this pining for what is not, in Mr. Dunbar's book, anything but an appreciation of his ability to become a truer exponent of his 'Folks from Dixie' than he has shown himself in his present volume.

DUNNING'S ESSAYS.

Essays on the Civil War and Reconstruction and Related Topics. By William A. Dunning. Macmillan. 1898.

Of the seven essays in this volume, all but one—that on "The Process of Reconstruction"—have already seen the light in periodicals and elsewhere. The last paper, on "American Political Philosophy," has only remote connection with the others; the interest of the book, therefore, is with the first six papers, in which Prof. Dunning treats of the constitutional aspects of the Civil War and Reconstruction. For the most part, the study of the constitutional history of the United States has ended with the war of the rebellion; the later characteristics of our constitutional development, with its profound modifications of older principles, have been but cursorily examined even by legal writers, and little attended to by others. Prof. Dunning's essays, although intending nothing beyond a discussion of certain important topics, have, nevertheless, a distinct and appreciable unity, and form a valuable and welcome contribution to the history of the United States since 1861. It is in the two papers on "The Constitution in Civil War" and "The Constitution in Reconstruction" that the author's point of view is most clearly presented, and it is to these that the limits of space will compel us mainly to confine our attention.

From a constitutional standpoint, the position of the Federal Government, at the outbreak of the civil war, was one of peculiar difficulty. A written constitution, presumptively of no great flexibility, but with obligations not to be ignored, had now to be followed, if possible, under conditions which its framers could not have foreseen, and for which, in any case, they could hardly have been expected to provide. The law of self-preservation demanded that the Union should not be dissolved; but to discover constitutional means of holding it together was not at once easy. President Buchanan, approaching the subject from a strict-constructionist standpoint, could reach no other conclusion than the familiar one that "a State had no right to secede, and the Federal Government had no right to prevent it from seceding." So far as this theory was concerned, however, the secession of South Carolina was the beginning of the end. Accordingly, in the absence of Congressional determination, it devolved upon President Lincoln to announce a theory on which the Government could stand, and in accordance with which the struggle for the preservation of its territorial integrity could be carried on. Shrewdly omitting to assert the right of the Union to coerce a State, Lincoln took his stand on the theory of national sovereignty, denied the sovereignty of any State, even as an historic fact, and laid down the broad principle that "the States have their status in the Union, and they have no other legal status." The war thus became in theory, as in fact, a war for the preservation of the Union; and the measure of the war power was to be, not the definitions of Constitution and laws, but the rational necessities of the case.

That, in the prosecution of the war, the Federal Government should have taken positions for which no strict regard to either the letter or the historic spirit of the Constitution could afford defence, is, perhaps, not strange. For all practical purposes, as Professor Dunning shows, Lincoln exercised the powers of a military dictator. He proclaimed a blockade of the Southern ports, though to do so involved the recognition of belligerent rights. In response to "a popular demand and a public necessity," he called for three-year volunteers, trusting to Congress to ratify his action. Contrary to precedent and authority, he suspended the privilege of the writ of habeas corpus in advance of legislative determination of its necessity. Not until August 16, 1861, did he issue his proclamation declaring certain States to be in insurrection. No less unwarranted, by any theory of the Constitution hitherto accepted, was the assumption by Congress of power over the confiscation of property and the emancipation of slaves, or its support of the President in the matter of habeas corpus and trials by military tribunals. These acts were, to be sure, defended as falling within the "war power"; but since the "war power," as thus invoked, was only another name for necessity, the defence was inadequate, the question being not whether this or that power could be exercised in a given exigency, but whether it could be exercised at all. On this point Professor Dunning well says (pp. 48, 49):

"The whole subject of extraordinary authority is involved in the determination of such a case as that of Milligan. To maintain that the framers of the Constitution contemplated vesting in any man or body of men the discretionary right to set aside any of its provisions, seems too much like judging the past in the light of the present. To believe that the nation could have been preserved without the exercise of such a discretionary power involves too severe a strain upon the reasoning faculties of the careful student of the times. Two methods may be suggested of reaching a satisfactory conclusion on the question—either to consider that the war wrought a great modification in the canons of interpretation applicable to the organic law, or to recognize the fact that in the throes of the rebellion a new and adequate constitution developed out of the ruins of the old."

If the stress of civil war gave to the Constitution new significance and scope, reconstruction subjected it to a perilous strain. The essay in which Professor Dunning has discussed the constitutional aspects of reconstruction is, in many respects, the ablest in the volume. The triumph of the North having put an end to the old theory of State sovereignty, it remained to define the rights of a State under the new order of things. Lincoln consistently refused to admit that the rebellious States, as States, had forfeited their separate existence; and neither Congress nor the judiciary were at first disposed to differ with him. Lincoln's great desire, accordingly, was "to get something in the nature of a State organization to recognize without being over-critical as to how it was secured" (p. 76); and, in the cases of Louisiana and Arkansas, he succeeded. The key to the struggle between Congress and President Johnson is to be found in the rapidly growing determination of the former not to leave the reconstruction of the South to the whites, as the policies of both Lincoln and Johnson implied, but to make the enfranchisement of the negroes the one indispensable step in the process. When the passage of the Civil-Rights Bill was followed by an attempt to engraft the provisions of the bill upon the Constitution, Congress found itself "obliged to formulate a theory of State status upon which it could rest for support in a decisive struggle with the executive" (p. 99).

The mass of contemporary discussion, as analyzed by Prof. Dunning, shows five theories of reconstruction. The Southern theory admitted that the war had put the constitutional relations of the State to the Union out of joint, but denied that the State was thereby any less a State. The Presidential theory affirmed "the indestructibility of a State either by its own act or by act of the United States Government." In opposition to these, Sumner evolved his famous theory of State suicide, while Thaddeus Stevens chose to regard the rebellious States as conquered provinces, and pointed to the fact of military rule in the South as proof. If reconstruction were to proceed in accordance with either of the first two theories, it was evident that, as difficulties arose, the State would have the benefit of the doubt; if on either of the last two, it seemed necessary to admit that the Union had in fact been dissolved, at the same time that there appeared "no guarantee of political results at all commensurate with the military triumph of the Unionists" (p. 109). The *via media* was found in the con-

gressional theory of "forfeited rights," under which the States were adjudged to be still members of the Union, but, because of rebellion, no longer in normal relation to it. The United States thus became the final judge of the constitutional status of a State; and since, under the Constitution, the United States must guarantee to every State a republican form of government, Congress, as the Federal legislature, assumed the right to prescribe the terms on which rehabilitation should be carried out, and to affix penalties and impose conditions as it should deem proper. That this theory, reasonable as it seemed to many, shortly gave place, under military reconstruction, to a theory essentially that of Sumner, was due less to the desire of Congress for theoretical consistency than to its manifest determination to have its own way; but the theory of forfeited rights has received the sanction of the Supreme Court, and is fundamental doctrine in the great reconstruction decisions.

Prof. Dunning is sparing of comment or reflection outside of the strict limits of his subject, nor does he allow himself to be drawn aside by the many interesting points naturally suggested by his discussion. That the immense widening of the range of the Constitution, so far as the powers of the national Government are concerned, which the civil war and reconstruction brought about should have been accepted with so little dissent by lawyers, is doubtless attributable in large part to the success of the Supreme Court, in such cases as Texas vs. White, in preserving "the continuity of legal development." If, as Prof. Dunning intimates, the position of the Court has sometimes been reached by elaborate argument rather than sound logic, the similarity of form has at least made easy the acquiescence in change of substance. And now that the immediate issues raised by reconstruction have been laid, the Court still feels its way to an adjustment of private rights by the aid of the same theory of enlarged Federal powers which emerged from the exigencies of a national convulsion. One needs no better illustration of this than to consider how the present attitude of the Supreme Court towards Trusts and trade combinations, or its decisions regarding State control of traffic in intoxicating liquors, would have appealed to a jurist in Marshall's day. Why, under the circumstances, no proposition to revise the Constitution has ever been seriously entertained, might well puzzle the most acute foreign observer.

We have left ourselves no space to speak of the other essays in the volume. They treat of "Military Government during Reconstruction," "The Process of Reconstruction," "The Impeachment and Trial of President Johnson," and the question, "Are the States equal under the Constitution?" We mention them only to indicate the contents of a book which is to be praised as a notable contribution to our constitutional history.

Northward Over the Great Ice: A Narrative of Life and Work along the Shores and upon the Interior Ice Cap of Northern Greenland in the years 1886 and 1891-97. By Robert E. Peary, U. S. N. New York: F. A. Stokes Co. 1898, lxxx, 521 and xiv, 525 pp. 8vo. Ills.

This narrative has been written to supply a complete authentic record of the author's Arctic work, and contains in condensed form all the historical and illustrative material relating to his various expeditions. These comprise his reconnoissance of the inland ice of Greenland in 1886, the north Greenland expeditions of 1891-2, 1893-4, 1894-5, and the summer voyages of 1896 and 1897, which resulted in securing the well-known meteorites of Cape York.

The work consists of an almost exclusively personal narrative, the author stating that he has purposely avoided historical comparisons, and that material gathered in the lines of ethnology, meteorology, geography, and natural history is reserved for treatment in monographic form by expert specialists. This may account for the impression left by the book, that little if any real scientific work, other than geographic, was accomplished during the progress of these explorations; an impression strengthened by the absence of any information as to the amount of such material gathered, or the particular experts who have it in hand for elaboration. Nevertheless, those who not only know the frozen North by hard-bought experience, but have had a training in scientific methods, will be able to glean much of interest and value from this book, and especially from the excellent illustrations from original photographs with which it is lavishly provided. In this respect the work is richer than any previous publication on Arctic exploration.

Certain criticisms suggest themselves at once to the reader, and it is as well to mention them and so have done with what is always the least pleasant part of a reviewer's task. Lieut. Peary would have done well to enlist the assistance of some friend of sound literary training to revise and prune his manuscript, as, for instance, in the case of this paragraph: "Its interior [that of Greenland] is the last of those glacial conditions which for ages submerged northern Europe and northern North America in its icy flood" (p. xxxi). We naturally expect an Arctic traveller to use Arctic terms understandingly, and it is with a certain painful shock that we find Mr. Peary using the words "ice blink" for the Inland ice of Greenland which he has to mention so frequently. By some extraordinary blunder he has come to suppose that this is Danish usage. That our author has no very thorough acquaintance with Arctic literature and work other than his own, is constantly made evident by naïve claims for priority in ideas and appliances which doubtless were original with him, as they had been with other intelligent explorers endeavoring to meet the same conditions long before Mr. Peary's time. For this reason it is a pity that he did not, for his own sake, prepare, even if he did not print, the historical summary so usual in publications of this kind. Furthermore, it may be said that the narrative would have gained in dignity and good taste by the omission of fanciful adjectives applied to Mr. Peary's journeys, etc. The best and most effective portions of the book are those in which the author has forgotten his adjectives. Lastly, the index, though profuse and pretentious, is stupidly made and unreliable, some of the references being to blank pages.

Having pointed out sundry very obvious defects, it remains for us to say that the volumes were well worth publication. They form a record of work of which any Arctic explorer might be justly proud. Following where Nordenskjöld had pointed the way, the author rapidly bettered his instruction. The journey of 1891-2 is one of the most remarkable ever made, and the discovery of the ice-free region peopled with musk oxen, was as unexpected and interesting as any discovery of the last thirty years. The insularity of Greenland had been definitely established by Bessells in his study of the cotidal lines of the coast of Northwest Greenland; but such a demonstration appeals only to the scientific mind. For the general reader the proof is that furnished by Peary. The courage, persistence, energy, and enthusiasm shown by him in his various journeys, successful or unsuccessful, are beyond praise, and will always remain among the examples of the highest Arctic heroism. That his faithful and courageous assistant in much of this work was of African descent is another testimony, if one is needed, to the capabilities of the negro for much that is commonly thought beyond him.

Not the least creditable fact in the record of the explorer is that the expense of his various journeys (apart from generous contributions from private hands) has been in very large part met from his own resources and earnings, though he is far from being a man of wealth. In all that he has undertaken he seems to have been enthusiastically seconded by Mrs. Peary and a circle of devoted friends. Should he do no more than is recorded in these volumes, he will nevertheless have earned an honorable place among the most distinguished Arctic travellers, and shed lustre on his country and her naval service.

Rozas: Ensayo Histórico-Psicológico. Por Lucio V. Mansilla. Paris: Garnier Frères. 1898.

In spite of the Monroe Doctrine, there are few tracts of the world's history so little explored by students and persons of culture in the United States as that of South America. The name of Rosas (thus wilfully changed in spelling from *z* to *s* by himself), it is safe to say, is unknown to the average college graduate in this country; yet he died only twenty-one years ago, in exile in England; his downfall after as many years of Argentine dictatorship occurred in 1852; Darwin met him, on the eve of his tyranny, engaged in his campaigns against the southern Indians, and has recorded his impressions of him in his 'Journal of a Voyage'; and, finally, Sarmiento's 'Civilization and Barbarism' has been before our public in an English dress for thirty years. The nearness of this extraordinary man is shown in the publication of the essay whose title we give above, and which the author would have us view as a sort of relief to his conscience "compromised by long years of discreet silence"—as if the repressive hand of Rosas were still potent, or at least as if the old feud of Federalists and Unitarians were still smouldering. Moreover, he is that Gen. Mansilla (a brother-in-law of Rosas) who stood with Urquiza in the final overthrow.

One who has not read elsewhere the leading facts of Rosas's career, must not look to General Mansilla for a connected relation of them. His object, as his sub-title shows, is quite other: "simply to mark certain salient points in the physiognomy of the epoch"; to be sparing of anecdotes and of names. His Spencerian psychologizing, indeed, fills a large proportion of his pages, but happily his illustrations have involved not a little biography and anecdote, with some authentic

historical documents, both new and inedited. He writes with piquancy, with much candor and a large humanity, extenuating nothing of Rosas's crimes, yet upholding him in his contention for Argentine control of the La Plata River system, and acquitting him of the assassination of Quiroga. (Concerning this captain he has much good to say, anecdotically and otherwise, as against Sarmiento's characterization of him *à la* Alexandre Dumas or Victor Hugo.) He does not conceal the support given to Rosas in the most abject period—when red in clothing and even in house decoration was the prevailing color of subserviency, when the dictator's decrees might almost have been called self-executing—by the most respectable and worthy classes in Buenos Aires. He points out that Rosas was fairly accessible, dispensed with a Pretorian guard, and yet, in spite of his murders and barbarities, never had his life attempted.

Rosas, though brought up among the gauchos, and a true representative of them, was of noble descent, and his indebtedness for his imperious, overbearing traits to his mother is unmistakably shown. Sooner than submit to a war-levy on her mules and horses (in a campaign against her son), she cut their throats. When she made her will, she gave to her orphaned grandchildren more than to her children, who, by Juan Manuel's advice (he was the oldest son), did not contest such discrimination, though it was against the law, as Doña Augustina had been duly informed in drawing up the instrument. Juan Manuel had good reasons for upholding his mother's assertion of her untrammelled right of testamentary liberty. When the old lady shut him up for some disobedience, and put him on bread and water, he broke out of the room at night, to quit the home for ever, leaving nearly every stitch of clothing behind him, and this notice, to whom it might concern, on a slip of paper: "I bequeath everything that is not my own"—a formula to which we are fast being reduced in these days of odious inheritance taxes.

Discursively, in brief chapters, the picture is adumbrated of this man of chaste habit, if not averse to loose conversation; who cared little for books, but worshipped the dictionary, with a passion for adjectives and for nicknames, and cultivated an elegant hand; who was fond of practical jokes, and kept his jesters; who had a mania for uniformity; who persecuted the Jesuits for not placing his portrait on their altars. One cannot read all this—or rather spell it out—without wishing for more and fuller details; and the author's fine face, as shown in the frontispiece, confirms the reader's conviction that it would be delightful to hear him talk from the abundance of his knowledge about those old, bad, shameful, prostrate times in his native country.

Paris. By Émile Zola. Translated by Ernest Alfred Vizetelly. Macmillan. 1898. 2 vols., pp. x, 744.

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of M. Zola's work of late years has been the evidence which it affords of the hard terms on which alone his talent has been intrusted to him. In the present state of opinion in Anglo-Saxon communities in regard to the rights of the citizen against the State, it should not be difficult, in view of a recent *cause célèbre*, to persuade the reading public in this country and in England that M. Zola is a sincere lover and even a devoted champion of civil justice; and in his latest published books, his Trilogy, 'Lourdes,' 'Rome,' 'Paris'—now completed with the appearance of the present volumes—it is frankly as a lover of justice that M. Zola presents himself. But he is strangely, almost pathetically, unable in any forthright way to declare his creed. A direct vision of the beloved object deprives him of half his power of speech. It is only when he turns his back that he possesses his vocabulary. "Tell me what you like," Mr. Ruskin somewhere writes, "and I will tell you what you are." It is only in telling what he dislikes that it has been given to M. Zola to afford an evidence of what he likes and what he is.

Much of all this may be set down, no doubt, to the habits of observation, to the habits of expression, of a literary lifetime. But habits of observation and expression are not ultimate; and the point is that in M. Zola's case the man is interested in one thing, and his talent is interested in another. So long as he is writing in 'Lourdes' of the *débâcle* of religious faith, in 'Rome' of the *débâcle* of the Church, in 'Paris' of the *débâcle* of the régime which faith and the Church prescribe in especial to the upper classes of society—the régime of charity—M. Zola is as "dramatic," as full of invention, as full of resource, as when he wrote of the *débâcle* of the Second Empire, or when he wrote of 'La Bête Humaine.' When he writes of the rise of the city of the perfect (he speaks of it with an optimism significant enough in this connection in view of the general effect of his works on the reader), he abandons drama for disquisition, and for disquisition not the best in its inferior kind.

The Abbé Fromont (Pierre) from whom, in 'Lourdes' and again in 'Rome,' had been wrung the cry "A new religion! a new religion!" is presented in the beginning of the 'Paris' in the midst of an experiment, as the specialists in science would say, in the religion of charity. He is constrained to appeal in behalf of a laborer in distress to one of the great charities of Paris organized and administered by people of fashion. He is sent on slight pretexts from one person to another (it is nobody's business in particular, his little affair), from fashionable house to fashionable house, to the Senate, to the brothel, till the whole of upper and lower-class Paris passes before his eyes; a Paris of infinite intrigue, bribery, debauchery, indecency. It is not until intrigue and worse are enlisted in his cause that he can obtain a serious hearing; and even then the movements of the *beau monde* in what does not concern its own pleasures are so slow that, by the time the assistance requested has been obtained, the laborer for whom it was requested has died of want. This experience is the beginning of the end of the Abbé's change of heart. A Socialist attempt to avenge the laborer's death, the sternness with which society represses that attempt, and the presence and love of a woman, complete the Abbé's conversion, and indeed take him out of the priesthood for good and all, and supply him with a creed of industry and justice and optimism which tacitly he formulates in the closing pages of the story—and which we have taken the liberty of regarding as M. Zola's own:

"In olden times the overburdened slave, glowing with new hope and seeking to escape from his gaol, dreamt of a heaven where, in return for his earthly misery, he would be rewarded with eternal bliss. But now that science has destroyed that false idea of heaven, and shown what dupery lies in reliance on the morrow of death, the slave, the workman, weary of dying for happiness' sake, demands that justice and happiness shall find place on this earth. Therein lies the new hope—justice after eighteen hundred years of impotent charity."

Again, he speaks of "work accepted by one and all, honored and regulated as the very mechanism of natural and social life, and the passions of men excited, contented, and utilized for human happiness"; and says:

"The universal cry for justice which rises louder and louder, in growing clamour from the once silent multitude, the people that have been so long duped and preyed upon, is but a cry for this happiness, that embodies the complete satisfaction of man's needs and the principle of life loved for its own sake, in the midst of every peace and every joy."

And again: "The time will come when the Kingdom of God will be set up on the earth": nay, the Kingdom of God is already immanent in the society about us, and nowhere more evidently, the Abbé attains the point of seeing, than in Paris:

"Over and above all passions, ambitions, stains, and waste, he was conscious of the colossal expenditure of labour which marks the life of Paris, of the heroic labour of hand in the workshops and factories, of the heroic labour of brain of the younger men of intelligence, whom he knew to be hard at work, studying in silence, relinquishing none of the conquests of their elders, but glowing with desire to enlarge their domain. And in all this, Paris was exalted, together with the future that was being prepared within it and which would wing its way over the world like the dawn of day. If Rome, now so near extinction, had ruled the ancient world, it was Paris that reigned with sovereign sway over the modern, and had for the time become the great centre of the nations as they were carried on from civilization to civilization in a sunward course from east to west. Paris was the world's brain. Its past, so full of grandeur, had prepared it for the work of initiator, civilizer, liberator. Only yesterday it had cast the cry of liberty among the nations, and to-morrow it would bring the religion of science, the new faith awaited by the democracies. And Paris was also gaiety, kindness and gentleness, passion for knowledge and generosity infinite. . . . The century ended with Paris, and the new century would begin and grow with Paris. All the clamour of its prodigious labour, all the light that came from it as from a beacon overlooking the earth, all the thunder and tempest and triumphant brightness that sprang from its entrails were pregnant with that final splendour of which human happiness would be compounded.

"Marie raised a light cry of admiration as she pointed toward the city in light of the setting sun: 'Look! just look!'" she is made to exclaim, in pursuance of the allegory that runs through the book, "'Paris is all golden—covered with a harvest of gold.'"

Falklands. By the Author of 'The Life of Sir Kenelm Digby.' With illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

The anonymous author of this essay on the Falkland family is a descendant of Sir Kenelm Digby, and signs his prefaces with the initials "T. L." He insists once more upon the bulk of the review articles which he has turned out, a point we noticed in dealing with a former work, although he now observes that he has escaped the unfavorable criticism of being a reviewer before he is a biographer. Without saying so in a carping spirit, we must refer to the

strangeness of the spectacle afforded by this veteran of the pen in presenting personal confidences. He is quite subjective in disclosing to the world his reasons for publishing, and, having once broken the autobiographical ice, he sketches his method of book-making. This would be naïve were it not for the fact that the habit of criticism becomes so inveterate with reviewers that, in the last resort, they dissect themselves for the benefit of strangers.

Beyond doubt, "T. L." is well equipped for the task of bringing out the lights and shadows of English life during the seventeenth century. We might find some fault with his habit of treating minor authorities with deference, of exalting a gossip like Aubrey too much; but his skill in piecing together scattered hints and bits of information is quite uncommon. He can even keep Aubrey in his place with the titles "scandal-loving and scandal-mongering" when it comes to a question of the latter's word against Clarendon's in the matter of Lucius Cary's connection with Miss Moray. More heinous than his occasional stress upon a poor witness is his citing Drummond of Hawthornden against Ben Jonson, as though he were an independent and impartial critic. No hint is given of the enmity existing between the two, or of the over-effusive friendship from which it was the reaction. "T. L." also does Ben an injustice by corrupting his famous line on Shakspere, which is rendered thus: "He was not for an age but for all time." While dealing with slips and points questionable we must also touch upon a queer footnote to page 32. After quoting Clarendon's phrase, "of inimitable sweetness and delight," "T. L." adds: "It is difficult to understand Matthew Arnold's reasons for changing 'sweetness and delight' to 'sweetness and light.' ('Mixed Essays,' p. 236.)" One would suppose from this, if he did not verify the reference, that Arnold had been garbling Clarendon. On the contrary, Arnold uses his phrase "sweetness and light" in a context quite apart from the 'History of the Rebellion.' He borrows the expression, which in his mouth became so celebrated, from Swift's 'Battle of the Books.' It cannot in any sense be considered a corruption of Clarendon.

From these strictures we pass to the distinctive qualities of the book. Having to follow Clarendon and Matthew Arnold, who both devote their best style to the laud of Falkland, "T. L." does not attempt to produce his effects by fine writing. His shafts of sarcasm, barbed in the *Saturday Review* manner, are frequently well aimed, but anything in the nature of eloquence he leaves severely alone. Though the title has a plural ending, the famous Falkland is the central figure. Parents, brothers, sisters, and wife are brought in, either to explain the moulding of his character or to illustrate its workings amidst certain difficult relations of family life. With the scholar of Great Tew, the host of Chillingworth, Hales, Seldon, Hobbes, Carew, Suckling, and Ben Jonson, we have long been familiar. As the ally of Clarendon and Colepipper at the beginning of the civil war, Falkland belongs to political history. It is neither, however, on the side of attainments nor of public actions that he appeals with fullest force to the present generation. The memory of a character which deserves to be classed with that of Sir Philip Sidney, is what endears him to us now. While disclaiming the wish to shrink from new biographical truth, though it damages an old hero, we are glad to say that "T. L.'s" researches have dulled little, if any, the lustre of Falkland's name. Perhaps he was more lavish in entertainment and in pensioning needy men of letters than, with his limited income, he ought to have been. At least he did not withhold an open purse from his parents that he might live in "cultured leisure" himself. He offered to relieve his father from straits by deeding to him property which had come on the maternal side; an affection for his mother was not broken off even by their religious differences and consequent questions arising from the training of her younger children. The first Lady Falkland became a Roman Catholic; the second was of the high-church stripe, and ultra-religious in her walk for one who has assumed marital duties. Letice Morison, the wife of Lucius Cary, was a sister of his bosom friend, that Sir Henry Morison of Ben Jonson's beautiful elegy, "It is not growing like a tree." In a private station she might or might not have attracted notice. As Lady Falkland she became a target for the praise of devout biographers. 'The Holy Life and Death of the Lady Falkland' is with "T. L." a *pièce de résistance.* He seems to place Letice among the prigs, a class devoutly contemned by *Saturday Reviewers*, though he only admits that he is slashing her foolish admirers. One of the questions inevitably started by a study of Falkland's life is his reason for leaving Great Tew after those five years of scholarly retirement. "T. L." ventures the guess that he was sick and tired of Letice. "Can it be that, while Elizabeth, the wife of the first Lord Falkland, irritated him with her injudicious excellence, Letice, the wife of the second Lord, bored him with hers? I ask this question, but I do not feel in a position to give a definite answer."

"T. L." vindicates Falkland in many respects, and yet he seems to cast aspersions upon him by way of Chillingworth. Falkland can hardly be called so intimate with Chillingworth as he was with Hyde, but they were on very close terms of friendship, and Chillingworth was domiciled at Great Tew for long periods. The accusations of meanness brought against him in 'The Lady Falkland' are very *ex parte*, and will stand a deal of supplement. Over against "T. L.'s" charge that he is a double dealer in religious profession, we would set the weightier dictum of Principal Tulloch: "There are few names, upon the whole, even in a history so fruitful in great names as that of the Church of England, which more excite our admiration, or which claim a higher place in the development of religious thought."

Of Falkland's own virtues we say little, because they are enshrined in two classical passages of English prose.

The Science of Political Economy. By Henry George. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co. 1898.

'Progress and Poverty,' a brilliant book, if not a great book, contained nearly the whole of the author's message to his generation. So far as literary style is concerned, perhaps there was no falling off in his subsequent writings, although in the book before us we can hardly overlook such faults as Mr. George once well knew how to correct. But the matter of his writing was the same throughout—the monopoly of land, its consequences and its remedies. So far as this book has any claim to be regarded as a scientific treatise, it is by reason of maintaining that political economy is little more than a development of that theory. In accordance with this view, all other writers on political economy are criticised, and it is made the corner-stone, if not the sum and substance, of economic science.

But the book has little claim to be regarded as a scientific treatise. It did not receive final supervision from the author; but, allowing for this, it is conceived in an altogether unscientific spirit. It is undeniably made entertaining by Mr. George's sarcastic comments on those modern professors who have succeeded in muddling and discrediting the "orthodox" political economy, without having the ability to construct anything in its place. Of them Mr. George makes fair game, and while they may justly assert that he is prejudiced in his criticisms, they will receive little sympathy. But the whole argument of the book—so far as it consists of argument—is pervaded with pride, passion, and prejudice. Mr. George was so thoroughly convinced of the truth of his theory, so satisfied of its overwhelming importance, that he came to look on himself as an inspired prophet, and on those who resisted him as deserving only to be cast forth into outer darkness. In short, he had become excessively wise in his own conceit, and extremely bitter because the world did not take him at his own estimate. This will abundantly appear from a few quotations:

" 'Progress and Poverty,' although it has already exerted a wider influence than any other economic work written since the 'Wealth of Nations,' is not so recognized, not being even alluded to in the elaborate history of political economy which, on account of the utter chaos into which the teachings of that science have fallen, takes in the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' the place before accorded to the science itself" (p. 120, note). "This work was the most thorough and exhaustive examination of political economy that had yet been made. . . . 'Progress and Poverty' has been, in short, the most successful economic work ever published. Its reasoning has never been successfully assailed, and on three continents it has given birth to movements whose practical success is only a question of time" (p. 203).

But as the professors could not afford to discard the theories in which they had been trained, and yield to a man "who had never seen the inside of a college, except when he had attempted to teach professors the fundamentals of their science," they conspired to ignore, when they did not agree to misrepresent, "a book circulating by thousands in the three great English-speaking countries, and translated into all the important modern languages." It was "not in human nature" for these professors to do otherwise.

"It would not have been merely to accept a new man without the training of the schools, but to admit that the true science was open to any one to pursue, and could be successfully continued only on the basis of equal rights and privileges. It would not merely have made useless so much of the knowledge that they had laboriously attained, and was their title to distinction and honor, but would have converted them and their science into opponents of the tremendous pecuniary interests that were vitally concerned in supporting the justification of the unjust arrangements which gave them power. . . . Thus the professors of political economy, having the sanction and support of the schools, preferred, and naturally preferred, to unite their differences, by giving up what had before been insisted on as essential, and to teach what was an incom-

prehensible jargon to the ordinary man, under the assumption of teaching an occult science, which required a great study of what had been written by numerous learned professors all over the world, and a knowledge of foreign languages."

And thus the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' came to make "no reference whatever to the man or the book that was then exerting more influence upon thought and finding more purchasers than all the rest of them combined."

While this tone of angry self-appreciation, which rings throughout the book, is apt to rouse more antagonism to the author than sympathy for him, we must recognize certain merits in this exposition of political economy. In its clever illustrations of principles, in its fresh views of old doctrines, and its trenchant criticisms of accepted formulas, it often shows the author's powers at their best. The fundamental fallacy of Socialism, its disregard of the importance of superior directive ability in industry, is clearly recognized, and the dangers of irredeemable paper money are pointed out. Teachers of political economy will get many suggestions from the book; but it is safe to say that the public will not care for it, and that Mr. George's fame will rest on his first book, and that alone.

Some Colonial Homesteads and their Stories. By Marion Harland. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The author of this volume deserves credit for the industry with which she has collected the materials for an account of the best-known colonial estates and made out of them a readable book. The houses themselves are equalled and in many cases rather overshadowed by the enormous establishments of the *nouveaux riches* of our day; but the stories will remain interesting national and family possessions for all time. The book is profusely illustrated, and, but for certain vagaries of style and speech peculiar to the author, is well enough written. It is rather surprising to hear personages called *notabilia* (p. 24), and "judicial" reader (p. 115) is apparently used as equivalent for judicious. So, calling a farmer a "bovine" host (p. 282) seems a little singular. But these are evidently individual eccentricities, which come from choice or prosaic license. The real merit of the work is in the stories, and here, as usual, we find there are no friends like old friends. An attempt, not wholly successful, is made to persuade the reader that the Virginia houses are as important as the Northern homesteads. The real life of Virginia in its prime was political and practical, and the most interesting legend is still that of Pocahontas, who was not a colonial dame. Brandon, both Upper and Lower, Westover, and Shirley are so dealt with as to leave us cold, though locally and genealogically the accounts given here have an interest of their own. The New York manors are better, though the early Livingstons and Van Cortlandts and other great landowners are not very closely connected with the world of letters and history. It is not till we get to New England and begin to read about the Williams house in Deerfield, and the extracts from the story of the old colonial divine's captivity and sufferings among the Indians, that we feel that we are fairly in the main current of events. What makes the past interesting here is not lands nor plate, but the tradition of human civilization and character, the drama of human life preserved in the record of those who have risen above what the author would call the bovine throng. The legends of the Province House, which Hawthorne made his own, are wisely omitted.

In a book like this there is necessarily a great deal of genealogy, of all sorts, which we do not pretend to weigh or pass upon. But it is worth noting that much of it is not to be beaten anywhere in the world. Thus, the Byrds of Brandon are descended, by tradition, from Le Brid, who "came over" with William the Conqueror; the Livingstons sprang from a Hungarian root; and if the Williamses of Massachusetts do not deduce their pedigree from Brutus, the grandson of Ascanius, the son of Æneas, it must be from lack of proper spirit, for the pedigree goes with the name in Wales. Recent as the stream of American tradition is, those families which have maintained a semblance of corporate existence have in most instances some colonial ancestor who was a man of real mark; and if we smile at the genealogical passion and mania in others, we all know that our own genealogical tree deserves to be respected. The only difficulty (and that is what our modern colonial pedigree-hunters are rapidly finding out) is, that democracy and equality applied to genealogy produce strange results. To have a colonial ancestor was the first requirement, but it is better to be descended from a baron of Runnymede, and still better from a king. The ancients traced their descent to gods—a resource from which religious reform has fortunately cut us off. In recalling the interesting stories of two centuries ago connected with the settlement of this country, we cannot help putting down as a snob and "un-American" any one who desires to go further back in any American line than the first stout adventurer or religionist who braved death and disaster in a thousand forms to found a new home in a new world, and transmitted to those who bear his name a possession which not even Populists can take away.

Filson Club Publications, No. 13. Walker's and Gist's Journals, 1750 and 1751. Edited by J. Stoddard Johnston. Louisville, Ky. 1898. Large 4to.

The continued and well-directed activities of the Filson Club give us in this volume a far more complete and satisfactory account than has hitherto appeared of the first and second recorded explorations of Kentucky and adjoining territory, respectively by Thomas Walker and Christopher Gist. Neither of these distinct enterprises is novel to special students, but each acquires new significance under competent monographic editorship. Dr. Walker's Journal, though known and often cited from the beginning, was never printed till 1888, when it appeared in Boston at the hands of W. C. Rives, but unfortunately lacking twenty days of the journey through mislaying of some sheets of the manuscript. These having since been recovered, the Journal now for the first time appears in its complete form. Gist was more fortunate in the comparatively prompt appearance of his Journal in Pownall's well-known work of 1776, as well as in its recent republication by Judge Darlington at Pittsburgh in 1888, the latter being the text now preferred by Colonel Johnston.

The two Journals are well mated, as together representing the first fruits of the organized efforts first made in 1748 to acquire and settle lands west of the Alleghanies. Dr. Walker, as representative of the Loyal Land Company, in the spring of 1750 passed through Kentucky in search of suitable lands, from Cumberland Gap northward; and in the autumn of the same year Gist went through Ohio westward to the Great Miami, and thence southward from the mouth of the Scioto through Kentucky. "They were the earliest white men who explored this territory who have left a record of their observations." Gist's report was made to Gov. Dinwiddie of Virginia, and his name has long been linked with that of Washington, who had been selected by Dinwiddie as Commissioner to the French commander at Venango; the two men were together at the victory of Great Meadows, the disaster of Fort Necessity, and Braddock's defeat. Dr. Walker's record has less illustrious associations, though it is of not less historic consequence, and seems to have been more in need of adequate interpretation, to judge by many errors of fact that have sprung up concerning the route, and to say nothing of its previous mutilated appearance.

Col. Johnston is no doubt the best man who could have been found to handle both these journals; his critical work leaves nothing to be desired, and perhaps nothing to be said, hereafter. The routes of both the explorers are traced with the utmost care, and can be readily followed on the sketch-map given. The text of both journals is rigidly preserved, and elucidated with a multitude of explanatory footnotes; and each is preceded by a new biographical sketch of its author, that of Dr. Walker being apparently exhaustive of our knowledge of its subject. Our only word of criticism concerns Appendix B, on Big Bone Lick matters, not necessarily germane to the rest of the volume, and not quite up to the high-water mark Col. Johnston maintains in all other parts of his admirable performance. The whole is fittingly prefaced by the President of the club; it is minutely indexed, is embellished with a handsome portrait of the editor, and is uniform in typographical execution with preceding numbers of the same series, a list of which occupies the unpaged leaves of the end of the volume. All of these are simply indispensable to students of Kentucky history, and none suffer in comparison with the publications of any similar societies.

Servia, the Poor Man's Paradise. By Herbert Vivian. Longmans.

English descriptions of Servia are not common, hence a work like Mr. Vivian's, on the whole fairly well written and containing considerable information about a rather obscure country, is welcome. We may not find that it quite agrees with our previous impressions. Thus, reading the newspapers would hardly have convinced us that Servia possessed "a race of heroes and patriots who may one day set Europe by the ears," and this statement comes from a pessimistic author who declares that, "until I saw Servia, I disbelieved in modern nations." We had supposed the land was fertile, but we are glad to learn that "there are undoubtedly vast mineral resources." If we question the financial stability of the Government, we are reassured, because the fact "that the 4 per cent. guaranteed stock now stands only at sixty-eight is due to the spiteful tactics of the Vienna Bourse." Perhaps the people are a trifle backward, yet it is comforting

that "the Servian peasant of to-day, in the plenitude of his simple satisfactions, is far more to be envied now than when his mind shall have been unsettled by the visions of precipitate progress." Those who remember that the Servians were crushed in their last war with the Turks, and were whipped by an inferior number of Bulgarians, may note that at Slivinitsa they were beaten only because "they despised their enemy." To the question, "What to do with our sons?" the answer is, "Send them out to the Balkan States, where they shall be happy and wealthy and wise!"

Still, without being convinced of the entire correctness of the above, we can learn a good deal from the book. If Mr. Vivian's judgment of Servian politics is too much colored by his ultra-conservative opinions (in English politics he is said to be a Jacobite) to have any great value, in other matters we sometimes find him criticising with a frankness and severity which his more enthusiastic phrases would not have led us to expect. He saw a good deal of the country, he covers ground that is but little known to the outside world, and he has given us a work instructive enough to make it worth recommending to a not too critical public.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bréal, Michel. Un Officier de l'Ancienne France, etc. Deux Etudes sur Goethe. Paris: Hachette.
Bruchmann, Kurt, Poetik: Naturlehre der Dichtung. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Carleton, Will. Farm Ballads. New ed. Harpers.
Chamberlain, Rev. L. T. The State, its Nature, Origin, and Functions. Baker & Taylor Co.
Darlu, A. M. Brunetière et l'Individualisme. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Elvas, Knarf. John Ship, Mariner. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Franklin, Rear-Admiral S. R. Memories of a Rear-Admiral. Harpers. $3.
Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. The Looms of Time. Appletons. $1.
Gollancz, Israel. Hamlet in Iceland. London: David Nutt.
Howells, W. D. Stories of Ohio. American Book Co. 60c.
Jefferson-Davis, Varina A. A Romance of Summer Seas. Harpers. $1.25.
Lane, Prof. G. M. A Latin Grammar for Schools and Colleges. Harpers.
Moffett, Cleveland. True Detective Stories. G. W. Dillingham Co. 25c.
Potwin, Prof. L. S. Here and There in the Greek Testament. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Bowhill, Maj. J. H. Questions and Answers in the Theory and Practice of Military Topography. With Working Plans. Macmillan. $3.
Rubâiyât of Omar Khayyâm. Rendered into English Verse by Edward Fitz-Gerald and into Latin by Herbert Wilson Greene. Boston: N. H. Dole.
Schirmacher, Karthe. Le Féminisme. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Shields, Prof. C. W. The Reformer of Geneva: An Historical Drama. Putnams. $1.25.
Texte, Joseph. Etudes de Littérature Européenne. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Thackeray, W. M. Barry Lyndon. [Biographical Edition.] Harpers. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 28, 1898.

The Week.

It must be said that the course of the war has been lucky for us. We do not mean that luck accounts for the magnificent work of the navy or the stanch bravery of the army, but that we have had the good fortune to appear to be doing with great success just what we set out to do, when, as a matter of fact, we have not been doing that. The capture of Havana was our announced great objective at the opening of the war, yet we have not sent a soldier or fired a gun against that city. This would have sadly lowered our military prestige, had not good luck thrown in our way the opportunity to strike such telling blows elsewhere. And now that their effect is passing, we set out briskly for Porto Rico, on what will undoubtedly be another successful expedition, and are in a fair way to heighten our reputation for vigor and efficiency, while we are saying nothing whatever about our original intention to take Havana out of hand. No concealment is now made at Washington of the fact that a campaign against the Cuban capital, if one has to be undertaken, will not be attempted before autumn. The army is not ready; and if it were, it would be madness to send it against Havana in midsummer. That is one lesson of the Santiago campaign which is writ too plain to be disregarded. But imagine the mortification it would have cost us if we had had to go on drilling and waiting, with Blanco challenging us to come on. Dewey, and Cervera's flight to destruction, and the splendid results at Santiago have saved us from that, and now we are off to Porto Rico, and Watson is perhaps about to sail for Spain, and we shall get more "glory" and possibly peace without having to capture Havana at all.

One advantage of the military government set up in Santiago is that it gives the authorities a free hand in dealing with the tariff. The rates proclaimed and now in force are substantially the old Spanish minimum tariff. This would have been, of course, illegal if the territory had been formally annexed and put under civil government. As it is, military administration of a conquered province avoids conflict with the constitutional provision that all imposts throughout the United States shall be uniform. That the change is an excellent one for the residents of Santiago is already evident. The price of flour has fallen to little more than one-half what it was under Spanish rule before the war. The former Cuban tariff on flour was, in fact, one of the most flagrant examples of Spain's deliberate misgovernment of the island. In order to play into the hands of a Spanish monopoly, the rates on flour coming from other countries were made about five times what had to be paid on flour imported from Spain. As a matter of fact, flour has long been imported into Spain from this country, and then reshipped to Cuba and sold at a profit, the duties being ingeniously arranged to make this possible. Of course, the Cuban had to pay two prices for his bread, but what did that matter as long as the great principle was maintained that the colonies exist only for Spain to bleed? It was an instance of the blind and hideous misgovernment which lost Cuba to Spain; and the prompt undoing of this fiscal outrage is really one of the greatest blessings which Cubans have reaped from the presence of our army in the island.

Now those in the confidence of the President are telling us that this military government of Santiago is the norm of the government which is to be extended over the whole island, as we occupy it, as well as over Porto Rico and the Philippines, as long as we hold the latter. Mr. McKinley still talks of turning over Cuba to the Cubans, but admits that many years must elapse before it can be done with safety. Meanwhile, the military government will be continued. But is it generally perceived what this means on the tariff side? It means the giving up of the principle of discrimination in favor of American goods in vast territories under the American flag. It is the policy of the "open door." The door is open now at Santiago, and it will be open in Porto Rico and at Manila. Yet this momentous change passes almost unperceived. Suppose President Cleveland had suggested ten years ago taking Cuba by American arms and devising a system by which the goods of all nations could freely compete with our own in Cuban markets—what howls would have arisen! Mr. McKinley would have been chief howler. But now, as we say, all this goes as a matter of course. The real reason for this gentle acquiescence is, of course, that our manufacturers and exporters know they can control the Cuban market without any discrimination in their favor. Take away the other fellow's discrimination, and they ask no more. No doubt this is the case. No doubt the same thing is the case in the American market. It is not yet frankly confessed there, though it may be in time. At any rate, the confession has been made in respect to Cuba, and that alone is enough to leave the American protective system standing before the world an empty shell.

The call issued by the Civic Federation of Chicago for a national conference to discuss our foreign policy will evidently meet with attention. The danger will rather be that the response may be too overwhelming, and the directors of the conference will need to exercise great judgment in securing the expression of the best opinion, or they will be drowned in a flood of oratory. The difficulty is that the subject is extremely vague and undefined, and unless it is subjected to analysis and the manifold questions involved clearly distinguished, very few people will talk to the point. In Congress the advocates of an imperial policy absolutely declined to answer inquiries as to what it involved. They said that such questions related to matters of detail, and that such bridges could be crossed when we came to them. Some of them said that the Almighty was clearly leading this country, and that we had nothing to do but to accept His guidance. Others said that the American people always decided right, and would decide questions of colonial policy right as soon as they arose. All of them agreed that the American people could do anything it set out to do, and that it was unpatriotic to intimate a doubt concerning its goodness, its wisdom, or its abilities.

The less that is heard of talk of this kind at the conference, the better. We have had a great abundance of it without much enlightenment, and it is now time for clear-cut and positive propositions. Let the conference ask if the Declaration of Independence was a true statement of human rights or a tissue of falsehoods. Let it inquire whether it is a lie that men are created equal, and decide whether only such people have a right to govern themselves as the American people regard as sufficiently intelligent and virtuous to do so. Let those who favor an imperial policy be compelled to say whether our new subjects shall be compelled to work by penal statutes, as they now are in Hawaii, or whether they shall be as free as American workmen. Let them say whether protection or free trade shall prevail in our new possessions, and whether the Catholic orders shall be deprived of the temporal rights which they now enjoy. Let them tell us how much the expenditure of the general Government is to be increased, and what additional taxes are to be levied in order to provide this revenue. If the conference will take up specific questions like these, its results may be of the greatest value to the country, and we sincerely hope that it

may be so conducted as to compel its speakers to face the actual problems of legislation that confront Congress.

The London *Economist*, without professing particular concern for our future, or assuming to advise us, points out what we involve ourselves in if we undertake to acquire remote territories. Commenting on the annexation of Hawaii, it remarks that it is, for good or for evil, a revolution in American history. The annexation of alien peoples over-sea and unfit for self-government is not in harmony with the spirit or letter of our institutions. That is a plain matter of fact. "Either unfit and semi-savage people must be endowed with the same rights as those held by American citizens, or they must be helots; they must be a *ruda indigestaque moles*, governed against their will by officials whom they will probably hate, and so forming a new class outside the true life of the republic." Add to this that if the United States interferes in European and Asiatic affairs, "Europe must and will interfere in American affairs, North and South." But no nation can sit down at table with the great Powers of Europe without being heavily armed. After the civil war was over, our immense armies were disbanded at once; but if we seize possessions over-sea we cannot disarm. "At any moment a dangerous revolt might arise in regions far away, or an indiscreet official might involve the American Government with the Powers of Europe." Hence we must increase taxation to maintain these forces, and the powers of the central Government must be enlarged. Against all this is to be offset a possible increase of trade with China. It is for the American people to decide if the possible gain is worth a revolution in their system of government.

Decidedly the most curious development of the war is the contract of our Government with a Spanish steamship company to transport the Santiago prisoners of war to Spain, and yet it seems to be in every way an advantageous arrangement. In the first place, it makes for peace in the mere fact that it is an amicable business transaction between two hostile Powers. In the second place, it rids the American Government of all responsibility as to the treatment of the prisoners during the voyage. Surely Spaniards cannot complain to us if their own countrymen do not treat them well after signing a formal contract to do so on their own terms, and in consideration of money paid to them by us. In the third place, we get the job done at about half the price which other companies were willing to do it for, which will save the Government a good many thousands of dollars. In the fourth place, we shall need to send with the transporting steamers no protecting convoy. All we need get assurance of is that they reach their destination, and that will be an easy thing to accomplish. If any accident happens to them on the way, the responsibility will be entirely Spanish.

The statement addressed by Mr. H. H. Hanna to the business men of the United States who have participated in the Indianapolis movement for currency reform, is a very important one at this juncture, coming at the time when the new war bonds are issuing from the Treasury. The success of this loan has been phenomenal, the whole amount ($200,000,000) having been taken in lots of $4,500 or less to each subscriber. The bonds are now at a premium of 4 per cent. and are eagerly bid for by banks desiring to invest their surplus funds or to take out circulation under the national banking act. The premium offered will undoubtedly draw a large part of them out of the hands of the subscribers and lead to an increase of the national bank currency. Mr. Hanna does not allude to the question of the monetary standard. The phrase 16 to 1 has an ancient and fish-like smell, and Mr. Hanna is wise in confining himself to later phases of the money controversy. The subject to which he addresses himself is the bill reported by the House committee on banking and currency shortly before the adjournment of the recent session, and his object is to call the attention of business men to the remarkable progress made during the past two years in uniting public opinion on a specific measure of currency reform. In that period, the need of such a measure having become apparent, the first Indianapolis convention undertook to supply it. The Monetary Commission, of which ex-Senator Edmunds was the chairman, followed. In due time, and after months of painstaking and most intelligent effort, a plan was reported with a bill for carrying it into effect. It was offered to the committee on banking and currency and was adopted in part. Other features were added, and when the bill came from the committee and was found to be unobjectionable, although different in some respects from that reported by the Indianapolis commission, Mr. Hanna and his associates put all their energies and all the machinery they had organized at work to secure support for it in Congress and in the country.

What was accomplished in this way Mr. Hanna tells us in the following paragraph:

> "To measure the present condition it is only necessary to say that there is every reason to believe that the President and all the leading Administration Republican Senators and Congressmen, and the 150 members of the House who signed the petition, now stand united in support of the general principles of the committee's bill. There is every reason to believe that Mr. Reed will be an earnest advocate of monetary legislation."

If there ever was an organization for moving public opinion that could give a better account of itself at the end of eighteen months than the Indianapolis monetary convention can, we do not know where or when it is to be found. Mr. Hanna may well congratulate himself and his associates on the results of their labor so far as they have gone. That they will do with equal zeal and intelligence what still remains to be done, we have full confidence. We remark, in connection with Mr. Hanna's statement, that the final report of the Monetary Commission—a volume of over 600 pages, prepared by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin—has just been issued from the University of Chicago press. It is an invaluable work for all students of the subject, and cannot fail to be one of the important sources of our financial and political history.

Mr. A. B. Hepburn's address before the State Bankers' Association draws attention to one of the crying and apparently incorrigible evils of our time—the pardoning of bank defaulters and bank robbers by Governors of States and by the President of the United States. Mr. Hepburn has been at pains to collect statistics upon this subject, not complete for the whole country, but sufficiently so to show what a deplorable condition of things exists by reason of the facility with which these criminals escape punishment after conviction. He first obtained the whole number of convictions in a particular State since 1893, and the terms of imprisonment to which the culprits were sentenced, then the diminution of the sentences by pardon; and from these data arrived at the average term of confinement. In Vermont, the State which deals most rigorously with criminals, the average sentence was for 8 years 2 months and 12 days; the average time served was 5 years and 4 months. In New York the average sentence was 7 years 4 months and 5 days; the average service 3 years and 3 months. A part of this shortening of sentence was due to the "good-behavior clause" of the State law. The worst showing of all is made by the pardoning power of the President of the United States. The average sentence in the courts of the United States during the period was 5 years and 11 months; the actual service was only 3 years and 6 days. Almost exactly one-half of the penalty imposed by the judicial department for bank robbery and defalcation was remitted by the executive department. The chief part of this clemency is exercised in behalf of rogues who have social influence and "pulls." They are men who have held positions of trust in banks and have operated from the inside. They have betrayed the trust reposed in them, and hence have sinned

against greater light than the burglars who, with jimmy and dynamite, have cracked safes from the outside. Their sentences ought to have been longer for that reason. Of the various classes of offenders, they are much the worst and the least entitled to sympathy. Mr. Hepburn has rendered the community a service by calling attention to these discreditable facts.

The great strike which has taken place at the Hoe printing-press works in this city is clearly an attempt to establish the principle of equal pay for unequal men. The Socialists of the Fabian school, who have of late succeeded in persuading some of the English trade-unions to adopt their theories, insist on this principle as essential. They regard laborers as constituting a caste, or a series of castes, between the members of which no distinction must be allowed to exist. To admit that one man shall be allowed to earn more than another by working harder or longer or more cleverly, upsets their schemes. They demand a fixed rate of wages for a fixed quantity of work, disapproving of overtime and the piece-work system, and it is to enforce these demands, as well as to control the taking of apprentices, that the present strike is begun. Mr. Hoe proposes to resist these demands, on the ground that the piece-work system is profitable not only to his firm but to the workmen. Every workman receives a stated sum per diem, no matter what the quality or kind of his work, this sum ranging from $2 to $4. But the men have the privilege of forming themselves into gangs and contracting to furnish a certain number of pieces of machinery in a perfectly finished state at so much a piece. Under this system in 1897 the members of these voluntary organizations added from 6 to 33 per cent. to their regular wages. In one of these gangs, consisting of 55 men, 22 men whose fixed wages were $2.50 a day actually earned at the rate of $3.10; while 11 men who received $2.65 as fixed wages had it increased to $3.67. There must be very strong theoretical considerations to induce men to forego opportunities of this description. The system of apprenticeship in this establishment is too elaborate to be here explained; but, as described by Mr. Hoe to a reporter of the New York *Times*, it is framed in a highly scientific and enlightened manner. The apprentices are carefully selected and trained, having the advantages not only of the practical experience of the shops but of attendance on a night-school provided by their employers. To give up this system and subject the apprentices to the control of the trade-union, is a step for which no good reason is offered.

In spite of the usual opposition of all the bishops, the British House of Lords has voted, nearly three to one, for the bill legalizing marriage with a deceased wife's sister when contracted in the colonies. Such marriages were not necessarily void in the United Kingdom until about sixty years ago, although they were voidable, and frowned on by the church; but they have since been forbidden. It is not easy for us to understand the feeling against such marriages; but it is not easy for any people to understand the peculiarities of foreigners. No one familiar with the customs of the various races of mankind will deny that similar laws have often been efficacious, but it is doubtful if the English law has ever created the desired sentiment. The best evidence of this is to be found, not in the repeated passage of bills legalizing these marriages through the House of Commons, for that House has always known that the bills would not be accepted by the House of Lords, but in the fact that practically all the colonial legislatures have adopted similar measures. Of course, these laws have become operative only with the approval of the Secretary of State of the home Government, which thus recognizes in one part of the empire what it condemns in another. The result has been that the offspring of these colonial marriages have been in England only partly legitimate. They could succeed to the personal property of their parents, but could not inherit land. The bill now accepted by the Lords removes this anomaly, and makes it probable that the English law will soon be altered. The book of Leviticus is hardly likely to be permanently authoritative in such matters.

The latest action of the French Government in the Dreyfus case is as discreditable as anything that went before. The Minister of War, M. Cavaignac, made a declaration on the subject in the Chamber on July 7. He asserted on his honor that Dreyfus was guilty. As an honest man and a responsible minister, he assured the nation that he was positive of Dreyfus's guilt. No doubt he was, but he should have stopped there. Unluckily, he proceeded to give the proofs upon which he rested his conviction. These were (except for some hearsay evidence that Dreyfus had confessed) only three letters, two written in 1894 and one in 1896, the earliest ones speaking of "D." and "that *canaille de* D.," and the later saying that if the writer (supposedly in the conspiracy to steal official documents) was ever questioned about Dreyfus, he should deny ever having had any relations with "that Jew." But, alas for these incontestable proofs, Col. Picquart came out with the statement two days later, addressed to the Prime Minister, M. Brisson, informing him that "I am in a position to prove, before any competent tribunal, that the two documents dated 1894 can not possibly apply to Dreyfus, and that the one dated 1896 has all the marks of a forgery." Worse and worse, next day came Maître Demange, Dreyfus's counsel, asserting that none of M. Cavaignac's documents, whatever their authenticity, were produced at the trial, and that the only evidence upon which his client was convicted was the famous *bordereau*, now so discredited that the Minister of War did not even refer to it. M. Demange also thoroughly riddled the yarn about Dreyfus's confession. All this was before the country, but when an indignant Deputy attempted to get it before the Chamber, the Government moved to postpone the interpellation for one month, or until after Parliament had adjourned. Truly, there are some things which they do not do better in France.

At last it seems probable that those ancient if not venerable duties, the *octroi* taxes, are to be abolished in Paris. They are a survival from the days of walled towns, when cities had to defend themselves against the attacks of the feudal nobility and to raise a revenue like national governments. The economic objections to them are even greater than to tolls on highways, and they would have been abolished long ago had there been any easy way of making up the loss of revenue. But the practice of searching the belongings of every person entering a modern city, with a view to prevent the possible smuggling in of articles of food and drink, is so eminently mediæval as to have induced the French Government to authorize the towns which levy these taxes on certain articles to abolish or at least reduce them. In the case of Paris, authority was given either to reduce the taxes on wine, beer, and cider to a fixed minimum, which would cut off 35,000,000 francs of revenue, to abolish them altogether, which would involve a loss of 58,000,000, or to suppress all *octroi* duties, which would cost 158,000,000. It is proposed by the committee of the Municipal Council which examined the subject to abolish the duties on drinks this year, and the others in 1900. The revenue thus lost is to be regained by increasing the inheritance tax one-half, by levying a tax of 6 per cent. on the annual value of house property, to be paid by the landlord; one of 4 per cent. on the rentals, to be paid by the tenant; and a tax of ½ per cent. on the value of land whether built on or not. Some minor taxes are also to be imposed, but the chief part of the deficit will be made up by the taxes above mentioned. They are direct taxes, and require little administrative machinery for their collection, and while they will be at first severely felt, the benefits arising from the increased freedom of trade and the lowering of the prices of the necessaries of life will much exceed the evils of increased taxation of land.

PEACE AND INDEMNITY.

There seems to be a disposition in some quarters to believe that because we are engaged in a war with Spain, and are likely to be able to impose our own terms of peace, therefore we can make these terms what we please. Accordingly it is now openly said that we shall not only free Cuba and annex Porto Rico, but dispose of the Ladrones and the Carolines, and perhaps the Canaries, and annex or sell the Philippines, and also, after making Cadiz and other Spanish coast towns pay a heavy ransom, shall impose as the price of peace an indemnity which is put anywhere from $250,000,000 to $1,000,000,000.

This view wholly ignores two important principles which have hitherto for the most part governed the intercourse of civilized nations with one another, and which are generally admitted by writers on international law. One is that contributions and indemnities are limited by the necessity which gives rise to them. The other is that the victorious nation must make peace when it attains the object of the war. The idea that one of the objects of a war always is to "make it pay for itself" has not been heard of since Napoleon's time, and it was to his effort to wring out of the European countries which he overran money enough to recoup himself, that his downfall was in great part due. As a recent writer puts it: "Throughout his career he endeavored, with marked success, to act upon the principle of making each war support itself. Contributions as well as requisitions were levied with reckless severity, wherever the soldiers of the Republic and the Empire carried their victorious standards, till at length a French army became as terrible a scourge to the people as were the feudal exactions and seigniorial privileges swept away in consequence of its successes." Modern war is distinguished from the warfare of earlier times in nothing more than the fact that no nation now attacks another with the idea of making a "good thing" out of it. It avows its object when war is declared, and when the object is attained it is ready to make peace.

Halleck, in his discussion of treaties of peace, quotes a number of authorities to the effect that a war must not be continued beyond its lawful object; and in the latest edition of the book attention is called to the fact that some writers who advocate a general right of intervention in the affairs of their neighbors, deem it "a most proper occasion" to intervene when a war "is unlawfully continued beyond the just objects of its inception." The principle, it is safe to say, is grounded upon the fact that any other would be fatal to the peace of the world, which is always the concern of so many more millions than the issue of any particular war. If a nation, having declared war for a legitimate object, were permitted to substitute other and different objects, as it saw fit, and also to enforce these demands by means of ransoms, contributions, and indemnities, there would be nothing to prevent any war from being converted into one for conquest and subjugation, at the pleasure of the successful party; and if the principle of making the vanquished pay for the whole war were once established, this would be always made, if possible, the substituted end of the war. In the present case, for instance, we should be saying that while it is true that we went to war to pacify Cuba, and not for territorial aggrandizement, we must come out of it "whole," even if we have to overrun Spain and all her colonies and hold them and collect their revenue for twenty years.

It follows from this that there is an obligation, binding, morally and in common sense, on the victor, to be ready to make peace when the objects of the war have been attained; and it also follows that in offering peace the victor cannot afford to introduce new and impossible conditions, as that the conquered nation shall pay an indemnity inflated to the point of making the war a profitable operation to the conqueror. This obligation is especially binding in a war undertaken, as in the present case, not for conquest or destruction, but in order to restore peace, order, and prosperity on grounds partly philanthropic. If we were to impose a burden on Spain so great as to produce more wretchedness and misery in that country than we relieved in Cuba, we should be put in a false position before the world. We should, in fact, be playing over again the part of Napoleon when he offset with his rapacious impositions the good he did in freeing Europe from the old régime.

These considerations regarding the probable terms of peace are just now temporarily obscured by the fact that the main object of the war is not yet attained. The Spaniards still hold Cuba, and to get them out of Cuba is the object of the war. If they had originally yielded to our demands, there would have been no war; whenever they are ready to evacuate now or whenever they are driven out, they may fairly call upon us to offer them an honorable—and possible—peace. The question of indemnity will then arise, and the idea that we can make that what we please will be seen to be preposterous. We can hardly imagine anything which would put this country in a worse light than a reasonable suggestion of peace from Spain—a suggestion of terms such as would satisfy reasonable minds—frustrated by our insistence on an inflated indemnity. The Administration must, and no doubt will, remember that no professions of philanthrophy will count for anything in the face of such a demand, and that it would make enemies for us on every side.

No one knows better than Mr. McKinley and the officials who have, since the retirement of Mr. Sherman, managed the State Department so well, that we are bound to keep these considerations in view. When one nation engages in an avowed crusade against another in the interest of good government, it must itself bear some of the burden, and it must see that in enlarging the "area of freedom" in one direction it does not sow the earth with salt in another. There is room for a wide margin between the demands of irresponsible newspapers and any probable terms on which peace can be arranged; and it is worth while to keep always in view to what the extreme theory of our rights in war would lead. The moment any nation attempts to act on the theory that war concerns only the parties to it, it is brought into collision with the fact that it directly concerns all the world; consequently there are on every side limits to what it can do in war; and those limits are fixed by the interests and situation of the whole family of nations. A nation which refuses to recognize this takes arms against the world; consequently, every nation nowadays does recognize it, and so shall we.

JUSTICE BREWER'S WARNING.

As the "impending crisis" in our national policy will very soon arrive, it is of the greatest importance that men of high standing in the community should speak out at once. This is especially true of such lawyers as have made a study of the Constitution and political institutions of the United States. They are better fitted than ordinary citizens to appreciate the fundamental principles of free government and human liberty, and it is incumbent on them as a patriotic duty to give the country the benefit of their wisdom. Public opinion is not yet formed on the question of colonial policy; it needs first to be informed. When intelligent people really understand what this policy involves, they will be more and more inclined to hesitate before adopting it. The recent address of Mr. Harmon before the Bar Association of the State of Ohio was of a nature to arouse serious reflection, and the opinion of Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court of the United States, which has just been given to the public, through an interview, is even more weighty.

It is no doubt true, Justice Brewer concedes, that we may have to take possession of the Spanish colonies in order to compel Spain to make peace. As we overthrow the existing governments we must set up others in their place. We cannot let loose anarchy in the name of humanity. But, having assisted the people of these colonies to set up governments of their own, we should withdraw and let them work out their

own salvation. The reason assigned for this course by Justice Brewer is twofold. In the first place, if we annex the Spanish islands we must rule the inhabitants by force, just as England rules subject races. Her government may be wise and beneficent, but it is arbitrary and despotic. It is not self-government, and our own country has hitherto consisted of self-governing communities. Its Constitution and its laws are framed in accordance with certain fundamental and universal theories of human rights. These rights we have from the beginning pronounced to be inalienable. Our practice has not come up to our theory, but the fact that we have failed to attain our ideal is no reason for turning our back on it. It is not a question of our ability to maintain order in these colonies by force of arms. We are abundantly able to do so, but we cannot govern after such a fashion and maintain the principles of the Declaration of Independence at the same time.

A second reason advanced by Justice Brewer against acquiring colonies is the injury to the country which will follow its transformation into a military power. If we are to have a large army and a large navy, we shall be in danger of getting into trouble with all the world. "It is human nature for an army officer and a navy officer to want promotion, and if it does not come rapidly enough he wants a war to bring it about." As to the Monroe Doctrine, Justice Brewer remarks, it cannot survive the acquisition of the Philippine Islands by this country. If we assume the right to seize territory in Asia, we cannot maintain that European Powers have no right to take territory in America. Mr. Chamberlain's suggestion of an "Anglo-Saxon alliance" Justice Brewer does not favor. He is not one of those who are prepared to abandon our traditional policy. He thinks George Washington's advice is as sound to-day as when it was given. But an arbitrating tribunal which should settle all disputes between this country and England is not an alliance, and such a tribunal should be established.

In addition to these objections, which no one acquainted with the nature of our government can disregard, Justice Brewer makes some suggestions to the religious portion of the community. He says that he has read in a good many religious papers and heard in some sermons that, because we have the best civilization in the world, it is our destiny and our Christian duty to reach out and make other nations accept it. In his view, the best way to make our civilization of value to the world is by example, not by force, especially not by appropriating territory. In this view we think all who believe that goodness cannot be produced by compulsion must concur. If our religious brethren will reflect, they will find the consequences of the doctrine that we must force our civilization on inferior races rather startling. The Spanish have been engaged in work of this kind, with questionable benefit to themselves or the races upon whom they have imposed the Christian religion. We cannot doubt that Philip II. sincerely believed that orthodox Christianity must be maintained in the Low Countries, and felt it his duty to extirpate the heretics; but his policy has met with general reprobation. All the world has been ever since pointing out that Philip's mistake was in thinking it right to make other people accept the religious doctrines and principles of morality which he thought the best, instead of leaving them free to choose what they thought the best. It is true that our religious papers take the ground that we are much more righteous and more enlightened than Philip II., and that the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands are much inferior to those of the Low Countries. Perhaps it would be better to have this judgment pronounced by other nations rather than by ourselves; but, conceding its truth, it is dangerous to infer that we have sufficient righteousness to diffuse it through millions of Asiatics by military force. The agency is not exactly Christian; and we are in danger of losing a good deal of our own righteousness in trying to impose it on our neighbors.

FORCIBLE ANNEXATION.

Señor E. M. Hostos, who is said to be the representative of the Porto Rican Juntas in the United States, had an interview in the *Times* of Friday in which he set forth at considerable length the view that Porto Rico is entitled to decide her own destiny by a fair vote of her people, and that she ought not to be forcibly annexed to the United States without the consent of the inhabitants of the island. "It looks now," he says, "as if my native land is destined to become American territory whether the inhabitants desire it or not, and to this I, as well as many of my associates, can interpose serious objections. I wish, however, at the beginning to deny any reports to the effect that several Puerto Rican Juntas, in foreign countries or in this country, have advised their compatriots to offer any resistance to the United States troops in any manner. I fully realize that an expression of that character made on American soil would be treason, and I am quite sure that no sane person would ever utter it. Should I succeed in obtaining the desired interview with President McKinley, I shall endeavor to impress upon him the fact that if Puerto Rico is to be annexed to the United States, it should be with the consent of its population, expressed through a regular plébiscite. If the majority of the people desire it, we shall all bow to the majority and accept the inevitable."

These views accord with the sentiments in which the American people have been nurtured and in which they still believe. Fortunately for Señor Hostos and his mission, the same views were maintained by President McKinley as recently as last December. In his annual message to Congress, when discussing the Cuban question, he said: "I speak not of forcible annexation, for that cannot be thought of. That, by our code of morality, would be criminal aggression." Yet the announcement was made from Washington last week, apparently by authority, that it was the purpose of our Government to seize the island of Porto Rico and hold it permanently. In other words, we commit the act of criminal aggression which President McKinley eight months ago said was impossible under our code of morality.

This act of criminal aggression, it should be observed, does not consist in the military operation of seizing, but in the political act of forcibly annexing. Given a state of war, our right to seize is unquestioned. Señor Hostos concedes all that can be claimed on that score. The only question in dispute is as to the forcible retention of the island, regardless of the wishes of the inhabitants, after the war is ended. It should be added that the case of Porto Rico is considerably stronger against forcible annexation than the case of Cuba, upon which President McKinley commented with so much energy last December. There has been no rebellion in Porto Rico, no disturbance of the peace internally, and no sign that any party in the island desired our interference. Hence the reason for our presence in Porto Rico at all is merely that we can there strike a blow at the Power with which we are at war. With the inhabitants of the island we have no quarrel except the constructive one that they are the subjects of Spain.

The argument that we need a coaling station in the West Indies at about the place where Porto Rico is situated counts for nothing in the forum of morals. That has been the pirate's argument from time immemorial. Every robber wants something that his victim owns. Mr. F. B. Thurber puts this doctrine in its true colors in a letter which he has just addressed to President McKinley (having favored us with a copy also), advocating the retention of the Philippines. Mr. Thurber looks to the Koran, however, rather than to the Bible, for precepts to sustain it. He says:

> "Production has outrun consumption, and this industrial revolution is at the bottom of the movement of the principal nations to parcel out the territory of the weaker nations as hunters divide their game, to find a market for their wares. 'The Koran says: 'Every man is entitled to as many wives as his right hand can take and hold,' and the nations of the earth are now acting on

this principle, from the little German war-god down."

Reasoning from this analogy, Mr. Thurber, who signs himself in an official capacity as "President of the United States Export Association," contends that we should hold the Philippine Islands in the interest, not of a plurality of wives, but of a surplus of exports. He says that Tennyson's dream of "the parliament of man, the federation of the world," is a long way off. Apparently he would put it off still longer. In the procession of nations where the little German war-god figures, he contends that the Anglo-Saxon race is perforce obliged to take a place, "and it ought not to be at the tail end," he adds.

The rules of morality are not changed by a state of war, but our way of looking at them generally is changed. That which was justly considered "criminal aggression" nine months ago, becomes a laudable proceeding when observed through the smoke of gunpowder. The imposition of a hateful government upon an unoffending people, in violation of our own theories of government, in the teeth of our Declaration of Independence, becomes a very simple matter when the roar of cannon deafens our ears. It is impossible, however, that such inversions of the principles of republican government, such shameless departures from our own declared purposes and intentions, should take place without impairing the love of liberty in our own breasts and producing internal changes most deleterious to ourselves.

CONQUEST AND DEBT.

Before the war began, it was frequently urged that the Cuban question might be settled by an assumption of a so-called Cuban debt of $100,000,000 or $200,000,000—that if Spain could be relieved of this, other questions at issue might be easily disposed of. But there is not, and never was in reality, any Cuban debt, all expenses incurred by Spain on account of the island being lumped together in a national debt. Even when it was distinctly raised for Cuban purposes, it was still made a Spanish obligation. Notwithstanding this, a large part of this indebtedness would never have been incurred had not Spain owned Cuba; and supposing that the war ends in the loss of Cuba, will the claim be put forward that a division ought to be effected, and the new Cuban government be saddled with such a proportion of the whole as may seem fair? Or, on the other hand, will it be maintained that the loss of all Spain's outlying possessions would not affect her indebtedness? Is there any principle applicable to such a case?

Writers on international law do not throw much light on the question, for want of material, but we are inclined to think the want of examples itself is significant. As a general rule the colonies and provinces which have thrown off the yoke of a mother country and succeeded in establishing their independence have not adopted their share of the general debt, partly because it would have been impossible to ascertain it, partly because they threw off the yoke, among other reasons, in order to escape it, and partly because, in order to escape it, they have usually submitted to heavy pecuniary burdens. If, after the American Revolution, it had been proposed that New York should bear a quota of the English debt, the claim could easily have been offset by a production of New York's war balance-sheet. The same thing might be said of the position of the Spanish-American states at the close of their revolt against Spain.

There is one historical case of a division of a state followed by an apportionment of its debt—that of Belgium, which, when it was set up as an independent nation, took over a portion of the Netherlands debt; but the case is not in point, because that was really an arrangement made at the dictation of Europe, and consented to by Belgium, and was looked upon by no one concerned as an illustration of a general principle, applicable to all states.

When a colony or province sets up for itself after a war, there is another reason which usually prevents the question of the apportionment of the debt from arising, and that is that there is no one who can enforce an apportionment. The parent country is powerless, because it is defeated, and the holders of its securities have no means of getting their claims to an apportionment, if any, considered. Hall, in his treatise on International Law, after going over the unsatisfactory discussion of the matter by his predecessors, says that "no doubt the debt of a state from which another separates itself ought generally to be divided between the two, proportionately to their respective resources, as a matter of justice to the creditors, because it is seldom that the value of their security is not affected by a diminution of the state indebted to them"; "but," he adds, "the obligation is a moral, not a legal one."

The case of Cuba differs from any of those to which we have referred, because, although the colony has undertaken to throw off the yoke of Spain, it has not actually done so, but has devolved the task upon the United States. The United States, for reasons of its own, has undertaken to drive Spain out, and to establish a new, free, and independent state in Cuba in its place. When this is done, should the new state coming into existence assume part of the Spanish debt? We have seen that there is really no rule of international law applicable to such a case. Are there any moral considerations which are sufficiently strong to lead to any conclusion?

In examining this question the United States would not approach it as a benevolent despot—that is, as a person clothed with absolute power and a simple desire to do justice. It has an interest in the question. In settling the terms of peace, the possibility of Spain's paying any pecuniary indemnity depends to a certain extent on the disposition made of the debt. It had, according to the census of 1890, the enormous debt of $1,251,453,696, or $73.85 for every man, woman, and child (against $14.63 in the United States), and this debt has since greatly increased. Consequently, if it is to lose Cuba, a main source of revenue, and be still responsible for the whole debt, its ability to pay an indemnity must be very slight. On the other hand, if Cuba were to assume part of it, Spain to that extent would be relieved. But the side of Cuba must also be considered. For what has the debt been incurred? Is the island full of railroads and bridges and magnificent roads, which represent a large portion of the Spanish debt? Not at all. The money has been mainly squandered and wasted in attempts to put down insurrections—that is, in that very misgovernment which has brought on the war. Why should this be saddled upon Cubans, who were certainly not responsible for it? Spain, instead of giving any equivalent for the money which it has been drawing from Cuba to pay the interest on its bonds, has converted half the island into a waste.

We doubt, therefore, whether the sense of justice of those who will have to deal with the question will be satisfied by any arrangement which saddles Cuba with a debt in order that we may get a pecuniary indemnity, but is it not equally clear that all idea of bleeding Spain on both sides at once is out of the question? To take from her her most valuable property, and thus diminish her means of paying her debts, and then to make her pay an indemnity for submitting to the operation, would hardly do.

There have been cases in which a conquering state has taken upon itself a portion of the public debt of the state from which it has seized territory. In 1866 Italy, by convention with France, took upon itself so much of the papal debt as was proportionate to the revenues of the papal provinces. When the United States conquered Mexico and took in a great part of that state, it did not assume part of the Mexican debt, but agreed, "in consideration of the extension acquired by the boundaries of the United States," to pay Mexico $15,000,000. As we had Mexico entirely at our mercy, this was a sort of recognition of the "moral" principle that there should be pecuniary compensation for the absorption of territory which is a possible source of revenue. But in the present case we are conquering, not in our own interest, but with a view to

turning the territory over to the inhabitants. What we give to the Cubans we take from Spain, and so diminish what we can exact from the latter on our own behalf.

THE POSSIBLE SALVATION OF SPAIN.

The French writer M. Yves Guyot recently declared that all enlightened Spaniards of his acquaintance expected that their country would lose, as a result of the war, all its colonial possessions. Cuba and Porto Rico and the Philippines would go, as the great colonial empire of Spain in South America had gone early in the century, and would go for much the same general causes. Yet these intelligent Spaniards, said M. Guyot, do not expect their nation to be ruined, or even desperately impoverished, by the loss. They see in the very woes and disasters of their country the possibility of its political regeneration. Nor is this a mere afterthought, a stubborn optimism determined to distil out the soul of goodness in things evil. Before the war, even before the Cuban rebellion, thoughtful Spaniards not a few said that the colonies were a millstone about the neck of Spain. National pride compelled their retention, but both politically and economically they meant danger and loss to the mother country. That this was the case all along only the more observant could perceive. The events of the war may be expected to force the truth home to even the common mind.

The political mischief wrought by the colonies in Spanish public life is patent. In the first place, the colonial establishments were a standing example of political corruption. Favoritism, dishonesty, peculation, incompetency mountain high, were the chief marks of the colonial service. Unimpeachable Spanish testimony establishes this. Contemporary Spanish fiction has for one of its presuppositions, one of its hackneyed stage devices, that the broken-down politician, the ruined nobleman, the reckless adventurer, had but to go off somewhere *ultramar*, as they call it, to come back in a short time with a fortune. How it was made you must not inquire too curiously. It is certain that it was not made, as fortunes of Englishmen have been made in India (Macaulay's, for example), by high official salaries. The nominal pay was barely sufficient to live on, but somehow the "savings" out of it were enormous. Now of course the effect of all this on public opinion and political life in Spain could be only demoralizing. It put a constant premium on official intrigue and unscrupulousness, and made a life of steady industry and honest dealing seem the fool's choice. Moreover, the science of government by corruption could not be confined to the colonies. The poison was sure to spread from the extremities to heart and brain, and it did.

One way in which the toxic effect was produced was in the creation of what has probably been Spain's greatest political curse—political generals. A governor-generalship in the colonies has long been the greatest prize before the eyes of Spanish military men. This was not simply on account of the opportunities of plunder offered. These were great, and they were too commonly seized, Prof. Worcester, an American who spent some time in the Philippines, asserts it as of his own knowledge that Gen. Weyler, when Governor-General of those islands, deposited $4,000,000 to his private account in the Bank of France. We do not vouch for all these stories of magnificent stealing, but there must be an element of truth in them. One resulting evil has been the building up of the immense political power in Spain of retired Governor-Generals. They go home with their fortunes, however acquired, and at once take to politics. And there is no more sinister figure in Spanish public life than Spanish generals. Weyler and Polavieja and Campos and Daban and the others—these are the men continuing the tradition of military rule from which Spain has suffered so much. Mainly in the colonies they have nursed their power, and with the loss of the colonies much of this power may disappear.

The economic evils of Spain's colonial policy have grown out of the vicious fiscal system under which its colonies were ruled. They were but so many oranges to be squeezed dry for Spain. Now an orange that is always being squeezed will not grow; and a colony that is kept under and mulcted every day for the benefit of the home Government inevitably stagnates. We see at this moment in Santiago the immediate effect of a more enlightened policy. The low rates of duty which were formerly restricted to Spanish goods are now applied to all importations, and trade at once begins to spring up. The price of flour, for example, has fallen to little more than one-half what it was when Spain had a monopoly. And alert business men and capitalists are already moving to develop the wonderful resources of the province left almost untouched under the repressive Spanish system. The manufacturing centres of Spain, which had long made fortunes out of the colonies under the tariffs enacted for their benefit, and which were among the most violent in urging war to retain them, are now foremost in asking for peace. They see that the game is up, as far as they are concerned; and it may be hoped that the final discrediting of the taxing system under which the monopolies of Catalonia have been built up may work out great good for Spain as well as for the emancipated colonies.

These considerations it does not perhaps become the United States to urge upon Spain with effusive unction. It would be too much like telling a man, after taking away from him an outlying farm, that really he would be much better off without it, and that he would cultivate his remaining garden to much greater advantage. But at the same time there is such a thing as recognizing historic causes and the working of general principles; and when Frenchmen like M. Guyot are saying it, and Spaniards of light and leading are hoping it, there is no harm in expressing the wish that Spain may yet find this desolating war a blessing in disguise.

THE STATE AND THE ARTS.

A good deal of surprise has been expressed in the American and English press at the address of the German Emperor to the actors and singers of the Berlin Royal Theatre and the Royal Opera on the tenth anniversary of his accession, in which he dwelt on the importance of their fostering "idealism" and not producing "un-German" plays. But an examination of what he said shows that there was nothing very extraordinary in his remarks, and probably our surprise at them comes chiefly from our not being familiar with the German conception of the relation of the state to the stage. Theatre and opera in Germany are instrumentalities of the state, just as the Roman amphitheatre was in the days of Caligula, to whom the naughty enemies of the German Emperor have compared him; as King of Prussia, he has as much to do with the support of the artists who sing and act in Berlin as his predecessors in Rome had to do with providing salaries for the gladiators. The stage is, as he very justly says, one of his "weapons," and it is a proof that we have made some progress since the time when Rome was the capital of the world that he should have a lofty view of the use he ought to make of it.

In America and England the state does nothing for or with the stage. There are no subventions; there are (at least in this country) no state boxes; theatre and opera are purely private ventures, and consequently there is no reason why the President of the United States or Queen Victoria or Gov. Black should hold forth to actors and singers at all. Such a speech as that made by the Emperor, in which he talks about the stage contributing "to the formation of mind and of character, and to the education of the moral perceptions," would be made in Anglo-Saxondom by a manager. It reminds one, indeed, of the recent address by Sir Henry Irving. The speaker would not, of course, refer to his "lamented father and grandfather," or say anything about "the duty of a monarch," but he would be sure to talk of the necessity of high standards, which is all that "idealism" can possibly mean, and of the necessity of

elevating the stage and making it what it ought to be.

On the whole, considering the historical relation between the theatre and the king, grand duke, or other sovereign potentate in every German state, the Emperor's speech was for him a moderate and enlightened piece of oratory, and it was evidently so received by his audience, on whose behalf Count Hochberg, the General Superintendent of Royal Theatres, said in reply that "it was only under the eyes of the Emperor, and with the aid of his wise counsel and his profound and keen appreciation of art," that the Royal Theatres had been able to attain their present position. And that very likely is true, for the Emperor is a man of very varied tastes and a tremendous art-lover.

The American and English system of private support of art is one of those parts of our ordinary life that are so bred in the bone that we grasp with difficulty the opposite system, so common elsewhere. But there are in America special circumstances which do not exist in any other great country in the world, which seem to give the conception of the arts as cultivated by "the state" the air of grotesqueness. In order to have a connection regularly and naturally established between the arts and "the state," you have got to have a state at the head of which stand one or two eminent personages to whom art is something of the first importance. Now, while there are in America any number of persons of whom this may be said, they do not, as a general thing, figure either as Presidents, Governors, Mayors, or bosses; and yet for such purposes "the state" would naturally be represented by one of these four classes. The question has in this city been brought within the range of practical consideration by the creation of an art commission and the projection of several very important public enterprises, more or less connected with the domain, not, indeed, of theatre or opera, but of taste and letters. The Legislature, very wisely, it seems to us, refrained from giving to the Art Commission any substantial powers except that of criticising and approving or rejecting designs; and the commission was almost altogether made up of distinguished artists or amateurs. That is, the connection between it and "the state," or, what is the same thing in this case, the city, was made as slight as possible.

But in one or two enterprises, otherwise under private control, but designed for public objects of the highest importance, such as the Zoölogical Garden and the Library, appeal must be made to the Mayor to sanction an outlay of money. Our Mayor in this case represents a great public corporation, greater in population and far greater in wealth than the whole country was a hundred years ago. He has a long term of office, and was elected at the very same election which attracted the attention of the whole world and started us on a new career of greatness. When these enterprises, therefore, come before the Mayor, we get a little glimpse of what view "the state" with us would be likely to take of matters of taste, art, and learning. Mayor Van Wyck is a good representative of the state, for he comes from just the class from which all the offices are filled. He is, in his way, the *locum tenens*, the great "stadtholder," of the head of all, who has been racing his horses in England, and who for Greater New York corresponds as nearly as our institutions permit to the Kaiser for Germany. He makes a speech about the Zoölogical Garden and about the Library which shows his idea of the whole subject. He is perfectly willing to give money, but not unless he and Croker can make all the appointments—that is, spoil the whole work. He says that all he wants is that "the city" should have "control," but that is what he means. And that is just what those who are interested in the Zoölogical Garden and the Library and the city want to prevent. In other words, instead of looking on the state as the natural patron of the arts, we have got to the other extreme, and regard it as likely to be hostile to them.

We think that for ourselves our own system is the best. "Idealism" and art, and letters and music flourish better with us under the fostering care of private enterprise, and for our part we would not make any change just now. We had once a "grand opera-house" in New York, with a subvention, too, from its patron, who, if not "the state," helped to control it, but it did not last, and did not even for the time create any enthusiasm among those who wished to elevate the stage. In this field our inherited prejudices are sound, and when the Mayor talks about the importance of the city controlling the Library or the Zoölogical Garden, we recall the proposal of an earlier official of the same school that the statues in the Park should have a coat of whitewash.

EDWARD L. WALTER.

WEST BRANCH, Mich., July 17, 1898.

The recent ocean horror deprives American scholarship of a worthy representative, and the University of Michigan of one of its oldest and ablest teachers. For many years Prof. Walter had been in the habit of spending his summers in Europe, and when he sailed from New York upon the doomed steamer *La Bourgogne* it was no doubt with the nonchalance natural to an experienced traveller. But this time the treacherous deep had marked him for a cruel sacrifice. He was not widely known through his writings, for he had but little literary ambition; but a host of grateful pupils have been shocked by his death, while the inner circle of those who stood nearest him are sadly realizing that they have lost a rare friend.

The late Prof. Walter was born in 1845 at Litchfield, a village of southern Michigan, and passed his boyhood in decent poverty, amid social conditions very like those which might have been found at that time in any rural community of New England. His father was a wagon-maker and for many years the village justice. Young Walter early showed bookish propensities—was born a-readin', as a local wiseacre said of him—and easily found means to get himself ready for college. In 1862 he enlisted as a private soldier, went to the front in the Army of the Potomac, and bore his modest part in the battle of Fredericksburg. Shortly after this he was attacked by a dangerous illness which put an end to his military service. Having recovered his health, he became for a short time a telegraph operator, but dropped this business to enter the University of Michigan in 1864. Working his way through college, he soon distinguished himself as a student, and was appointed even before his graduation to an instructorship in Latin. Soon after receiving his degree he was made assistant professor of Latin under the well-known Dr. Henry S. Frieze, who had befriended him in manifold ways during his college course. In this capacity he taught very acceptably until 1874, when he went to Germany for advanced study in classical philology. Three years later he received the degree of doctor of philosophy from the University of Leipzig, his dissertation being upon the subject of "Rhotacism in the Old Italian Languages, and the Exceptions." The collection of examples made by the diligent young scholar is still useful, but his phonetics would no longer pass muster. He himself never cared to follow up the line of study in which he had won his degree, his interests being altogether literary. As a Latin scholar he read widely and with keen zest, but without ever becoming so hopelessly enamoured of the old Romans that he did not welcome a convenient opportunity which came to him for changing his allegiance. In 1878 he was put in charge of the modern-language instruction at Ann Arbor.

Institutions of high grade no longer proceed upon the theory that any good man who has studied abroad is necessarily fitted to handle college French and German. Even so lately as twenty years ago the appointment of Prof. Walter caused some comment in professional circles. But in this instance no mistake had been made. The manly character and the scholarly mind, coupled with extreme conscientiousness and an unusual gift for teaching, soon made amends for the lack of initial preparation. His department gained steadily in the esteem of colleagues and students; he made the work a *res severa* to every one, a *verum gaudium* to his advanced classes.

For a while the literature of Germany held first place in Prof. Walter's favor, but with his repeated visits to France and Italy he transferred his affections more and more to the Romance languages, and began to look forward to the time when these should be his only official concern. The change came in 1887, when the Germanic languages were set off as a separate department under other hands. Since that time he had kept the even tenor of his way as a lover of books and an inspiring teacher of literature. By his personal qualities no less than by his amazing wealth of knowledge and his remarkable skill in teaching, he had made

himself an academic power of the first rank.

As was said above, Prof. Walter wrote but little—he preferred to read, enjoy, and ruminate. While a very accurate scholar and a keen critic of scholarship, he seldom gave himself the trouble to read a paper before a learned body or undertook even a minor research with a view to publication. He shrank from the bother and the formality of printing—it would not make much difference to the world in the long run, and there were so many more interesting things to do. His friends would sometimes tax him good-naturedly with indolence, but this was not the right word; for while he had a pronounced talent for aimless browsing in good books with choice bindings, and spent much time in the passive absorption of ideas and impressions, he was also given to close thinking, and close thinking is hard work. Nor was it modesty that kept him out of print, for he was a very positive character and wont to express himself in strong language. A favorite play of his humor was to assert vehemently his dense ignorance of the matter in hand, and then proceed to a still more vehement expression of his personal opinion. His temper had more in common with the literary artist than with the philologist; and when he wrote, it was to portray a man or an epoch rather than to mass arguments or establish a thesis. A specimen of his best work is to be found in his Introduction to Mrs. Harrington's translation of Rousseau's 'Contrat Social' (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1893). This admirably lucid and vigorous piece of writing only makes one regret the more that its author should so persistently have hidden his light. Among great writers his earlier favorites were Lessing and Montaigne, but latterly he cared most for Dante. By the attraction of opposites, it would seem, his acute analytic mind found a peculiar fascination, as such minds have often found, in the "mystic unfathomable song" of the mediæval Italian poet.

Prof. Walter never married, but there was little in him of the bachelor recluse. He loved the society of congenial friends and was a welcome guest in many homes. At the same time, his scheme of social duty made but scant provision for the duty of letting one's self be bored; on this subject he held radical views which he would express with characteristic vigor. He was fond of discussion, had a scholar's minute knowledge of half-a-dozen literatures, kept himself well informed upon current events, and had a tenacious memory that brimmed over with anecdote and illustration. He rarely spoke in public, and he imagined that he had no talent in that direction; but for private discourse his talent was immense. His ordinary manner of speech was brusque and impetuous—the mirror of his alert and incisive mind; before the other's thought was fully disengaged he would catch it up eagerly and send it back riddled with controversial bullets, or fortified with some new consideration, as the case might be. In intimate conversation upon graver topics he sometimes assumed the rôle of the genial pessimist, but in the main his view of life was cheery. He found it all intensely interesting. More than once the friend who writes these lines has heard him say, after some prolonged lucubration over the tangle of human fate, something like this: Well, however it may be with metempsychosis and immortality and all that, there should at least be a provision by which we may return once in a hundred years merely to see how things are going on. And so may it be, that or something better. Meanwhile there is some comfort at least in the Roman poet's *non omnis moriar*. The memory of intellectual honesty, of placid humor, of genial combativeness in tone and speech, of wide sympathy and loyal friendship—all this is not lost with the form that lies off Sable Island,

> "With dead calm in the noble breast
> That heaves but with the heaving deep."

C. T.

REVOLUTIONARY IMPERIALISM.

LONDON, July 12, 1898.

I went to the American dinner last week, and heard some excellent speech-making from Mr. Hay, Lord Kimberley, Mr. Bryce, and Prof. Jebb. But I was amused to see among the diners the familiar "mug" of Richard Croker, looking as placid and as "patriotic" as if he were seated in his club in New York. Of course it was not possible to prevent his buying a ticket like anybody else; but what we were not prepared for was that the one American who spoke, except Mr. Hay, should call attention to his presence in terms of humorous eulogy, amid the cheers and laughter of the company. A distinguished Englishman remarked to me, in coming away, that this cynical indifference to Croker's character and career did not augur well for the coming greatness of America, of which we heard so much. For a moment's reflection on what constitutes the "greatness" of a state would have shown any intelligent man that Croker was really a far worse and more formidable enemy of the United States than all the fleets and armies of Spain. They might kill the body, but the Crokers kill the soul of the republic. He has done it more harm in five years already than all the forces of Spain could do it in fifty years; and that, at such a juncture, a large company of Americans should sit down to dinner with him in a foreign city, and hail his presence with cheers and laughter, on the anniversary of the nation, was a little disquieting for fastidious souls.

I find that nearly everybody of note here hails our new "imperial" policy with pleasure. Even those who fear its effects on our institutions, feel that, in the present condition, it offers the best hope, not only for the future of England, but for that of Western civilization in general. The mania for enormous armaments which has raged on the Continent ever since 1870 has produced the effects which might have been expected—loads of debt, discontent among the taxpayers, fear of each other, great jealousy of England as the one successful nation of the lot, eagerness for new markets to keep the home populations quiet, large forces constantly under arms to shoot them down when they "emeute." The state of things on the Continent is, in fact, enough to excite dismal forebodings among the friends of free government everywhere. Free institutions seem to be going to pieces in Italy, France, and Austria. Germany is the only orderly state left on the Continent; but in order to keep orderly, it has, apparently, to hand itself over to a kind of mediæval despot, at the head of an immense army. It is not surprising that, under these circumstances, thoughtful Englishmen are afraid of some sort of combination against England, which might result in the extinction of free thought and free speech in Europe, and the establishment of some sort of militarism as the future régime of the modern world; democracy having apparently failed so miserably, and Socialism, or some other plan for the abolition of human eminence, being so threatening. It is not unnatural that they should, therefore, turn for help to the Power to which they have taught the art of freedom, and which they have taught to love it and cling to it.

But it is not their business to teach us how to be "imperial" with safety to the institutions under which we have grown into our present greatness. Here are some of the difficulties which, as far as I have been able to learn from thoughtful men who really wish well to America, they think we shall have to face somehow. They believe our Constitution will have to be seriously altered, or, still worse, to be disregarded—a very dangerous business. For instance, they do not see how we are to govern colonies or dependencies with our present system of appointment to office. Of the probable results after a while of our present system for "imperial" purposes, Spain offers a good example. An English statesman said to me the other day that a civil service of the highest order was, for Great Britain, an absolute necessity. Empire means the neighborhood of jealous rivals; it means the holding in subjection, with a small force, of large populations of alien races, whom you must govern as justly and wisely as is consistent with keeping them subject. To do this you must not only get good men as servants, but must get the best men the country affords, no matter of what party or creed. This the English do, and the bigger the empire grows, the more religiously they do it. For instance, when they seized Egypt, they did not loose on it a lot of scallawag politicians. They put it in charge, in every department, of the ablest men they could get hold of. Now no one seriously supposes they could do this if the executive had to consult either the House of Lords or the House of Commons about every important appointment. Intrigue and "influence" would in that case play exactly the same rôle here that they play in America, and we know with what results. Senators probably think they can have "empire" and "spoils" and big money-making wars, under the system with which they helped to officer our present volunteer army, and can declare war whenever the humor seizes them, and raise the army for the war afterwards, as they have done in fighting poor Spain, when they get an "empire"; but nobody here believes it. They say that as soon as we set up our empire, we must deprive the Senate of all power of approval or confirmation, and leave the whole responsibility of selecting officers, civil and military, to the executive. Those who say this are not "enemies of America" either. They are men who are looking forward to our alliance.

But they go farther than this. They say we must alter our Constitution so as to establish some sort of financial responsibility. Of course, we have successfully turned away popular attention from our financial difficulties at home by our Cuban war. Nobody in America thinks or cares about public finance now, but foreign statesmen and financiers keep thinking and talking about it, and this is what they say: The United States have gone on for thirty-five years with

disordered finances, the two great parties competing as to which could best keep the disorder going, and without anybody's being responsible for the Government business except a huge, shifting body called a "party," and a couple of committees which are selected without any reference to their financial knowledge, and have no connection with each other. These impudent critics say, as the result of long experience of public finance, that with an empire this cannot go on, that we must change our system altogether, and provide a Finance Minister with power to frame and introduce financial measures and get them passed; or, in other words, put our government on the financial basis which the experience of mankind has shown to be necessary to the enduring prosperity either of the individual or of the State.

I suppose all thoughtful people at home can find abundant illustration of these criticisms and suggestions in the history of the Republican party, especially during the past year. I transmit them with the more confidence because they are the criticisms of friends who are eager to see us enter on a course which I, for my own part, believe, whatever it might do for the national vanity or the material prosperity of the United States, would be fatal to the "great experiment." E. L. G.

FILON'S MÉRIMÉE.

PARIS, July 13, 1898.

M. Augustin Filon, preceptor of the Prince Imperial who died so unfortunately in Zululand, and who has written of late years some essays on England and English life, has added a new volume to the already extensive collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français," published by Hachette (New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The writer whom he has chosen is Mérimée, the author of 'Colomba' and some other works which have become classical.

It was no easy task to make a biographical notice of Mérimée, as he was an enigmatic character and studiously avoided, all his lifetime, admitting the public and even his best friends to the secret of his actions, his motives, his likes and dislikes. "Cache ta vie" might have been his motto. He was a sort of intellectual Epicurean, and might have said also, with Horace:

"Odi profanum vulgus et arceo."

His contempt for vulgar notoriety may have arisen from the fact that he was a Parisian, born and bred in a capital. His family was, however, of Norman origin. His grandfather was the business man, the agent, of Marshal de Broglie, and lived in his château in Normandy (still the possession of the present Duke de Broglie). The daughter of this ancestor married a M. Fresnel, whose son became Fresnel, the celebrated physicist, who discovered some of the most important laws of optics. Mérimée's father was a painter; he became the secretary of our École des Beaux-Arts, and wrote a considerable work on the 'History of Oil-Painting,' from Van Eyck to our time. He married Mlle. Moreau, whom he had met in a school where he gave lessons.

Prosper Mérimée was born on the 28th of September, 1803. Curiously enough, he was not baptized; but we must recall the period when Napoleon's Concordat was made. He received, however, the best possible education in the quiet and honest home of his parents; but he never felt the religious emotions of a Christian infancy, and often said afterwards, of himself and his friends, "We pagans." He pursued his studies at the Collège Henri IV., and it is remembered that he was very early an Anglomaniac. He spoke English, dressed like a young Englishman, wrote an English hand. His father was in relations with Englishmen, Holcroft, Northcote (a pupil of Sir Joshua Reynolds), Hazlitt. Mérimée was not a brilliant pupil at school, and spent much time in studying foreign languages as well as Latin and Greek. He became very familiar with English and Spanish literature. Towards 1825, we find in the list of his friends Ampère, a son of the celebrated physicist, and Stapfer, the first translator into French of Goethe's "Faust." He was introduced by Ampère at the Abbaye-aux-Bois, and saw, in the salon of Madame Récamier, Chateaubriand in all his glory. He had the good fortune to be admitted to the circle of the *Journal des Débats*, and to enter into familiarity with Thiers, Cousin, Sainte-Beuve, Rémusat, Vitet, and Stendhal. "The influence," says M. Filon, "exercised by Stendhal on Mérimée during the decisive years in which his literary eclecticism was formed, was considerable, even more than Mérimée himself was aware." Mérimée said that he never could agree with Stendhal about anybody or anything, but this did not prevent him from receiving many new notions and ideas from Stendhal, and, in his letters to Mlle. Dacquin, Mérimée had the justice to say that Stendhal's ideas had "déteint sur les siennes."

The influence of Spanish literature, of Cervantes, Lope de Vega, Calderon, is very visible in the "Théâtre de Clara Gazul," a series of five pieces which Mérimée read to his friends at one of the Sundays of Delécluze, the art critic of the *Débats*. Approbation was unanimous. "L'Amour Africain" and "Inès Mendo" are pure imitations of the ancient Spanish drama, with its blind, absolute, unthinking, illogical passion. The "Espagnols en Danemark" is more artistic, and is in parts a real masterpiece. The play is intensely romantic, but there is in it a very realistic character, *Madame de Tourville*, the political spy, a Parisian intriguer. We see already in this piece the whole of Mérimée: he thought himself a Romanticist, and was thrown into the Romantic current, but he was essentially a precursor of the Realistic school. These five plays were given to the public in 1825, as the work of a Spanish actress, Clara Gazul, with an imaginary biography; some copies appeared with a portrait of the author, who was represented with bare shoulders, a mantilla, and a gold cross on her neck. This portrait of Mérimée is very rare, and is much sought for by bibliophiles.

The "Théâtre de Clara Gazul" excited much curiosity. The second volume published by Mérimée, in 1827, the 'Guzla,' had not so much success. It was a collection of so-called Illyrian ballads and popular songs. It too was a mystification, since Mérimée had not been in Illyria and composed his popular legends himself. Goethe took notice of the book and directed the attention of the German public to it. Pushkin translated several pieces into Russian. M. Filon says that "the 'Guzla' marked the culmination of the creative power in Mérimée. Never, at any moment of his life, either before or afterwards, did he show as much imagination as in these pretended Illyrian songs." There is a barbarous note in them which Mérimée never found again. In 1828 he published the "Jacquerie" and in 1829 the 'Chronique du Temps de Charles IX.' The "Jacquerie," a drama in which are represented the miseries of the people in the Middle Ages, is no longer read. The 'Chronique' still is, and with much pleasure; it is an historical novel *à la* Walter Scott, extremely dramatic, full of amusing incidents, with excellent and very exact local coloring. The drama furnished the subject for Meyerbeer's fine opera, "The Huguenots," which excites the highest and noblest sentiments of mankind, religion, faith, and love. The style of the 'Chronique' is excellent; it is clear and rapid, and recalls the best French models. It pleased Mérimée afterwards to call it "le méchant roman," but it will survive many other of his works. The "Amis des Livres" have lately published a new edition of it, with pretty illustrations.

I can give only the titles of some short novels of Mérimée's which followed the 'Chronique': the 'Mécontents,' the 'Vision de Charles XI.,' 'Tamango,' the 'Vase Étrusque,' the 'Double Méprise,' the 'Partie de Trictrac,' 'Mateo Falcone,' the 'Enlèvement de la Redoute.' The two last are masterpieces in their way. The dramatic effect in both is all the greater in that the style possesses an extraordinary lucidity and simplicity. How far we are, when we read these stories, from the modern descriptive style, which piles adjectives upon adjectives, and covers pages where Mérimée would have been content with a line, if not with a word. M. Filon justly compares these short stories of Mérimée's to medals; they are truly the medals of our literature, as, in the smallest compass, they give us the sensation of greatness, the illusion of distance, the vision of crowds. The medallist cannot be indistinct and vague like the painter; he must be precise, though he ought to be suggestive.

Mérimée had now become a lion; he was a visitor at Madame Récamier's (though he detested her); he was well received at Victor Hugo's, but tried in vain to make the great poet acquainted with Stendhal. He was a great dandy, affected to consider the knotting of a cravat as a great affair in life, to be sceptical and blasé. He was really rather timid, and, perhaps for this reason, found himself more at ease with women than with men. In 1825 he made a journey to England with Étienne Delécluze, Eugène Delacroix, the painter, and Duvergier de Hauranne, who wished to study the mechanism of the English elections. He became acquainted with Ellice, afterwards one of the whips of the Liberal party. In 1830 he visited Spain, and took notes which he subsequently used in 'Carmen.' He made the acquaintance of the Countess of Teba, mother of the future Empress of the French, then only four years old.

On his return he found all his friends in power, after the Revolution of July. He was himself appointed chief of the cabinet of a minister, M. d'Argout, who was successively Minister of the Navy, of Commerce, and of the Interior; but the regularity of official life did not please him; his occupation and amusements did not allow him to write. For four years, he produced no new work. When M. d'Argout left the Cabinet, he appointed Mérimée Inspector General of the French historical monuments. This post suited him exactly. It left him complete freedom, and gave him opportunities for travelling all

over France; and it brought him in relations with very learned and studious people. During his long inspections he was constantly in correspondence with his friends, and we owe to this period two classes of valuable documents: first, his official reports on our historical monuments, and, secondly, his amusing and interesting letters to various correspondents.

Mérimée was a born artist; he had already learned much at his father's house, in the ateliers of his friends; he knew how to draw and to paint; he studied architecture in all its manifestations. He became a jealous and almost pious guardian of our fine monuments. Mérimée was one of the founders of the Historical Monuments Commission, which has rendered and is still rendering such valuable service. He may be said to have saved, with Montalembert, the magnificent and curious church of Vézelay. He wrote the history of the Church of Saint-Savin. The amphitheatres of Orange and of Arles, the church of Saint-Martin at Tours, the cathedral of Laon, owe much to his perseverance. He was the laziest of men in ordinary life; but when there was a question of one of the historical monuments which he wished to keep in good preservation, he became indefatigable. Those who are old enough to remember the years which followed 1830, will agree with the critic who said: "If Victor Hugo had not written 'Notre Dame de Paris,' and if Mérimée had not prompted the formation of the Historical Monuments Commission, all our old edifices would have been pulled down for the building only of Madeleines and of Bourses."

His archæological studies did not interfere with his literary work. He wrote in 1837 the 'Vénus d'Ille,' inspired by a Latin chronicle of the tenth century; a curious and enigmatic story, in which there is a supernatural element. In 1840, he made a journey to Corsica; and his notes furnished him admirable touches for 'Colomba,' which must be considered as his master-work, and will be read as long as the 'Chronique du Temps de Charles IX.' 'Colomba' is the personification of the spirit of the vendetta, which is still found in all the islands of the Mediterranean, as well as in Italy, especially in southern Italy. Colomba is a tender virgin, in whose heart hatred has perforce taken the place of love, as hatred has appeared to her a duty. She lives for a fixed idea, for vengeance. Mérimée surrounded his subject with the most poetical details, the most original developments. In 'Colomba' he touches the height of tragedy. M. Filon says of this story that "its only defect is in having no defects." The style has a classic purity to which our time is no longer accustomed. Some pages of 'Colomba' have become a text for school examinations.

'Arsène Guillot' appeared in 1844 and 'Carmen' in 1845. 'Carmen' has been popularized by Bizet's opera. 'Arsène Guillot' might also furnish a musician with a libretto; it is very realistic, and some parts remind one of the 'Dame aux Camélias.' 'Carmen' was Mérimée's adieu to the novel-reading public. He afterwards gave himself up completely to archæological and historical studies. His last works of imagination, published twenty years after 'Carmen,' deserve but little attention. The reader will find in M. Filon's volume an account of Mérimée in his official life. He was made a Senator by the influence of the Empress Eugénie, who was his friend. He died shortly after the fall of the Empire, at Cannes, on the 13th of September, 1870.

Correspondence.

THE ORIGINAL POOLE'S INDEX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly allow me a little of your valuable space for a reply to Mr. Holbrook's communication in the *Nation* of July 7, p. 12? The main fact stated in the *Bookman* is strictly true; as can easily be shown.

In 1845-'46 I was the assistant in the library of the Society of Brothers in Unity in Yale College. In the year following, being a senior in the college, I was the librarian. In 1847-'48 Mr. Poole was the assistant, and in the next year he was the librarian.

While in the library, it was a part of my duty to look up references for students in preparation for theses and debates. As the same topics were frequently up, I was led to preserve such references, and, after a time, I had accumulated a considerable amount of this matter. In order to make it more useful and to save my time, I decided to put it in print. Accordingly, in January, 1847, the work appeared, with the title, 'Subjects for Debate, with References to Authorities. The Nos. refer to the vols. in the Brothers' Library.' It was a pamphlet of eight double-column pages, and contained sixty-three subjects, with from two to thirty specific references under each subject. The pamphlet was eagerly sought for by the students, and the edition was soon exhausted.

When Mr. Poole came into the library, recognizing the value of the work, he began the preparation of a new edition. As the work grew upon his hands, he changed his plan, and decided to make an index to the collection of periodicals belonging to the Brothers' Library. This work was published in 1848, with the title, 'Index to Subjects Treated in . . . Periodicals . . . . Prepared for the Library of the Brothers in Unity, Yale College.' There can be no question that my little eight-page pamphlet was the germ of the Index of 1848, which has since grown into the present four-volume 'Poole's Index.'

At the meeting of the American Library Association in San Francisco in 1891, Mr. Joseph C. Rowell exhibited a copy of this pamphlet, and called it a "prehistoric Poole," naming me as its author.* Mr. Poole, in a letter to Mr. Rowell, disclaims the authorship of the pamphlet, and attributes it to me.

Against what has now been said in reply to Mr. Holbrook there is no scintilla of positive evidence. The long quotation from the preface to the Index of 1882 has no relevance to the main issue.

Very respectfully, John Edmands.

Mercantile Library,
Baltimore, July 22, 1898.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press 'Socialism and the Social Movement in the 19th Century,' from the German of Werner Sombart; 'The Groundwork of Science,' by St. George Mivart; 'Methods and Principles of Literary Criticism,' by Prof. Lorenzo Sears of Brown University; and 'Studies of a Biographer,' by Leslie Stephen.

Dr. Hutchison Stirling is to be congratulated on having lived to republish his 'Secret of Hegel' (Putnams), which made its original appearance in 1865, and now, after the lapse of a generation, may fairly claim to have become a philosophical classic. The original edition, in two volumes, contained over 1,100 pages of "reading matter"; the present has, in consequence of an enlarged page and smaller print, been compressed into something over 800. But the resulting volume is uncomfortably bulky, and adds physical to the intellectual difficulties of enucleating the "secret." Hence it is hardly likely to convert the facetious persons who decided long ago that whatever "the secret of Hegel" might be, Dr. Stirling had succeeded admirably in keeping it in the course of his prolonged discussion "about it and about." And yet it was proclaimed aloud in the preface that the secret lay in the discovery of the "concrete universal." Perhaps the scoffers thought that this explained *ignotum per ignotius*, and even serious opponents of Hegelian philosophy might be found to argue that a concrete universal was a contradiction in terms, that the demand for it proceeded from a misapprehension, and that the only thing that was or could be concrete was the reality to which the "universal" was asserted to apply. But however this may be, Dr. Stirling is evidently still as much in earnest about his solution as ever, and has only added a few notes that do not substantially affect the argument. And with his earnestness and vigor he well deserves to impress his readers, if only they can stomach the quaintness of a style replete with Germanisms and redolent of Carlylese.

The third edition of Prof. J. Seth's 'Study of Ethical Principles' (Scribners) has been improved by the rewriting of the chapter on the method of ethics, by the addition of a new chapter on moral progress, and by the insertion of bibliographical references and an index. It seems a pity that the occasion was not utilized also to effect a curtailment of the excessive tendency to sermonize which forms so marked a feature of the book. The space so economized might have been advantageously devoted to giving a less dogmatic air to another of its characteristics, viz., its abundance of metaphysical statements which are left unsupported by argument. As matters stand, it is surely unfortunate that so many turning-points of Prof. Seth's "ethics of personality" exhibit only what Aristotle would have called the "unproved assertions of a good man," and even a text-book should aim at producing conviction rather than persuasion. But, after all, these are matters of taste, and the author is probably of opinion that they form attractions rather than defects; and he evidently knows his public.

The fifty-fifth volume of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) passes the boundary between S and T. The prolific Stuarts, Talbots, Taylers, and Taylors insure the filling, but this section is comparatively deficient in great or interesting characters. Dean Swift is easily the first in this class, and is exhibited in twenty-three pages by Leslie Stephen, who does not here, as sometimes, confine himself to succinct narration, but essays a summing up. The general tone of this sketch is favorable to the Dean. The notice of J. A. Symonds is to be commended for impartiality, and

* *Library Journal*, vol. xvi., p. 313.

the Baroness Tautphoeus is also discriminatingly treated. An Englishman who, along with Daguerre, has conferred an immeasurable benefit on mankind, William Henry Fox Talbot, "Pioneer of photography," is shown to have been, besides, a mathematician of no mean powers; and "he was, with Sir Henry Rawlinson and Dr. Hincks, one of the first to decipher the cuneiform inscriptions brought from Nineveh." In other ways, too, his versatility was remarkable. Another and a greater mathematical genius, J. J. Sylvester, is commemorated in the same volume, where, having American associations, are to be found, further, Gilbert Stuart the painter, Cardinal Taschereau, General Tarleton of Revolutionary fame, and William Strachey, the Virginian colonist and author, who is reputed to have given to Shakspere the hint of the "still-vex'd Bermoothes."

Mrs. Ritchie's introduction to the latest volume in the Biographical Thackeray—'Barry Lyndon, the Fitz-Boodle Papers, etc.' (Harpers)—would serve, as she frankly confesses, for other books of that time, so far as showing the difficulties under which they were written. As bearing directly on 'Barry,' there is little except some extracts from Thackeray's diary and letters to show how painstakingly he read up his period, and with what labor and depression he wrote that vivacious tale. A characteristic letter from Edward FitzGerald is given, and the usual number of unpublished Thackeray sketches—the most striking one being a youthful rendering of "The Battle of Jena," which is as purposely amusing as some of our contemporary war pictures are unintentionally.

A contribution to American history that has a curious timeliness is made by Isaac Sharpless, President of Haverford College, in 'A Quaker Experiment in Government' (Philadelphia: Alfred J. Ferris). The author's aim has been to narrate the early history of Pennsylvania as it presented itself to the Quakers of the time, and his chief sources of information have been the contemporary Meeting Records and private letters. To these must be added "a fairly intimate personal acquaintance with many who probably represent in this generation, in their mental and moral characteristics, the 'Quaker Governing Class' of the first century of the province." A commonwealth founded on the principles of political equality, religious liberty, just dealing with the Indians, the settlement of disputes by conciliation, and the absence of all military and naval provision for attack and defence, may seem an "iridescent dream" in these times of militarism; but it came nearer realization in Pennsylvania than is commonly supposed, according to the evidence here presented, and we heartily concur with the author in the hope and belief that some time these principles will again be recognized as the basis of government.

The latest attempt at the popularization of science in France is one which is likely to provoke observation if not keen interest. "Livres d'or de la Science" is the general title of the series of volumes, the issue of which is now just begun under the direction of M. Albert Lacroix. The publisher, in a somewhat curious prospectus, sets forth the aim of the new venture. According to him, the face of Science has hitherto repelled many by its severity, and what plain people need now, in order to initiate themselves in her mysteries, is books that render Science clear, "aimable même, et, si nous osons le dire, attirante et souriante pour tous." The savants, in their special treatises and technical manuals, have not put themselves within reach of the understanding of most readers: either their books are too much spun out into details, and so address only students and specialists, or else they are condensed to the point of aridity, and weary the reader's mind. The new series will change all that. Two volumes have already appeared—a "très remarquable" sketch of universal history, "Le Panorama des Siècles," by M. J. Weber, and a study by M. Edmond Plauchut, on "Les Races Jaunes." The collection will be extended at once so as to include the whole field of human knowledge, and will be published regularly at the rate of two volumes a month, setting out from the coming autumn.

'Gross New York' is, at first sight, a somewhat railing title, but on examination it turns out to be only a study of Greater New York by a Berlin magistrate-assessor, Dr. G. Herzfeld. He begs a friendly reception for his little book, "bei Theoretikern wie Praktikern" (which we suppose is good German for High-toners and Boys), and hopes that anyhow his map will please. Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, is the publisher.

In Consular Reports for July, considerable space is devoted to condensed accounts of Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands, with especial reference to their commerce and resources. China comes next in importance, with reports upon the opening of treaty ports and inland water routes, the production of cotton, the demand for steel rails, the increased American trade, and fireworks. Of these nearly twenty-seven million pounds were exported last year, mostly to New York, and yet this was but "a small fraction of the amount manufactured and used in China." It is estimated that "30 women and 10 men can make 100,000 crackers per day; for which work the women will receive 5 cents each, and the men about 7 cents each." The hours of labor, it may be added, "are from 6 A. M. to 11 P. M., and there are seven working days in each week."

The Chicago *Chap-Book* has been merged in the *Dial* of the same city. It will be missed for its ever handsome typographical appearance, and it has done what could be done to extend the field of magazine writing in a fortnightly periodical issue. Its non-success after four years of laudable effort, marked by much cleverness and not a little independence, seems to disprove the need of such a medium. Its resort to illustrations was, to the experienced, a sign of distress now avowed. In this field the competition was more obvious if not more serious than in others. We shall be glad if the *Dial* is strengthened by the absorption.

The vacancy in the board of managers of the Observatory of Yale University, occasioned by the death of Prof. Newton, has been filled by the election of Dr. Elkin, the present director of the Observatory, who reports much progress in observations with the heliometer by Dr. Chase and himself for the purpose of detecting stars in proximity to the solar system, as surmised from the fact of their large apparent or proper motion. More than 100 such stars are to be investigated in all. For many years astronomers have suspected a possibility of systematic error in stellar distances, due to lesser refrangibility of the light of highly colored red stars, and Dr. Elkin has in progress a series of measures for testing this important question. But these researches have not precluded his use of the newly devised multiple instrument for photographing meteors, which has been employed at every available period of meteoric displays of consequence. Many trails have thus been secured; and in view of the approaching maximum shower of Leonids, due in November, 1899, the National Academy of Sciences has made a grant of $1,000 from the J. Lawrence Smith Fund, for the purpose of securing, if possible, records at an auxiliary station sufficiently remote from New Haven for determining critically the paths of the brighter meteors in space.

"New Observations of the Planet Mercury" is the title of a paper by Percival Lowell in the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences of Boston (vol. xxii., part 4). Mr. Lowell's conclusions are that Mercury is somewhat larger than has been supposed, being probably about 3,300 miles in diameter, and that it rotates only once during its orbital period of nearly eighty-eight days. The observations of the physical features of the planet's surface reveal distinct and permanent "markings" which are unlike those on any other planet. They are linear, but not of uniform width, some of them stretching from pole to pole, others running across the disk corresponding to parallels of latitude. They are very dark, especially at points of intersection, where they expand into spots. Although symmetrically placed they do not, like the "canals" of Mars, "suggest artificiality." The existence of these markings is accounted for upon the supposition that, as the greater part of one hemisphere is continuously hidden from the sun, the process of cooling would be unequal, and that the greater contraction of one side would cause cracks to appear in the other. Mercury shows no signs of atmosphere, water, vegetation, or organic life, and is believed to be "a world as dead as the moon." A series of lithographic plates illustrate this memoir.

Sir Joseph Hooker contributes to the Proceedings of the Royal Society of London for June 18 a biographical sketch of the late Baron Ferdinand von Mueller, one of the most eminent scientists of the southern hemisphere. Born in 1825, he emigrated in 1847 to Australia, where, fascinated by the interest and novelty of the flora, he devoted himself to scientific study and exploration. For sixteen years he was Director of the Melbourne Botanic Gardens, and was retained as Government Botanist until his death. His principal labors may be classed under the heads of scientific botany and economic botany. A voluminous writer, his most notable works are 'Fragmenta Phytographiæ Australiæ,' in twelve volumes; 'Eucalyptographia,' with 129 plates, and 'The Acaceæ and their Allies,' with 130 plates. His most important work in economic botany is 'Select Extra-Tropical Plants, suitable for industrial culture or naturalization in Australia.' To his zeal in the distribution of seeds, South America and California are indebted for the eucalypti, acacias, and other trees which adorn their hills and plains and have even improved their climate. Personally, Baron von Mueller had some striking peculiarities. He dressed in black, wore wooden shoes, and boasted of never having owned a watch or a looking-glass. In the same number is an important paper in three parts, "On the Intimate Struc-

ture of Crystals," by W. J. Sollas, Professor of Geology at Oxford.

It seems not wholly just to speak of the French centenaries just past, or soon to come, and leave quite without mention the fête of Chateaubriand, which was celebrated in Paris on July 4—the fiftieth anniversary of his death. There was a pilgrimage to the hôtel in the Rue du Bac, with an address by M. Melchoir de Vogüé; a visit to the hermitage of the Vallée-aux-Loups, and in the evening a dinner, at which M. Sully Prudhomme spoke; but no widespread interest was shown. The fame, once great, of the author and statesman has been dwindling through the forty years that have elapsed since Villemain's book appeared, and now seems to be confined to the Academy and to a few among the *jeunes*. He is, in fact, no longer read. On this point the *Revue Bleue* of July 2 cites a bookseller, who said: "There are certain voluminous works, in the book-trade, that are never out of demand: for example, the 'Lundis' of Saint-Beuve, which have a steady sale, and which you will never pick up as a bargain at a book-stall. There are others for which there is no demand any longer, and Chateaubriand is one of these. The old editions have never been reprinted; nobody would venture to undertake it. The farthest any one goes is to run the risk, now and then, of reprinting the best-known parts of them. I myself published an 'Atala' some years ago, and I have not yet sold out the first thousand."

—The Yukon basin is the subject of an illustrated paper in the July *Geographical Journal*, by Mr. W. Ogilvie of the Topographical Survey of Canada. In his description of the geological features, he says that there are more than 3,200 miles of fair navigation in the system of the Yukon River, of which Canada owns nearly 42 per cent. The drainage area occupies about 338,000 square miles, 149,000 of which belong to Canada. The gold-bearing region he believes to comprise upwards of 125,000 square miles; but of the 3,000 linear miles of river, stream, and gulch which are auriferous "only about 200 were fully tested and developed up to August last, and at present date probably not more than 400 have been fairly well tested." Among other minerals are "very superior" lignite coal, silver, and copper, of which last the Indians bring in "quite large specimens," from some locality as yet unknown. The correct name for the Klondike is Troandik, which means Hammer Creek, from the fact that the Indians used to erect barriers across the mouth to catch salmon by hammering sticks into the ground. Among the other contents of the number are Sir C. Markham's address at the commemoration of Vasco da Gama's voyage to India, and an account of a journey in southern Arabia by Mrs. J. T. Bent. There is also a description, with plans, of a "telegraphic instrument" used by the Catuquinarús, a tribe on a tributary of the upper Amazon. It is apparently a cylinder, with a hollow chamber, of wood, rubber, and hide, partly buried in a pit lined with fragments of wood, hide, and resins. These "cambarysús" are hidden in *malocœs* (habitations) a mile apart, and, when struck with a club of wood lined with rubber and hide, "the neighboring ones to the north and south, if not above a mile distant, respond to or echo the blow. To this an Indian answers by striking the instrument in the *malocœ* with which it is desired to communicate, which blow in turn is echoed by the instrument originally struck. Each *malocca* has its own series of signals. So enclosed is each instrument in the *malocca* that, when standing outside and near the building, it is difficult to hear a blow, which, nevertheless, is heard distinctly in the next *malocœ*, a mile distant, in the manner indicated. "The Tuchau," continues Dr. Bach, "gave me an example of signalling. With a prolonged interval, he struck the instrument twice with the club, which, as I understood, was to indicate attention, or that a conference was desired. This was responded to by the same instrument, as a result of a single blow given by some one on the next apparatus, nearly a mile distant. Then commenced a long conversation, which I could not comprehend." The suggestion has been made that "there is in the locality some stratum of earth or rock of such composition that it easily transmits the vibrations of the blow given upon one of the instruments, which, being enclosed and nearly buried in the earth, certainly does not transmit the sound through the air."

—Prof. W. H. Pickering publishes, in the forty-first volume of the Annals of Harvard College Observatory, a brief paper on the meteoric shower of November 13, 1897, accompanied with a photographic map of the heavens central about the radiant of the Leonids, which is almost exactly in the middle of the familiar "Sickle" in Leo. This map has been prepared with great care for the use of future observers, and covers a larger area of the sky than any map heretofore published that has been prepared directly by photographic means. The meteoric observations were undertaken both at Cambridge and at Mr. Rotch's meteorological observatory on the summit of Blue Hill; and programmes of visual and photographic procedure were carried out at both stations, with the assistance of Messrs. Wendell, Reed, and King, and a number of college volunteers. The weather on the night in question was in general favorable, although very cold and windy, especially at Blue Hill, where the average velocity of the wind was thirty miles per hour. The presence of the moon, too, was a slight interference with the visual, though greater with the photographic, observations. Nearly a hundred meteors were seen at Cambridge, and about half that number at Blue Hill, exhibiting, as usual, a rapid increase to a maximum in the latter part of the night. But the difficulties of successful coöperation are shown by the fact that in only two cases was the path of the same meteor caught at both stations. Both disappeared at a height of about 45 miles above the earth's surface, the white one at a distance of about 75 miles from Cambridge, and the red one at nearly 200; and Prof. Pickering concludes that there are actual differences in chemical constitution of the individual meteors composing the swarm. The results of his careful estimation of size are that the larger Leonids seen upon this occasion would weigh several hundred pounds, and be quite analogous in size to the larger meteoric masses which, owing to their slower motion, succeed in reaching the surface of the earth intact. On account of their high velocity, no Leonid has ever been known to penetrate to the earth's surface, the friction and resistance of the air being sufficient to completely disintegrate them; but this atmospheric protection does not defend us equally against the slower-moving Andromeds. As is well known, during the shower from the radiant in Andromeda, on November 27, 1885, an iron meteorite weighing over eight pounds fell, and was picked up at Mazapil, Mexico. The Harvard observers are to continue these observations during the next two years on suitable occasions, particularly with improved photographic methods.

—The quarrel between the humanists and the scientists, which is a modern phase of the secular war between the adherents of old and new learning, is by no means extinct. There is still fire in the embers that lie hid under the innocent-looking ashes, as M. Jules Lemaître has found out since the 1st of June, when he blew them into sudden flame by an address which he delivered at the Sorbonne. Perhaps the fact that it is the new Sorbonne, and not the old, may be the reason why the walls of the building did not crumble and bring the roof down on his irreverent head, for he maintained, quietly and with no exterior signs of madness, the thesis that classical teaching in France is detestable, and that the whole Greek and Latin programme ought to be suppressed. M. Jules Lemaître is himself a Normalian and a Doctor in Letters, and has the credit of being something of a scholar and of having profited by his classical training. This, however, he made haste to deny. What he said was in substance this: You believe that I have reaped profit from my classical studies. Look at the result: it is lamentable. I know no English at all, and I know German very ill. That is not my fault; instead of teaching me these living tongues, they took my whole time for the study of dead ones. And these dead languages—do you innocently suppose that I remember them? Not in the least. I no longer know a word of Greek. As to Latin, I never read it; the "Conciones" bores me, and I like Béranger better than I do Horace. They did not even develop my muscles by a good course of gymnastics, and my bodily members are awkward. I am good for nothing [at this point in his report M. André Beaunier interjects: "Oh! le pauvre, le pauvre!"] —I am good for nothing except to write, and even this I do not owe to my Latin. Of course the cudgels were at once taken up on the other side by M. Francisque Vial in the *Revue Bleue*, by M. Emanuel des Essarts in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, and by others, none of whom, so far as we have seen, has much that is new to say. The whole question lacks interest, possibly because nobody expects that it ever will be settled by argument. In fifty years' time perhaps it may have drifted to its end. What is most interesting in the present incident is the likeness between the address of M. Jules Lemaître and the one by which Mr. Charles Francis Adams fluttered the dovecotes of Cambridge a few years ago.

—In the interest of students of French, attention may be called to the very recent appearance of a standard German work in a new and attractive garb, for which we are indebted to a young Russian scholar in Romance languages, viz., A. Haase's 'Syntaxe Française du XVIIe Siècle, traduite par M. Obert avec l'autorisation de l'auteur' (Paris: Alphonse Picard et Fils), a volume of nearly 500 pages. This translation, although faithful so far as concerns the subject-matter, has necessarily undergone a few slight changes in the form in order to make it appeal to French readers. Hence, a some-

what different exposition from that of the German work has been resorted to: the various cases *a*, *b*, *c*, under each rule have been paragraphed, each being followed by its respective examples, the whole displayed with contrasting type which brings the subject more clearly and immediately before the mind. Footnotes are appended, some for the purpose of showing where peculiar usages survive in the language of the present day, these being but casually hinted at in the original; others being quotations from Old French to elucidate usages now archaic; others, again, presenting remarks by the gifted and painstaking translator concerning the wording and purport of certain grammatical theories. Full and corrected reference to other works, both classic and vulgar, is a marked advance over Haase's own edition. The folk-speech examples are drawn from Henri Monnier's 'Scènes Populaires.' The American student will be gratified by the typographical beauty and completeness of the French edition, with full reference to chapter, page, author, and edition. Forty-three sources have been carefully consulted to this end, some of which are works not available to the ordinary reader and bear early dates. M. Petit de Julleville, under whose considerate and learned guidance the translation was undertaken, says, in his preface to it: "La traduction française est élégante et claire; le texte des exemples a été soigneusement vérifié; toutes les références indiquées avec exactitude." The editor acknowledges valuable aid from MM. L. Crouslé and E. Boutroux, professors of the University of Paris, in the interpretation of texts quoted, as well as from M. Brunetière in general criticism.

—American architects and others in Italy, writes a correspondent from that country, will be interested in knowing that in the Exhibition now open at Turin there is a large and splendid collection of architectural casts—capitals, doorways, bas-reliefs, etc., mostly mediæval—from the province of Bari; revealing such a richness and beauty in the ancient art of Apulia as must astonish nearly all who see the exhibit. The casts were made at a cost of 100,000 lire, and, as the moulds were not preserved, this collection must remain absolutely unique. It is to be hoped that it will be permanently housed at Turin. The Exhibition has other claims to attention, especially from artists and archæologists. A large division appropriated to Sacred Art has a retrospective show of paintings, sculptures, and objects of ecclesiastical art of all sorts, gathered from churches, sacristies, and private collections. Among these treasures is a superb crucifix, the Christ in ivory and the cross in silver, a chef-d'œuvre of Renaissance art, once presented by a Pope to a member of his own family, and preserved by his descendants to this day. The present representative would be glad to sell it, and it were much to be desired that so splendid a work should be acquired for America. There is also in this division a collection of photographs of mediæval churches in Piedmont, general views and details, complete beyond anything to be seen elsewhere. The study of these is but a temporary privilege, as they are the work of a distinguished amateur, and not for sale nor even often to be seen. Some of the Exhibition buildings, in the rococo style peculiar to Turin, are well worth attention. The entrance-pavilion, with its fountain, its setting of park, and its background of richly wooded hills beyond the Po, forms a picture of rare beauty.

LANG'S MAKING OF RELIGION.

The Making of Religion. By Andrew Lang, M.A., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

To say of so versatile a writer as Mr. Lang that he is nothing if not controversial, would be inexcusable. Nevertheless, his predilection for controversy is as pronounced as his talent for it is unmistakable. It is only a few months since his 'Modern Mythology' was reviewed in our columns, a volume devoted exclusively to the demolition of Prof. Max Müller's conception of mythology as "a disease of language." More recently he has trained his guns on Mr. Grant Allen's 'Evolution of the Idea of God' and made a wreck of that pretentious pile. Contending with Müller, he seemed almost persuaded to be an anthropologist, but when he came to deal with Mr. Grant Allen, it was evident that he wore his anthropology with an important difference from him and Spencer and even Tylor, for whom his respect is much greater than for the others. He can hardly mention Tylor without praise or differ from him without apology. His own theories, which were barely hinted at in his review of Mr. Grant Allen, are here fully expounded, and, strangely enough, they bring him into congenial relations with Müller. Not that Mr. Lang has repented him of his distaste for Müller's system of mythology, but that he has arrived at a doctrine of primitive theism which is very sympathetic with that veteran's Henotheism—the doctrine of one God called by many names.

After a brief introduction, in which the general purpose of the book is set forth, we have an "Historical Sketch" of "Science and 'Miracles.'" The title is an imposing one for matter of such narrow range and slight consistency. The chapter amounts to little more than a disclosure of the attitude of several prominent philosophers towards clairvoyance and similar phenomena. Hume is roundly abused, as if his treatment of such phenomena as miracles, and his refusing to consider them, made his general argument against miracles illogical and absurd. A more careful rendering of the case of science and miracles, with less ulterior aim, would have reported that the position of Arnold and Huxley is now the general one among those who have the scientific mind. This position was anticipated by Theodore Parker, viz., that, antecedent to experience, one thing is as possible as another, but that, the more stable the experience on any line, the more evidence must we demand for an infringement of the habitual order. Meantime, the established fact simply demands a wider generalization, a more inclusive law. The evidence which is convincing of the abnormal fact is convincing that it is not a miracle in the theological sense. Mr. Lang's "Miracles" in quotation marks are not the regular theological miracles at all, and those simple-minded supernaturalists who will imagine he has become as one of them will reckon without their host. Even if he has succeeded in relegating the beginnings of religion to the region of the abnormal and occult, he has not assured it any supernatural standing. He makes no concealment here. But, falling short of the true theological miracle—a violation of natural law—a *quasi*-miracle of clairvoyance or something similar will awaken the sentiment described as "grateful thanks" by President McKinley in his acknowledgment of things done at Santiago.

The remaining chapters of Mr. Lang's book fall into two distinct parts quite independent of each other, as he himself conceives. In the first part, beginning with the third and ending with the eighth chapter, he is mainly concerned with the exhibition of certain phenomena of clairvoyance (which the Zulus very prettily call "opening the gates of distance"), "crystal visions," hallucinations, possession, fetishism, and so on. He would first catch his hare, *i. e.*, secure his facts, by better evidence than the anthropologists generally require, confirming the reports of trustworthy witnesses of savage life by modern civilized examples. No trait is more characteristic of those whom the occult has captured in its snare than their protestation that they are not such fools as some others. Evidence to convince them must be overwhelming and without a flaw. This trait is as prominent in Mr. Lang's self-consciousness as Brougham's nose in *Punch's* caricatures of that Liberal statesman. And yet his scent for what is fallacious in his own argument is hardly less keen than his appreciation of what is defective in that of other people. He does not pretend that he escapes the bias of his theory. To us it seems that it permits him to content himself with inductions far too narrow for the superstructures he would rear on them, and with highly abstract interpretations of the savage mind, wherein we seem to find the glosses of the civilized reporter. Hegelian metaphysics in the lowest savagery finds Mr. Lang genially acquiescent, but such a phenomenon will give many of his readers pause.

Having assured himself of his phenomena, Mr. Lang applies them to the purpose which he has in hand—the confutation of the now generally accepted anthropological theory of the origin of religion from animistic notions of dreams, ghosts, ancestors, and fetishes. This theory infects religion at its root with unreality, and hence religion, it is generally argued, is unreal in branch and fruit. Mr. Lang admits that this argument is not logical, seeing that all our science is the result of refinements upon hypotheses originally erroneous. He might have gone further, and indicated that primitive religious notions were a primitive science. But the inference of the unreality of religion from the unreality of the early animistic notions is a very natural one, and Mr. Lang's endeavor to relieve religion of this pristine taint is highly creditable. Many, no doubt, will think his remedy worse than the disease. His remedy is to show that the early savages were not mistaken in their conception of the soul as wandering from its bodily tenement, or that they were only mistaken in their explanation of certain facts of their psychical experience. If it can be shown that they actually saw and knew things happening at a distance, then we may readily believe that their dream theories were backed up by actual experience. Then it will be much easier to understand their holding of such theories. From a wide range of observation Mr. Lang brings together a mass of data confirmatory of his opinion that the savage mind had frequent conversation with an order of experience which, until very recently, Science has brushed aside as unworthy of her august regard. He puts it very wittily in a pas-

sage which is one of the many that enliven a grave discussion in a delightful manner: "Anthropology adopts the airs of her elder sisters among the sciences, and is as severe as they to the Cinderella of the family, psychical research. She must murmur of her fairies among the cinders of the hearth, while they go forth to the ball, and dance with provincial mayors at the festivities of the British Association."

It can hardly be denied that, when we have once established the facts for which Mr. Lang contends, they do make out for the early conceptions of religion a more real character than has belonged to them from the standpoint of Herbert Spencer and other "ghostly counsellors." Given clairvoyance, telepathy, and hallucination, and the savage had valid reasons for believing in the soul as something not to be cribbed, cabined, and confined within the bounds of sense. Mr. Lang is not the first anthropologist to believe that these phenomena were more characteristic of the life of early savages than of the modern man's. There have been psychologists who have regarded them as survivals of faculties more highly developed in the lower animals than in mankind. And while the gain in reality from Mr. Lang's argument is undeniable, it may be permitted us to question whether religion will gain much of ancestral pride through its derivation from an order of experience always abnormal, and much more so for the civilized man than for the savage. It would go hard with us if the reality of religion were commensurate with the range of such experience. The modern spiritualists would have the coign of vantage. Mr. Lang would not have it so, for he misses no opportunity to speak contemptuously of them, limiting their valid product to the vaticinations of Prof. William James's "one white crow," Mrs. Piper, a Boston medium. But the spiritualists have at least tried to reckon with those phenomena which are the bottom facts in Mr. Lang's making of religion, and many of their data would seem to be vouched for quite as seriously as his.

The second part of Mr. Lang's book has a distinct value of its own, while at the same time there are points of agreement and mutual support between it and the first. If it does not make good its contention, it calls a halt to many hasty generalizations which have the widest vogue. Some of Spencer's speculations are made to appear more thin and ghostly than the primeval ghosts on which he had relied so much; and much is done to relieve religion in general from that odor of the corpse with which Mr. Grant Allen has sought to infect it with his ingenious but too wilful lucubrations. The title of the first chapter of Mr. Lang's second part, "High Gods of Low Races," announces its most characteristic note. His contention is that some of the lowest races have gods of a high order; gods that are not ghosts because they existed before death; nor kings, because they are found in kingless tribes. The evidence is sufficient to give the student of these matters much food for reflection. It is at least convincing that we have been much too hasty in some of our conclusions, and that the beginnings of religion were much more complex than our vivacious theorists have commonly believed. God has fulfilled himself in many ways, lest one good theory should corrupt the intellectual modesty of such men as Mr. Grant Allen, or even Mr. Lang, who, in his turn, is much too confident that he has solved the riddle. What he has done is to develop a theory, which has had various anticipation. It may be found in Cudworth's 'Intellectual System of the Universe,' in Müller's Henotheism, in Renan's doctrine of an original monotheistic instinct, and, widely, in the notion of an original revelation, which only the Hebrew people preserved unspoiled. Mr. Lang argues that "the old degeneration theory" has much to favor it. The novelty of his conception lies very much in his persuasion that animism has been the corrupting influence. He finds certain representations of Jehovah in the Old Testament on a lower level than the Big Black Man of the Fuegians, to say nothing of the higher gods of other lowest races. But whereas Renan considers Jehovah an unworthy successor of the original El, Mr. Lang thinks Jehovah began upon the heights, but was corrupted by the ghost-worshippers. The earliest gods, he assures us, were not spirits, but great "non-natural men." And yet, for Christianity to exist, "animism in its purest form" must ally itself with the original Jehovah, who was corrupted by animism, and purified by Moses and the prophets.

How animism was purified we are not told, and concerning other matters we are left in blankest ignorance. Whence and how came the conception of the high gods to the lower races? Mr. Lang leaves the origin of religion wholly unexplained. His piety being of that kind which expresses itself by the use of capital letters when naming Christian mysteries, he probably believes in an original divine revelation to all peoples. But even if his instances of degeneration were all made good, it would not follow that the higher stage which was succeeded by a lower was the original stage. That there has been much degeneration there can be no doubt. Christianity has furnished its full share. But, before we can believe that humanity began its religious experience with the highest thoughts of God, we must learn to distrust the whole course of modern science. While frequently reminding himself that our lowest contemporary savages are not identical with the primitive races, Mr. Lang habitually writes as if they were. But, given high gods with low races, the problem would at once present itself, How came they there? This problem may for ever baffle our research, but, of all hypotheses, that of a great beginning gradually sicklied over with the pale cast of superstition is the most irrational. Nowhere does Mr. Lang's critical sagacity fall further short of his supreme self-confidence than in dealing with the Old Testament. He makes not the least allowance for that order of development which distinguished Hebraists have generally agreed upon, nor for that editing and reëditing of texts which makes hasty inference from isolated passages a criminal procedure. His conclusions here are often so hasty and ill-judged that "on other more important points we may differ from the newest scientific opinion without too much diffident apprehensiveness," as he has himself written.

BURNS AND MRS. DUNLOP.

Robert Burns and Mrs. Dunlop: Correspondence now published in full for the first time. With elucidations by William Wallace. Two volumes. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The publication of the correspondence between Burns and Mrs. Dunlop in its entirety is a literary event of some moment. By far the greater part of the material is new. Of Burns's letters to Mrs. Dunlop, thirty-nine were printed by Currie in 1800, and four others have since seen the light. The present edition reproduces all of these and adds thirty-eight new letters and parts of letters from Burns, along with ninety-seven (all unpublished) from Mrs. Dunlop. In all, but thirteen letters appear to be missing, four of the poet's and nine of the lady's. The new matter is derived from the Lochryan MSS., recently disposed of by Col. J. F. Wallace, Mrs. Dunlop's great-grandson, and now in the possession of Mr. R. B. Adam of Buffalo. Mr. Adam's liberality in making public the riches of his collection of autographs has already been celebrated by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill, to whom he freely communicated his Johnsonian treasures, and deserves to be publicly recognized on all becoming occasions.

A few of the letters already published by Currie are preserved among the Lochryan MSS., and a comparison with Currie's text justifies, we regret to say, the suspicion long entertained as to his editorial methods. Fortunately, the task of arranging and elucidating the complete correspondence has now been intrusted to a scholar of quite a different stamp. Mr. William Wallace is well known to our readers as the editor of the standard text of Burns (the revised Chambers), and as the foremost living authority on all that pertains to the life and works of the poet. He has performed his task with great skill. He is wonderfully accurate, habitually concise, and never irrelevant. His business, as he very rightly conceives it, is to make an important body of manuscript evidence accessible and intelligible, and he goes about it in a refreshingly modest and impersonal fashion. He has no theories to establish and no paradoxes to defend, and he is not at all concerned about *himself*. In a word, he has the two supreme qualities of a good guide: he knows the way and he is unobtrusive.

The friendship between Burns and Mrs. Dunlop began in 1786 and lasted until some eighteen months before the poet's death in 1796, when, for some unexplained reason, the lady's letters ceased. Her last letter, dated Jan. 12, 1795, closed with a request to the poet to write to her at her temporary London address. Three later letters from Burns are extant, the last, which is infinitely pathetic, written less than a fortnight before his death to bid her farewell. Even Mr. Wallace can find no satisfactory cause for this "desertion," as Mr. Scott-Douglas calls it, and is inclined to ascribe it to mere inadvertence. An interesting letter from Gilbert Burns to Mrs. Dunlop,* dated April 2, 1797, is conceived in terms which show that he still regarded the lady as a kind and sympathizing friend. Apart from this unsolved mystery, the impression left on the mind by a study—now first made possible—of the ten years' correspondence increases one's confidence in human nature. A more wholesome, honorable, and disinterested friendship it would be hard to find in the annals of literature.

The correspondence began with a letter from Mrs. Dunlop in 1786. A copy of Burns's first volume of poems (the Kilmarnock edition) was given to her by a friend when she was deeply depressed by the death of her

*Contained in the Lochryan collection and printed in an appendix to volume ii.

husband and by her own severe illness. It proved to be precisely the mental restorative which she needed. She at once sent Burns an order for half-a-dozen copies of the volume, expressing the warmest appreciation of his talents. This was shortly before the poet's visit to Edinburgh, and at a time when he was keenly alive to recognition from his social superiors. Mrs. Dunlop was a member of the Ayrshire aristocracy and known to be a person of taste and feeling. The poet replied in the celebrated letter in which he describes his youthful visit to the Leglen Wood, and the correspondence was fairly launched.

Mrs. Dunlop was fifty-six years old and the mother of many grown-up children, to whom she devoted herself with complete self-abnegation. So far as age went, Burns might have been her son, and, living as she did in retirement and regarding herself as an old woman, her feelings toward him were a singular, but quite comprehensible, compound of literary worship and motherly concern. Henceforth her intercourse with him was the chief intellectual interest of her naturally active mind. It was her greatest delight to receive from him rough drafts of his poems, and to submit her own verse scribblings to his lenient criticism. She felt beyond measure honored by his confidences, and by the sympathetic interest which he took in her own family affairs, concerning which she often wrote to him at inordinate length, though with perfect tact and good taste. On the other hand, she was constantly on the alert for anything that could advance his fortunes, and she never tired of using her influence in his interest. An uncompromising moralist and a stern judge of the proprieties, she took a due advantage of her age and social position to expostulate with him on his riotous living and the "indelicacy" of some of his verses. In the latter regard she is now and then delightfully absurd; in the former she is uniformly strong, wise and kind. Burns's famous declaration, shortly after his marriage with Jean Armour, that "to jealousy or infidelity he is an equal stranger," has never been quite intelligible. It at once becomes clear when one reads the words of Mrs. Dunlop to which it was a direct reply. Nothing gives a better picture of this fine old Scotch gentlewoman's character than her letter on this occasion. It is searchingly sagacious, full of good sense and deep feeling, and splendidly plain-spoken. Her warnings and the spirit in which Burns took them are alike creditable to both parties. Here, as very often in these volumes, the necessity of knowing both sides of a correspondence comes out plainly, completely justifying Mr. Wallace's procedure in printing Mrs. Dunlop's letters at full length, interminable as they sometimes seem.

As a critic of literature Mrs. Dunlop appears to less advantage than as a critic of morals and domestic economy:

> "I would be happy," she writes, "to know you were engaged in some more extensive work than any you have yet attempted. . . . Detached pieces, however remarkable, leave on the mind only a passing impression, . . . whereas an epic work, as being considered the utmost height of human excellency, is never to be forgotten by the latest ages, but will add lustre to Ayrshire, and glorify her bard to the end of time if he succeed. If he fail, he fails where numbers have fallen before him; the attempt brings no disgrace, but yields great pleasure and amusement, and may, even should it not fill all the writer's ideas, be productive of very considerable profit to the author, to the bookseller, and to the readers."

This is undeniably funny, but not more so than her attempts to correct Burns's English or to revise a line in "The Twa Dogs" in the interest of the conventionalities. The poet's inflexibility in such matters sometimes offended her, but in one instance she was immensely gratified by his modifying, after some years, a line in which he had spoken of her kinsman, the patriot Wallace, as "unhappy."

On Burns's part, the correspondence is creditable throughout to his head and his heart. His letters are, as was to be expected, not infrequently conventional; but they are dignified and self-respecting, they express genuine sympathy with the troubles and afflictions of which Mrs. Dunlop had more than her share, and they show that he attached a proper value to her wise and discriminating friendship.

Besides the interest of the Burns-Dunlop correspondence in itself and as a partial history of Burns's emotional and mental life, the volumes before us afford not a few facts for his biography. We learn, for example, that he had seriously thought of purchasing a commission in the army with the profits of the Edinburgh volume. More interesting still and quite new: it appears that there was a movement, initiated by Mrs. Dunlop, to secure for him the newly established (1787) agricultural professorship in the University of Edinburgh. Minuter details of his career are also brought out in considerable numbers, especially with reference to his employment in the excise. The Lochryan MSS. are also of great value in determining the textual history of many of the poems, and settle one or two points of bibliography.

A portrait of Burns, a striking portrait of Mrs. Dunlop at the age of seventeen, and a number of facsimiles enhance the value of these very satisfactory volumes.

Memoirs of a Rear Admiral. By Samuel R. Franklin, Rear Admiral United States Navy (retired). Harper & Bros. 1898.

This is an interesting book, pleasantly written, by a well-known and genial officer of the navy, and covering a period in the service of the United States of nearly sixty years on the active and retired lists. Admiral Franklin entered the navy in 1841, a year in which so many original appointments were made that there had to be a suspension of entries for several years afterwards. This was due to the fact that there were three Secretaries of the Navy that year, each one making a year's appointment of midshipmen, and thus congesting the lower grades of the service. The early ancestors of Admiral Franklin were residents of New York city during the days of the Revolution, and not the least interesting pages of this memoir will be found in the chapters and letters devoted to that early period. Thomas Franklin, a great-granduncle of the author, built and occupied a house on Franklin Square in New York, the square itself deriving its name from this Franklin, whose gardens were originally upon this site, and whose house was placed at the disposal of Washington in one of his official visits. From this square the Admiral's book is appropriately issued. The Admiral's elder brother is Gen. William B. Franklin, whose career during the civil war is well known. Concerning this the Admiral quotes a statement made to him by Gen. Slocum, that on a visit to Washington, during the war, he had a conversation with Mr. Lincoln about the condition of affairs in the Army of the Potomac, saying that it was the feeling of many of the officers of that army that Gen. Franklin was the proper man to command it. The President, according to Slocum, promptly replied to the effect that he realized that fact, but that he did not dare to order him to that command. It was supposed that Stanton's enmity and Franklin's party affiliations were the obstacles in Mr. Lincoln's way to this appointment.

The first cruise made by the Admiral after his appointment was as a midshipman on board of the frigate *United States* in the Pacific. This cruise (or at least portions of it) was made famous afterwards by Herman Melville in his 'White Jacket,' many of the characters being well-known men in the service. The story of 'White Jacket' did very much to cause the abolition of flogging in the navy, every member of Congress being furnished with a copy at the time of its publication. So strongly did Melville feel upon the subject of flogging that it is stated that, rather than submit to this punishment, he determined, in case it was awarded him as a member of the crew, to seize his captain by the waist and jump overboard with him. Later cruises of the Admiral, in the Mediterranean, lead him to testify, as all naval officers will, to the wretched condition of our consular system, growing out of the mode of appointment, the lack of qualification, and the insecurity of tenure. The exceptional cases, like those of the Foxes of Falmouth, England, and the Spragues, father and son, of Gibraltar, while evidencing by contrast the inefficiency of the service(?), show what prestige for the country a proper system might procure.

The circumstances in which the Admiral was placed during the Mexican war and the civil war were not such as to afford him opportunity for distinction or great activity. In later life he held many positions of honor and usefulness, which he filled most satisfactorily. In his long official career he had the good fortune to meet, in military, naval, social, and political life, many persons, men and women, of distinction and eminence, about whom he chats very agreeably. The opportunity afforded him as commanding officer of the flagship of the European squadron, and afterward as Commander-in-Chief of our naval force in those waters, gave him especial opportunities in this way. His memory shows itself to be exceptionally good, and in width of range almost remarkable. An excellent portrait of the Admiral faces the title-page. The book, we feel sure, will find many readers in and out of the navy.

Outlines of the Earth's History. By Nathaniel S. Shaler. Appletons. 1898.

Prof. Shaler has selected an excellent subject; in fact, there is no part of geological discipline so weak as that which deals with the outlines of the earth's history. Descartes and Leibnitz were practically the first to make studies in what would now be called geology, and they approached the subject from an astronomical point of view. Not so Werner, Hutton, and Smith, to whom the geological investigations of this century owe

their impulse. The greater part of the attention of geologists has been devoted to the correlation of strata, areal delineation, and the mineralogical analysis of rocks. Very few of them have given serious attention to the larger questions of the earth's condition and history. It is evident, however, that, as geology progresses, accounting gradually for vulcanism, upheaval and subsidence, the climates of past epochs, and the antiquity of primeval life, this science must at last meet astronomy half way. Ideal theoretical geology would be substantially the astronomy of the planet Terra. Evidently, therefore, every aid which the older and incomparably better developed science can lend to geology, should be eagerly welcomed, and, so far as possible, young geologists should be taught to apply to the earth the methods of investigation which have been found efficient in the study of other stars.

In its theoretical development, geology was greatly hampered from the start by accepting the hypothesis that the earth is an encrusted molten globe. The origin of this idea is almost unknown. Descartes suggested it in order to reconcile the facts with his famous though untenable theory of vortices, and his followers naturally accepted an explanation which seemed unavoidable. When, however, the Newtonian philosophy supplanted the Cartesian, the origin of the belief in a fluid earth escaped attention, and the error survived the catastrophe. It is to experts in mathematical physics, chiefly to Lord Kelvin, that the overthrow of this antiquated fallacy is due, and it is to what might be called terrestrial astronomers that one must look for solutions of the other main questions arising in the history of the earth.

To prepare a useful volume on the outlines of the earth's history would require little learning or originality. There are many valuable unmathematical papers bearing on this subject, such as Laplace's 'Système du Monde' and the popular lectures of Helmholtz, Kelvin, and others. There are also important systematic treatises extant, such as Peschel and Leipoldt's 'Physische Erdkunde.' To make use of them it is only necessary to have a firm grasp of a few of the leading principles of natural philosophy. Thus, in dealing with the nebular hypothesis, the two leading principles to be borne in mind are that in a system on which no external forces act (a "conservative" system) the energy and the moment of momenta remain constant. The moment of momenta measures in a sense the rotation of such a system. Prof. Shaler, nevertheless, makes an attempt to account for the origin of rotation in a nebula initially at rest, and adduces what he supposes to be an analogy which shows that he has not grasped the idea of a conservative system. Again, in an outline of the earth's history one naturally expects to find at least a distinct statement as to whether the earth is fluid or solid, but in the present volume the only reference to this question (which only a few years since was eagerly debated) seems to be the remark that the earth was once molten. Equally unsatisfactory is the treatment of the age of the earth. Helmholtz, Lord Kelvin, Clarence King, and others have made extremely important contributions to this subject. All this work is dismissed in a single footnote, which at least conveys a wrong impression.

Again, we cannot praise Prof. Shaler's treatment of meteorites. "It is possible," he says, "that these fragments of iron and stone which constitute the meteorites, have been thrown into the planetary space by the volcanic eruption of our own and other planets. . . . In some apparent kinship with the meteorites may be classed the comets." This is all that is said of the origin of meteorites or of their bearing on the earth's history. Now H. A. Newton and J. C. Adams traced the principal meteor showers to resolved comets, the theory of volcanic origin was abandoned decades since, and Daubrée's investigations showing the similarity of composition between meteorites and the earth are surely of importance in a work of this character.

A disproportionately large part of the book is devoted to glaciers and the work of underground waters. On these subjects Prof. Shaler is more at home, and it need not be said of this always agreeable writer that throughout he succeeds in interesting the reader.

Sir Walter Ralegh: The British Dominion of the West. By Martin A. S. Hume. Longmans, Green & Co.

Mr. Hume, in undertaking to write on Raleigh for the "Builders of Greater Britain" series, restricts himself to but one, though the most important, phase of his subject's life. By an editor's arrangement the Elizabethan navigator becomes associated with the Cabots, Clive, Wakefield, Rajah Brooke, Admiral Philip and Sir Stamford Raffles. No leader of universal celebrity save Raleigh and Clive appears in the list, and thus it falls fortunately that one of these two should be treated first. Moreover, Mr. Hume has written so well on kindred Elizabethan topics that there is no question of his ability to launch such an enterprise as the present with success.

Stevenson's statement, in his essay on the British Admirals, that "God has made nobler heroes, but he never made a finer gentleman, than Walter Raleigh," requires considerable revision. Raleigh's cruelties in Ireland and his share in piratical stock-jobbing aside, his haughtiness towards those below him and his abject fawning upon those who had power or wealth to bestow, mark him off from gentlemen of the finest breeding. Mr. Hume is much too good an historian to become a special pleader for Raleigh or any one else. If he has a hankering for the "spacious times" of Queen Bess, he would, we are sure, be quite ready to see the point of Mr. Owen Seaman's skilful play upon that phrase in the "Battle of the Bays." His general extenuation of the vices shown by the strong men of his chosen age would be that they are symptoms of youth. Italy had no monopoly of Renaissance paganism, and the proverb "Inglese italianato è un diabolo incarnato" is far from being restricted in its application to the sixteenth-century youth who made the grand tour. Renaissance love of display implies wealth, wealth greed, and to greed may be traced the darkest sins of the bold English seamen. We say so much because the idea that Raleigh was a *preux chevalier* seems ineradicable. The majority of people still think of him as spreading his cloak over the mud, or as penning the splendid close of his 'History of the World.'

With Elizabeth's own mixture of public spirit and meanness in full sight, one has the less difficulty in accepting Mr. Hume's view that Raleigh acted in his colonial schemes from conspicuously patriotic motives. Rejecting this analogy, one must crack a good many hard nuts before he can put much faith in the sincerity of the active courtier's motive. For instance, although one is bound to believe that opposition to Spain was a ruling policy with him, some singular matters about Babington's plot remain to be cleared up. According to Mendoza, the Spanish Ambassador at Paris, Raleigh was anxious about this time to sell the Spaniards his own two ships. Philip opposed their purchase on the following grounds. "That is out of the question," he says, "in the first place to avoid his being looked upon with suspicion in his own country, in consequence of his being well treated here, whilst all his countrymen are persecuted; and, secondly, to guard ourselves against the coming of the ships under this pretext being a feint or trick upon us —which is far from being improbable—but you need only mention the first reason to him." Thus Raleigh at a critical juncture in the hatching of plots on the Queen's life was in treaty with the Spaniards, and, according to Mendoza, "he was [in March, 1586] one of the six men privy to the intention to kill the Queen." Perhaps he was only engaged in the pleasant and profitable business of misleading his country's enemies. Yet over against this theory we know how greedy he was in getting rewards and in selling his influence. "When will you cease to ask for favors?" exclaimed Elizabeth one day. "When your Majesty ceases to be a benefactor," was the adroit reply; an answer better suited to the need of the moment than to the demand of posterity.

Despite the unequal nature of Raleigh's literary work, his uncommon ability is above all cavil. The doubt hinges about his patriotism. When Mr. Hume urges that he spent far more on colonizing than he ever got out of it, the answer may be that he was speculative (witness his support of buccaneering ventures), and that his foresight led him to estimate the degree of just credit which would attach itself to a successful settlement. When, again, Mr. Hume urges that Raleigh was more enlightened than his contemporaries in placing agriculture and commerce before mines, the answer may be that this is additional proof of his cleverness, but adds nothing to the argument for his patriotism. We do not mean to say that Raleigh was actuated solely by a desire to get on in the world. A cool-headed self-seeker he certainly was. A Devonshire man, he very possibly set great store by his country's greatness, but we cannot help feeling that this was an incidental rather than a ruling passion. He is compromised by so many shady actions that we must somewhat discount Mr. Hume's praise of his colonial plans. One can forget his constant begging more easily than his part in Spanish intrigues, on whichever side he may have really been. He could grasp a large idea, but it is hard to believe that he was a pure idealist in colonial politics when he lacked that character in other fields of public service.

In claiming our gratitude for Raleigh, Mr. Hume points to the difference between North and South America, and we recognize gladly his part in persuading Englishmen to settle on these shores. Could we suppose that any danger of minimizing his dash, skill, and infinite resource exists, we should without fail dwell on other and more agreeable sides of his character; upon, let us say, his

friendship with Spenser and his place at the head of the squadron in Cadiz harbor. These are matters never to be forgotten, and Raleigh has left an imperishable fame. Mr. Hume treats him in the same vigorous and excellent manner which we have come to associate with his writings on the Elizabethan period. His accuracy is so much a matter of course that we wonder if he is not correct in writing Montoncourt for Moncontour.

Catherine Schuyler. By Mary Gay Humphreys. With portrait. Charles Scribner's Sons.

This biography of the wife of Major-General Schuyler is the sixth and final volume in a series of lives of women of Colonial and Revolutionary times. Mrs. Schuyler was the daughter of John Van Rensselaer, her mother was a Livingston, and she was in many respects a typical matron of her period—a period of which a very fair idea is given in this volume. Of herself we get almost inevitably a somewhat faint picture, the author having a larger supply of material at hand for an impression of the Schuyler household than of the lady at its head. Perhaps the most vivid touch in the book is the passing reference (p. 154) to the painting representing her in the attitude of firing her fields of ripening grain, lest they should fall into the hands of the enemy; but on the whole the chief value of the book lies in the glimpse it affords of family life and social customs among the colonial gentry and magnates of New York in the last half of the 18th century.

The author, being a woman, sees with a woman's eyes and selects her materials with a feminine principle of choice. The result is pleasant reading, with a tinge, perhaps, of that prosy quality by which domestic colonial annals are so apt to be marked. The members of the society described by the author led lives which even contemporary strangers found dull; had it not been for the dangers and excitements of the French and Indian war, and the Revolution, and what followed the Revolution, they would have left behind them little but the uneventful and happy memory of prosperous provincials. But their destiny was, greatly to their own surprise and often dissatisfaction, to take an active part in one of the great movements of history, and to become memorable as the founders of an empire.

To us the most interesting thing in the book is to see how the foundation was laid for their great achievement in the domestic life of America of that day. General Schuyler and his wife and children and their friends became what they were, partly by the strict early training of the time, and partly by constant exposure to dangers and trials which tested and strengthened them. Life in the colonial period was as hard as circumstances could make it, and people in the position of the Schuylers had a sense of responsibility for those dependent on them now difficult to find anywhere. We, whose constant endeavor is to make life as easy as possible, and to shuffle off responsibility of every kind, are apt to forget that our system, though it may be infinitely preferable to what went before, cannot possibly produce types like those of the classical American period. We cannot have Washingtons, and Hamiltons, and Schuylers over again. But we can look back and wonder, and be pretty confident that the wonder will never cease; for no matter how we waste our inheritance, the fame of those who accumulated it for us can never grow dim.

The author gives a good idea of the life of "continual emergency" which was the existence of an important colonial household—especially of the Indian terror always in the background. A curious account, by an eye-witness, of an "exchange of stolen children," is cited on p. 122, the carrying off of children by the Indians having gone on for ten years during the French war. There is also a good description of life in this city in the early days, and a remarkable record of "elopements in high life." The whole country, if not the whole world, was romantic then, though the fact was not discovered till a generation later.

Brunetière's Essays in French Literature. A Selection, translated by D. Nichol Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

The obvious difficulty of rendering in idiomatic English what M. Brunetière expresses in literary, though sometimes crabbed, French, has been easily turned in this translation by tampering as little as possible with the original construction of the sentences. In general, the critic's ideas and conclusions are thus very accurately reproduced, though no good reason seems to be given for clinging to French syntax while occasionally taking disputable liberties with word or phrase. The very first page supplies an illustration of what we mean. Where the original says, "retrancher d'une histoire de la littérature tout ce qui l'a diversifiée," it can hardly be held that "omitting all its eccentricities" perfectly conveys the sense. Again, Corneille "avec des parties d'un Normand" is not quite the same as (p. 6) "with the nature of a Norman"; and if Rousseau is said never to have been "mieux inspiré que par la *défiance*," English readers unsupplied with the text are almost certain to be led astray by the translator's use of the ambiguous word "defiance" (p. 138). In presenting the views of a punctiliously precise master, details of this sort rise into the first rank of importance.

Mr. Smith's volume, which wisely excludes both the more polemical and the theological essays of M. Brunetière, succeeds in giving a sound general impression of the critic's literary position, attitude, and work, chiefly by means of the articles on "The Essential Character of French Literature," "The Philosophy of Molière," "The Classic and Romantic," and "Impressionist Criticism." The first of these sets forth the theory now associated with his name that French literature is marked, not to say dominated, by the spirit of *sociality;* though we confess that to see a verification of this in the cosmopolitan popularity of French novels, which are found "in the booksellers' windows of Vienna and Berlin, of Rome and Naples," had struck us long ere now as a very partial explanation of the facts. French fiction too often finds readers for the same reason that a singer of *chansons gaillardes* from Paris generally makes a successful foreign tour. In the essay on Molière, the austerity of M. Brunetière's ethical ideals finds expression in the exposition and condemnation of the playwright's easy-going laxity as revealed through the true interpretation of the purport of "Tartufe." All these articles, moreover, emphasize the high function which the critic attaches to his profession, for he, less than any one in our day, perhaps, would agree to limit criticism "à connaître de près les belles choses, et à s'en nourrir en exquis amateurs, en humanistes accomplis." But, in our opinion, much the most serviceable, and consequently most permanent, achievement of M. Brunetière's pen is to be sought in his admirably philosophical and scientific treatment of the evolution of the lyrical spirit in modern French poetry, no part of which appears in these papers; and this we recommend to the attention of his present translator.

Letters of Mary Sibylla Holland. London: Edward Arnold.

Mrs. Holland was a sister-in-law of Sir Henry Holland, and late in life she joined the Roman Catholic Church. We are reminded of the well-known epitaph on the Lady O'Looney, who

> "Was bland, passionate, and deeply religious;
> Also she painted in water colors,
> And sent several pictures to the exhibition;
> She was first cousin to Lady Jones,
> And of such is the Kingdom of Heaven."

After reading every letter in this collection, we are lost in wonder at the lack of judgment that made their publication possible. Nothing is more interesting than well-written letters, especially when they deal with public characters and incidents that go to the making of history, or when they contain appreciations of books or pictures or scenery more or less familiar to the reader, or, again, when they show intimate knowledge and love of nature. But here are three hundred pages of letters that deal with little but the daily life of the Holland family. Where the writer touches other topics, the impression produced is of a narrow-minded sentimentality and a lack of what is known as general information. The lady speaks of Sir George Cornewall Lewis as Sir George Cornwall, she places Carlyle much higher than Gladstone, she thanks God that children are not *born* Radicals or agnostics, and she adorns her wearisome pages with little tags of French and Latin as if to claim acquaintance with these tongues. As a specimen of accurate observation we quote from page 180: "At six A. M. I looked out of my window and saw the sun rising well south of west." Her son claims for her that she possessed the rare gift of style, and that she had a peculiar genius for the education of children. These letters show no basis for the first claim, inasmuch as they are sometimes obscure and always commonplace; and our belief in the second is somewhat shaken by the fact that her daughter writes: "The coffin was followed by mamma and I"; and her son (who edits this volume) is guilty of: "older than her." If Mr. Bernard Holland had taken counsel with a literary friend, these and other obvious defects would have been pointed out, the letters would have found their way to some convenient family receptacle, and the world would have been spared another barren book.

Stories from Dante. By Morley Chester. Frederick Warne & Co. 12mo, pp. 227.

As often as "Stories" are constructed from the plaster reproductions of famous works of art, so often is fresh proof given that it is the *art* in the original works that makes them famous. The framework of no great poem is its most essential part; nor are the thoughts, the pictures it contains, what give

it its highest value. In art it is the perfection of form and not of spirit that is rewarded with immortality—the *form*, which is only dimly seen in a translation, and which wholly vanishes in a paraphrase.

With these prefatory remarks to introduce the volume before us, little but good need be said of it. The modesty of its preface suggests the thought, confirmed by the delicate tone of the succeeding pages, and their somewhat inappropriate moral reflections, and by the too constant use of the word "wonderful," that it is from the hand of a woman, which makes more easily forgiven the occasional and not important lack of accurate scholarship and the avoidance in general of allegorical interpretation. A true lover of Dante here simply narrates some of the incidents of his poems, elucidating them by historical sketches. The journey through Hell occupies half the volume, and is the least unsatisfactory portion; Purgatory is rather skipped through, and the ascent through the heavenly spheres is made but a short flight, the greater part of which is occupied with accounts of St. Thomas Aquinas, St. Francis, and St. Dominic and St. Benedict. Tact is shown throughout in the choice of what is told and what is omitted. But no possibilities of choice can make of the 'Divine Comedy' a book that many children—for whom this is intended—could read with pleasure or with profit. Rather a volume like this would be a boon to thoughtful persons who cannot read the original, and to whom the uncouthness of the best translation is a barrier to enjoyment and to understanding. These well-written expositions of the facts, among which are scattered frequent unindicated translations of the more beautiful phrases, might be a helpful introduction to a complete translation. A sensitive reader would at once cut out the "illustrations," except the one from a photograph.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Barnes, Prof. C. R. Plant Life: Considered with Special Reference to Form and Function. Henry Holt & Co.
Becke, Louis, and Jeffery, Walter. The Mutineer. A Romance of Pitcairn Island. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Britton, Prof. N. L., and Brown, Addison. An Illustrated Flora of the Northern U. S., Canada, and the British Possessions. Vol. III. Apocynaceæ to Compositæ. Scribners. $3.
Brown, Calvin. The Later English Drama. Student's Edition. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.20.
Brunetière, F. Essays in French Literature. Scribners. $2.
Brunn, Hermann, and Bulle, Heinrich. Heinrich Brunn's Kleine Schriften. Ester Band. Römische Denkmäler, etc. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Bryce, James. William Ewart Gladstone. Century Co. $1.
Buckingham, Elinor M. Revival of English Poetry in the Nineteenth Century. Selections from Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, Keats, and Byron. The Morse Co.
Burdett's Hospitals and Charities. 1898. London: Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Burt, P. H. Regret of Spring. A Love Episode. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
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Carpenter, Dr. George. Chavasse's Advice to a Mother on the Management of her Children. 15th ed. George Routledge & Sons. $1.
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Curry, J. L. M. A Brief Sketch of George Peabody, and a History of the Peabody Education Fund through Thirty Years. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Darr, Mrs. F. J. A. Handbook of Spanish Words and Phrases. W. R. Jenkins. 25c.
Eliot, George. Silas Marner. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60c.
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Ferguson, Robert. Dulcissima! Dilectissima! A Passage in the Life of an Antiquary. London: Elliot Stock.
Filon, Augustin. Mérimée. [Les Grands Ecrivains Français.] Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Gasc, F. E. A. Library Dictionary of the French and English Languages. Henry Holt & Co.
Gibbs, L. R. Coleridge's Ancient Mariner. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gooch, G. P. The History of English Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Hall, Gertrude. The Hundred, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Hay, Rev. C. E. Luther the Reformer. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 40c.
Hilyard, Ida L. Love Does It All. Boston: J. H. West. 50c.
Hollopeter, Dr. W. C. Hay-Fever and its Successful Treatment. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. $1.
Howells, W. D. The Story of a Play. Harpers. $1.50.
Janvier, T. A. In the Sargasso Sea. Harpers. $1.25.
Johnson, E. H. Sursum Corda. A Book of Praise. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
Kent, C. W. Graphic Representation of English and American Literature. Henry Holt & Co.
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Leifsnam, S. D. The Gathered Waifs: Lyrics and Odes, Patriotic, Martial, and Religious. New York: The Author.
Lepelletier, E., and Rachel C. Amours de Don Juan. Paris: Nilsson; New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.
Louys, Pierre. La Femme et le Pantin: Roman Espagnol. Paris: Mercure de France; New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 4, 1898.

The Week.

As we go to press, peace seems to be assured by Spain's acceptance of our conditions as roughly outlined on another page. The cessation of hostilities must give joy to every rational being except political soldiers and pension agents.

The terms of Gen. Miles's proclamation to the Porto Ricans were quite unnecessarily and disgustingly hypocritical. It would have been much better to begin by telling the inhabitants of Porto Rico the truth. Or, if our real intentions had to be disguised, we might simply have said that we were at war with Spain and had come to fight her army wherever we could find it. But to talk about delivering a people "oppressed for centuries," about bearing "the banners of freedom," etc., is enough to turn the stomach of an ostrich. Gen. Miles says he is seeking to destroy "the enemies of our government and yours." What is the government of Porto Rico? It is an autonomous government, granted the island at the demand of the United States! Who its enemies are, therefore, unless they be Gen. Miles and his army, it would puzzle the Porto Ricans to say. Nobody, of course, is deceived by these false pretences. All the world knows that we drive the Spanish out of Porto Rico because we do not think it safe to leave them there after Cuba is independent; also, because our military authorities have decided that we need the island for strategic reasons; also, because, as Senator Hanna has said, it is a "very desirable possession." No doubt the Porto Ricans are perfectly willing we should take them. No doubt they will be more prosperous under our rule. But all the hypocrisy might well have been omitted.

Public interest is no longer centred on the movements of our forces in the West Indies. It is the situation in the Philippine Islands that is now everywhere discussed. The recent dispatches from that quarter of the globe make it plain that, no matter what the terms of peace with Spain may be, the insurgents must be reckoned with before these islands can have settled government. We have taken the wolf by the ears, and the problem is how to let go. Our information is, indeed, very imperfect. It is reported that Admiral Dewey has said that it would take an army of 150,000 men to establish the authority of our Government over these islands, and that Gen. Merritt will want 50,000 men at once in order to make a good beginning. Were our Government merely to step into the shoes of that of Madrid, and allow these people to continue to govern themselves or to be governed by the religious orders, the problem would be sufficiently serious. But our Government could not maintain this position. It would have to send its own administrative officers and displace the Spanish clergy. This policy might not be acceptable even in this country. It would be odious to the Pope, and would probably be resisted by the religious orders with that elusive and elastic opposition which has heretofore worn out so many persecutors. Nor can we assume that this policy would be acceptable to the natives themselves. We should tell them that they would be much better off under our rule; that the English language would supersede that of Spain, the American religion that of Rome, and that district schools would be everywhere established from which religious instruction would be carefully excluded. We can see how much better off they would be with all these things, but they are unfortunately not so enlightened as to see with our eyes. Judging from the unvarying lessons of history, they would rebel against the introduction of a new civilization. That means that we should have to slaughter a great many of them, and that the survivors would have so little liking for this civilizing process that they would hate us and be ready to kill us whenever they had a chance.

Senator Hoar's views on public questions are frequently interesting, because he gives such excellent reasons for voting otherwise than he does. In his remarks at Marblehead on Friday, he "pointed with pride" to the fact that he always voted as Senator Lodge did, although he has been conspicuous in his opposition to many measures favored by Lodge. On the matter of the war, Senator Hoar rather surpassed himself in inconsistency. He declared that the war might have been avoided if it had not been for the speeches of our Congressmen. We could have established friendly relations with Spain, spared her honor, and effected the peaceful deliverance of Cuba. It might seem to follow from this, as Prof. Norton is reported to have reasoned, that to go to war when our ends could have been peacefully attained, was wicked. Not at all, says Senator Hoar. This fact does not affect the moral quality of our action. This war "is none the less a holy, just, or honorable war" because we could have averted it. There seems to be something casuistical in this morality, not to say Jesuitical, but Mr. Hoar had got himself into a tight place, and he had to get out as best he could.

On the question of subjugating other peoples, Senator Hoar carped away in most un-American style. His utterances were pessimistic to a degree sufficient to make Prof. Norton's seem radiant with hopefulness. Instead of maintaining that the American people was great enough and good enough to do anything it chose, Mr. Hoar declared that it would be a sad thing for this country and for mankind if we were to abandon our fundamental doctrine. He said that we should probably fail in a colonial policy, just as Spain has failed. If we undertake to govern backward peoples, the American spirit will not enter into and possess them, but their spirit will enter into and possess us. We must say that such doubts as these appear to be reasonable; but why should Senator Hoar denounce other people with such violence for suggesting them? Is it because such people do not cease to support their principles, in spite of party claims, while Senator Hoar's convictions are subordinate to the requirement of voting straight?

While we are gasping our complaints of sultry weather, and doubting if life is worth living under such conditions, we may do well to think of the sufferings of the firemen, and, indeed, of all hands, on our war-ships. A correspondent of the *Tribune* gives some frightful particulars of the heat which prevails in the fire-rooms of some of these vessels. On the *Amphitrite* a temperature of 120 degrees Fahrenheit in the engine-room is reported, and 148 degrees in the fire-room. The *Terror* reports 140 degrees in the engine-room and 155 in the fire-room, while in the case of the *Cincinnati* a temperature of 205 degrees is said to have been registered, or only 7 degrees less than the boiling point of water. Even on the battle-ships, where there is more space between decks and less heat, relatively, from the furnaces, the "cooling" air pumped into the fire-rooms is frequently of a temperature of 100 degrees. It is difficult to believe that human beings can exist at all under such conditions, and if our navy is to be employed in the tropics, it will evidently be necessary to improve things. We cannot expect to obtain men of a superior class to doom themselves to perpetual torment as firemen, and yet the service of the engines is as important as that of the guns. It is gratifying to see that our commanders generously recognize the energy and fidelity with which the firemen and engineers, although deprived of the *gaudium certaminis* which stimulated the gunners, devoted themselves to their work. Their position, judging from the casualties on the Spanish vessels, is hardly less dangerous

than that of the men working the guns, and their task is infinitely less inspiring. They certainly deserve a liberal share in the glory of the victory, and should not be forgotten when we are praising the valor of the more conspicuous combatants. The best recognition of their merits would be to afford them relief from the frightful heat to which they are now exposed by making peace as soon as possible.

The tranquillity with which the danger of pestilence is borne by our people is a manifestation of patriotism which must gratify everybody. It is hard to believe that a few years ago this community was wild with terror at the approach of a vessel on which cases of cholera had appeared, when we see the ready welcome given to invalid soldiers from Cuba who are certainly much more likely to bring infection than were the passengers of the *Normannia*. Those unfortunate persons were nearly driven into the sea by a mob of furious Long Islanders, although there was not the slightest reason to apprehend any danger from their proximity. But now the news that thousands of soldiers from the plague-stricken region of Santiago are to be landed at Montauk causes hardly a ripple of apprehension. It will be calmly said that the arrangements will be such that there will be no occasion for alarm; but that might have been said, and indeed was said, with little effect, when the cholera was approaching. Certainly the nerves of the community are a good deal steadier now than they were then.

Taking our Government's actual outlay for the war up to the present time, and comparing this with previous contests of the kind, it will be found that the Spanish war, thus far, has not been a costly contest. Army and navy expenses, at the present time, are using up something more than a million dollars daily. This seems at first sight an extremely heavy outlay. It must, however, be remembered that, even in time of peace, and with the small American standing army, the war and navy establishments have habitually cost the Government nearly a quarter of a million per day. The fact that the present contest has been concentrated at a few points, and that at only one of these points has there been really heavy fighting, has also tended to keep down the scale of cost as compared with other wars. How far an extension of the contest over a larger area affects the cost of war is amply shown by the experience of our civil war. In the twelve months ending June 30, 1861, before any active operations, the War Department cost the Government only $23,000,000. In the next twelve months—the fiscal year 1862—such expenditure rose to $389,000,000; in 1863 to $603,000,000; and in the year ending with June, 1865, the remarkable maximum was touched of $1,030,690,000. This represented an actual disbursement, for the army alone, of nearly three million dollars daily. Aside, however, from the facts that a much larger number of soldiers were in active service in 1865 than in 1898, and that waste of stores and ammunition had become enormous, it must be remembered that the depreciation of the currency in the civil war, and consequent violent rise of prices, even for Government purchases, did its part in heaping up the total of war expenditures.

An impression prevails in Wall Street that the new loan has been a failure in the sense that the Government did not realize the premium on the bonds, which is now equal to 4 per cent. or more. This premium would have been equal to $8,000,000, which has been reaped by persons who subscribed for less than $5,000 each. These are now gradually pocketing the $8,000,000 of profit by selling the bonds to capitalists of a larger class, who can afford to invest their money at a less rate of interest than 3 per cent. It should be borne in mind, however, that the Government seldom or never realizes the whole value of the bonds which it sells. Nor does a city or a State or a railroad company realize the entire value of its securities when it makes a large issue. The Government has issued bonds on five different occasions within five years, and in no other case has it come so near to realizing the full market value of the securities as in this instance. But the intention of the Secretary of the Treasury in this case was not to get the last possible dollar out of the bond sale, but to head off the demagogues who would be sure to raise a cry against "the money power" if the bonds were sold to a syndicate in the first instance. No group of bankers would have paid a premium of 4 per cent. They offered to pay 1 per cent., and they might have paid something more, but the political consequences would have been bad. There has not been a lisp of objection to this bond sale, whereas the Populist orators and the yellow newspapers made the welkin ring with their outcries against some of the loans made under the Cleveland Administration, and actually convinced many people that the Government had been defrauded by them.

The July revenue figures show that, in spite of the heavy increase in receipts, there is still a current deficit of $30,000,000 monthly, or about one million dollars a day. This, it is needless to say, is the largest monthly deficit since the civil war. The increase in the Treasury's cash balance during July was $49,186,000, which proves, after allowing for the revenue deficit, that $79,000,000 was actually paid in last month on the Government-bond subscriptions. The $121,000,000 of the loan remaining to be paid is to be received in equal instalments spreading over nearly five months; it is obvious, therefore, that if the deficit were to continue at the present rate, there would at the expiration of this time be no increase in the Treasury's cash balance, but a moderate decrease. In other words, there is no chance whatever of any more serious disturbance of the money market than has occurred already, and as yet there has been not a sign of stringency. As for the efficacy of the new internal taxes, it appears from the statement that last month's receipts from this source increased $6,400,000 over July, 1897, and $11,800,000 over 1896, which is a fairer basis of comparison. Except for the periods in 1897 and 1894 when internal-revenue receipts were swelled by anticipatory payments on the eve of a new revenue law, last month's taxes are nearly double those of any month since the last "war taxes" were removed in 1883. Of customs revenue not much can be said; had it been left alone, the Dingley act would still have been making deficits in time of peace. Slightly increased as it is over the early months of the current year, the July customs income remains almost at the level of years like 1893 and 1895.

The first result of the new primary-election law is the disbandment of the anti-machine Republican organization, as was predicted when the law was passed. In fact, it was this probable result which reconciled Governor Black to the enactment of the law. He foresaw, as others did, that when once the reformers consented to go into the primaries, all excuse for further "kicking" against the machine would be taken from them. They must abide by the result so long as they could not charge that the primaries had been dishonestly conducted. The machine leaders felt perfectly certain of their ability to take care of the "kickers" after they had once entered, for they knew to a certainty that their own men would always outnumber all representatives of the Better Element fully two to one. They have succeeded in their expectations, the party is harmonious, the machine leaders have overwhelming control, and all will go smoothly until a new opposition movement shall be started somewhere in the dim future. In the meantime the only hope of accomplishing anything which remains to the absorbed reformers is to induce a large number of indifferent Better Element citizens to "go into the primaries" at the next opportunity.

The attention of our people is so much absorbed by the war that the importance of the negotiations that are about beginning between this country and Can-

ada is quite disregarded. Yet when we consider that Canada is among nations our third largest customer, the value of the goods that we sell to her being greater than that of our exports to nearly all the other States of North and South America, the indifference of our merchants to this trade is astonishing. Their imaginations seem to be so affected with dreams of the wealth of China and the islands of the South Sea, that the possibilities of a great commerce close at hand are totally ignored. Here is a country whose trade is worth more to us than the trade of all the rest of the continent, more than all the foreign trade of the Pacific Coast, and we can increase it enormously by a simple measure of rational legislation. We do not need to increase our army or enlarge our navy in order to secure this profitable commerce; on the contrary, the greater this commerce, the more superfluous will such armaments be. Every inhabitant of the Dominion, on an average, buys twelve dollars' worth of American goods annually, and if our tariff were abolished, the trade would probably double in a short time. Let people who want to find an outlet for our manufactures open their eyes to what lies right before them, instead of gazing off over the Pacific Ocean.

Mr. Hooley's revelations regarding the practices and troubles of a London "company promoter," which are now becoming explicit in his testimony before the court, will hardly surprise any one at all familiar with the nature of this peculiar industry. The London press, at the time the fallen "promoter" made his first accusations, some weeks ago, professed much surprise and disturbance over his allegation that blackmailing by newspapers had swallowed up the greater portion of his profits. Certainly the sums declared to have been thus expended were startling, Mr. Hooley having distinctly affirmed that to one newspaper he paid £40,000 for its support of his enterprise, and that a single "puff" in another paper called for £10,000. But the practice, so far as the London financial community is concerned, has long been a matter of notoriety. Nor need any surprise be excited by the names of the newspapers now given out as parties to the practice. Even American concerns, with legitimate undertakings to put out on the English market, have for several years found at the first step this obstacle of newspapers which must, in the American phrase, be "fixed." This rule appeared to apply with equal force in the case of enterprises where no "puff" was deemed essential. Disinterested friends of the promoter would assure him that he must begin by meeting the editors of these precious publications, because, if he ignored them, he might expect, not silence, but abuse and deliberate attack.

These methods, it is perhaps reassuring to observe, appear not to have been practised, even in Mr. Hooley's case, by the important London daily papers, but to have been confined to a swarm of so-called "financial dailies" published in the neighborhood of Capel Court. It might be imagined that since the practices of these publications were notorious, their influence on the public would have waned, and that with the decline of their influence the necessity for "arrangements" by the promoter would have disappeared. At all events, the payment of £10,000 in a lump, under such conditions, would seem to be preposterous. But here, it appears to us, Mr. Hooley has something for which to answer on his own account. It has been sufficiently proved by the action of the market for his shares, that the companies (such as the Dunlop Tire concern) which he bought up and retailed to the outside investor, were absurdly overcapitalized on the distribution. This, indeed, was essential to the procuring of such enormous personal profits as the promoter demanded for himself, his double problem being to induce a paying enterprise to sell out in a season of flush business, and to induce the public to pay a handsome bonus over this first advance. In such an undertaking, the need of "settling" with the purchasable press was obvious; for even if these papers could not aid the stock-jobbing scheme by their unstinted praise, they certainly had it in their power to wreck the plan by a thorough and truthful exposure of its weakness. As for the flutter among the titled "directors" in these various enterprises, we suspect that the chief interest to outsiders will be the curious infatuation of the English public over any association with a name of rank and station. The more intrinsically doubtful an enterprise, the more need of a noble name subscribed to its prospectus, and apparently the titled "founders" knew their value. Judging from Mr. Hooley's revelations, the cost of this sort of luxury came high; yet we presume that the promoter himself reckoned it in beforehand as an unavoidable "fixed charge."

One of the most important steps in British colonial policy that have been recently suggested is that of establishing a "Colonial Loans Fund." It has of recent years become the practice of the English Government to lend its credit to municipalities and other governing bodies, in order to enable them to effect loans at lower rates of interest. The justification of this practice is that the deposits in the Government savings banks must be put out at interest, and these municipal loans afford a convenient security. But the supply of capital is now so great in England that the larger local governing bodies find that they can do better by borrowing in the open market than by applying to the central Government. Hence the difficulty of lending the savings-banks deposits is likely to increase as the outstanding loans are paid off. It seems to be now the case that the savings banks are carried on by the Government at a loss; the rate of interest paid depositors being greater than that earned by their deposits, and the deficiency being made up from the public revenues. While it is wise for a government not to discourage saving, it is certainly unjust for it to compel subjects who have no money in the banks to pay a tribute to those who have, and the situation in England is therefore critical. The proposal brought forward by Mr. Balfour is for the Government to establish a fund from which loans may be made to the crown colonies under parliamentary authority, just as loans have been heretofore made to English cities. Doubtless a fund of this description would furnish employment for the savings-banks deposits, and very likely its establishment would be regarded with enthusiasm in the colonies. But whether it is for the interest of depositors that their money should be invested in the colonies through such financial agencies as Parliament and the colonial authorities, is a much more doubtful question. It is at least conceivable that a colonial government may not be able to repay a loan, and Parliament would then be obliged to make up the loss to depositors out of other revenue.

The Dual Monarchy is causing almost as much anxiety in Europe as the revolutionary movements in Spain and Italy and the disquieting menace of French militarism. The two divisions of the empire are still quarrelling over the *Ausgleich* that fixes their customs and tariffs and contributions to the common funds, and each state is disturbed with internal troubles. In Hungary an agrarian agitation, modelled on the familiar Irish pattern, has forced the large landowners to call in the help of the military. In Austria the hatred of the Germans and the Czechs, never more bitter than it is to-day, has been stirred up afresh by Count Badeni's ordinances placing German and Czech on an official par in Bohemia. The Czechs see in this recognition of the equality of the two tongues the first step towards their ideal of an independent kingdom of Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, and threaten to turn to Russia unless the ordinances are enforced. The Germans insist upon their repeal as necessary to preserve their political ascendency. Neither side will hear of a compromise, and so severe is the tension between the two races that at the recent manœuvres some German and Czech regiments fell foul of one another, and several lives were lost before they could be separated. Still, the Hapsburgs always manage to survive.

PEACE NEGOTIATIONS.

Spain's actual inquiry of President McKinley upon what terms peace may be made between Spain and the United States comes at an opportune time, when Congress is not in session and when the Executive Department can perform its duties with comparative calmness. Of course any treaty of peace must be ratified by the Senate, but negotiations of this character are conducted to much greater advantage by a small number of negotiators than by a large number. Constitutionally, the Senate has nothing to do with treaties till they are drafted and laid before it; but if the Senate were in session now, each individual Senator would expect to have his say about the terms. Under present circumstances it is possible for the President to offer the country a *fait accompli*, and for the country to form an opinion upon it, before the Senate is convened. This is certainly a piece of good fortune.

The text of the conditions of peace handed by Secretary Day to Minister Cambon on Saturday has not been made public, but there is little doubt that they embrace the withdrawal of Spain from Cuba and Porto Rico and the cession of something in the Ladrones and in the Philippines. The latest report is that the question of the Philippines is to be held open for future adjustment, and that, meanwhile, we are to maintain what we now hold there—that is, the harbor of Manila, perhaps the city itself. It is said that a cable dispatch from Admiral Dewey, saying that the native forces were becoming a source of anxiety to him, has inclined the President to leave to Spain the task of dealing with them. Another dispatch represents that the only influence capable of quieting the natives is that of the Roman Catholic clergy, and that without them no military force which either Spain or the United States could muster and maintain there, could preserve the fruits of civilization in the islands.

Against the policy of withdrawing from the Philippines it is said that we are surrendering the islanders to Spanish tyranny and misrule, and that that is not decent. This objection overlooks the fact that we have never had control of either the territory or the inhabitants of the Philippines, that we did not go to war with any reference to the Philippines, and that our being there at all is due to the accidental presence in Asiatic waters of Admiral Dewey's fleet. Do any or all of these facts impose obligations upon us respecting the natives of those islands? Some people talk as though we had originally taken up arms for the Filipinos. Others seem to think that we are in possession of the two thousand islands which compose that territory, and that it is now a question of giving them up, whereas we hold only a small scrap of land at the entrance to the principal town, which happens to be the seat of the provincial government. Still others talk as though it was our mission to deliver from oppression all peoples under the yoke of Spain, we being the judges of the oppression and of the kind of relief needful in each case—questions to be settled on the stump and in the newspapers of the United States.

All these assumptions are marvels of crudity and misinformation. When we went to war, not one human being in the United States had a thought of the Philippines. Few persons knew that they belonged to Spain. Fewer still cared whether they did or not. That we were not charged with any responsibility concerning them, however the case may have been with Cuba, everybody must agree. Did Admiral Dewey's victory over the Spanish fleet bring any such responsibility? Bear in mind that it was Cuba, and Cuba only, that we were fighting about, and that Admiral Dewey's fight was only one means of crippling the power of Spain, so that she would have less fighting machinery and less money to use against us in other places, and so that she might sooner be brought to terms of peace. Therefore, we incurred no moral responsibility touching the Philippines when we demolished Admiral Montojo's fleet. As a matter of fact, we have acquired nothing in that quarter beyond what is covered by the range of our guns. The territory in question is larger in area than New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, and the amount held by us is not so large or so populous as Staten Island.

How idle, then, to talk about the responsibility we have incurred in respect of the Filipinos. What does that responsibility consist of? Most advocates of annexation say that it is our duty to deliver the natives from Spanish rule; but are we sure that they would relish our rule any better? We have seen that the Cuban insurgents want nothing of us except that we shall drive out the Spaniard and leave the rest to them. The Filipinos probably want the same thing, and, if they are not to have it, will make all the trouble for us that they can. That these possibilities are weighing upon Admiral Dewey's mind seems clear from his later dispatches.

It is not moral responsibility, but greed of gain, that prompts the more influential part of our Philippine annexationists. They want the islands for what they can make out of them in the way of trade. That is an intelligible reason, and is a proper one in so far as it does not come in conflict with the principles which we proclaimed to the world as our justification for the war. This was not to be a war of conquest or a war for gain. It was not even a war for the human race in general. It was Cuban deliverance in particular. We promised when this was accomplished to make peace. Now this condition has been so far fulfilled that it is within our option to have peace on our own terms. And now a few traders, calling themselves Export Associations or what not, start up and demand more bloodshed in order to secure something which not one human being in the country cared for four months ago, and which the whole people would reprobate, and denounce, and shrink in horror from as an original cause of war. Yet if peace is within reach, consistently with the causes for which we drew the sword, then the prolongation of the war on account of the Philippines is the same thing in effect as going to war afresh on account of the Philippines.

MULTIPLYING DIFFICULTIES IN CUBA.

We are now holding and governing a little corner of Cuba—about one-twentieth of the island. We are doing it under favorable circumstances. It is a military government we have set up. It is in the hands of a man who has shown himself to be of great force and courage. He has practically absolute and arbitrary power. The experiment could not have been begun under better conditions, and yet the difficulties in the way are thickening every day, new obstacles meet Gen. Shafter at every turn, and the whole situation is clouded and threatening. In short, we have in the part of the province of Santiago which we are administering a sufficient and sufficiently disagreeable prophecy of the tremendous task which awaits us when we come to occupy the whole island, preparatory to leaving it "pacified" and with a "stable government" in beautiful operation.

Undoubtedly the insurgents are going to prove the ugliest factor in the problem. It is already evident that we must discriminate between the insurgents and the Cubans. The Cubans as a whole—meaning all those who have any property, or who expect to live by industry instead of politics—desire annexation to the United States. It was estimated before the war that this was the case with 90 per cent. of them, and reports as to the sentiment now prevalent confirm those figures. But the active insurgents are hot for a republic of their own. They want it at once, with all the spoils implied. Gen. Castillo, one of the better class of them, sets forth their hopes and fears, their plans and disappointments and rage, in an interview with a correspondent of the *Herald*.

Gen. Castillo speaks with a good deal of personal feeling, for he was, or thought he was, singled out to be Governor of Santiago. Gen. Garcia had appointed him. The refugees at El Caney had taken a vote and elected him. What better title to the office could there be? But Gen. Shafter cruelly ignored him. Castillo had thoughtfully appointed, in

advance, all the officers of the new government, but not one of them got in sight of the promised land. They were not even allowed to enter the city. No wonder this fills them all with the most "gloomy forebodings" about the future of Cuba. They see their "long-cherished dream," a Cuban republic, "vanishing in the dim distance."

Not that Gen. Castillo cares so very much about a Cuban republic either. He says he is "no opponent of annexation," and firmly believes that it will "solve the Cuban problem with the greatest benefit to the island." But he desires ardently the establishment and recognition of a republic as a preliminary. It need not last very long. A few months would do, for in that time the Cubans would have got all the offices. If you pressed Gen. Castillo, we do not believe he would insist upon his republic lasting more than a day. A few minutes would really do, for then the bonds would be good and annexation would be robbed of its terrors. Precisely this is the position to which the insurgents and their bondholders have now come. They no longer pretend that they could set up a government in Cuba which would last or ought to last. All they want is a republic good enough to validate their bonds—or, as they express it, "the realization of the object of our long fight"—and then they are ready for annexation or any fate. But their bonds are so much waste paper and will never be anything else. President McKinley squelched the conspiracy to make them good when it was nearest success, and it will never again bid so fair to win.

The other difficulties of governing Cuba speak for themselves in the daily dispatches. The people over whom our rule is to be extended are of another language and religion, of different customs, of another system of law. In all these respects the process of adjustment must be enormously difficult. How are the Spanish law of crime, methods of justice, law of real estate to be reconciled to the American? Already there is a hitch over the minor matter of currency. The obtuse Cuban mind cannot understand why the American silver dollar, weighing less than the Mexican, should be worth twice as much. This would seem to indicate the need of Col. Bryan as military governor. But seriously, this little misunderstanding, laughable as it is, is but symptomatic of the great gulf fixed between Cuban ideas and American ideas—a gulf which must be successfully bridged before we can be said to have accomplished our work in Cuba.

What we see now in the island is just what we were told beforehand, by those who knew, that we should see. The character of the insurgents was no secret. Mr. Phelps warned us against them in vain. Those who had lived with them and fought with them told us the manner of men they were. All the other complexities into which we now find ourselves plunged were set forth with particularity before the war. But with inconceivable jauntiness the American people set out light-heartedly, as for a holiday excursion, upon an enterprise which we now see to be the arduous labor of years. The Scriptures picture the plight of a man who taketh a dog by the ears. We have now got the Cubans by the ears, in both senses of the phrase, and the process of letting go, to which we are pledged, promises to be as perilous as was that of taking hold.

POTENTIAL PREPARATION FOR WAR.

We think that history shows that three-quarters of the respect for its wishes and demands inspired by this country abroad comes, not from the actual size of its army and navy in time of peace, but from the impression produced abroad by the wealth and character of the population, and the widespread knowledge of the fact that we always prove in war a most formidable antagonist. Moreover, this is not a theory or "fad" of our invention, but has been the position taken by the country itself for the hundred years of its existence; it has been emphatically the American view of the subject as opposed to the European view, which has been that the only way to impress your neighbors with your importance was to be always armed to the teeth. The European view is illustrated by the existing military establishment of every great European Power and by the naval establishment of England. It is illustrated even by such a European country as Spain, which six months ago had a "war strength" of a million and a half men, with 120,000 veterans in Cuba all ready to attack the United States, a country, according to the European view, nearly defenceless.

We are well aware that the fact that it is really the long-established American view does not of itself prove that it is right; but the whole subject is so befogged, no doubt often unintentionally, by those who confound it with questions of strategy and actual warfare, that it may be worth while to call the attention of our readers to a few of the more notorious instances in which this old-fashioned American view of preparation for war has been brought to the test and proved to be worth something. To test the correctness of the European view, writers often appeal to considerations for which they draw upon their imagination. It is said, for instance, that if we are going to have a canal across the isthmus, we must have a great navy to defend it; the fact being that we have now a treaty with England under which the neutrality of any canal that may be made is guaranteed by England with the greatest naval force in the world. We shall not go into speculations of this sort, but content ourselves with citing a few cases in which the United States has successfully defied her powerful neighbors, and in one case the whole world, though unprovided with any adequate means of immediate attack or defence. It must, we think, be conceded that such instances, whatever else may be said of them, as far as they go, tend to prove that three-quarters of the force we exercise in the counsels of the world comes, not from the spectacle of our actual military and naval strength, but from the strength we are known to have in reserve.

The first instance to which we shall refer is that of the announcement of the Monroe Doctrine in 1823. In that year we suddenly announced to Europe "that the American continents, by the free and independent position which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European Power." We had at the time a population of ten or twelve millions, and were unprepared for war; ten years before, the English had captured Washington and burned all the public buildings. We had no warrant in international law for the Doctrine, which, in fact, ran purposely counter to the established international right to found colonies here. Yet our mere declaration, coupled, of course, with the implied warning that future colonization would be resisted by us, accomplished our purpose so successfully that no European colonies have ever since been established here.

Our next instance is that of the Venezuela boundary, a case in which, being entirely unprepared by land and sea, we insisted that England should arbitrate a dispute with a third Power, threatening her with war if she refused. This was a more remarkable instance than that of the *Alabama* claims, in which we succeeded in getting an arbitration for ourselves without actually threatening war; but the Treaty of Washington was a distinct proof of the difficulty an armed nation may have in resisting the demand of an unarmed one.

Another memorable case is that of the *Virginius*, which at some points resembled that of the *Maine*, but in which we secured reparation without arming or preparation for war. The *Virginius*, flying the American flag, was overhauled on the high seas by the Spaniards, taken into a Cuban port, and her Captain and many of her crew, some of whom were American citizens, tried and shot as filibusters. For this Spain apologized, surrendered the ship, promised to salute the American flag, agreed to punish the officer who was responsible for the outrage, and paid indemnity—that is, Spain not merely made reparation, but humiliated herself in the dust. We were

partly in the wrong, too, for the papers of the *Virginius* turned out to be fraudulent, and the salute to the flag was consequently waived. The English had claims growing out of the same incident, but we got much more reparation than they did, though we were practically unarmed, and they were, as they are today, the great naval Power of the world. The case is a remarkable proof of the truth of the American "theory" of the matter; so is that of Martin Koszta, on whose behalf we defied Austria in 1849 with a single frigate, and so laid the foundation of the whole modern doctrine of the right of expatriation, gradually though unwillingly adopted by Europe at our instance.

We might mention other conspicuous instances in which this country has secured important triumphs, although entirely unready for war, but we have selected only those about which there can be no doubt. There is much room for dispute over the Monroe Doctrine, and over the Venezuela case, and over that of the *Virginius* and Koszta, but there is no sort of doubt that they are all illustrations of extreme demands made by this country, forced in one case on Spain, in another on England, in a third on Austria, and in a fourth on the whole of Europe, without our arming or in any sense preparing for war. Why were we successful? We can think of no military reason except that what we proposed, though very unpalatable, was less unpalatable than a war with what the experts would have called our weak, unprepared country.

Questions of this sort are, in fact, not questions for military or naval experts, but for the plain average American citizen to settle for himself by the study of history and the evidence accessible to everybody. These are not questions of fighting, but of how to avoid the necessity of fighting, and here military and naval authority is of the worst possible, since all its training and bias is of the opposite kind. The question on which we have made these suggestions is not one for a military or a naval board, but for the people at large to decide, because the decision rests with them. When we go over the list of our achievements in the last hundred years we are quite at a loss to conceive what more we could have done had we turned every man into a soldier and launched a new battle-ship every six months. Above all, do not let us be deceived into the belief that the theory of a great permanent military and naval establishment is American. It is a European superstition, to which our whole history gives the lie.

THE ISOLATION OF OUR COUNTRY

There is one particular in which the most intolerant and vociferous patriots admit that our country deserves criticism. They openly confess, with more or less affectation of humility, that we have done wrong in following a policy of isolation, or at least that we shall do wrong if we continue to follow it. This discovery of our national shortcoming has had a particularly marked influence on a number of our religious editors. After great searchings of heart they now profess conviction of sin. They confess that this people has been following too much its own devices and desires, and neglecting its responsibilities as a member of the community of nations. It must repent of its selfishness, and take part with other countries in the great work of civilizing and Christianizing the world. But just what this work is to be, and what part we are to take in it, our prophets will not disclose. They put us off with reference to the good pleasure of the Almighty, or with warnings, not insincere, perhaps, about not being wise overmuch. In this there is some excuse for them, but there is no excuse for any uncertainty as to what is meant by the isolation of our country. That is not something in the future, but relates to the past and the present; and if we have been guilty as a nation, we have a right to demand that our offence be clearly stated and properly proved. Since no definite answers to these inquiries are vouchsafed to the public, we will answer them ourselves.

We have isolated ourselves. We have passed laws intended to keep other nations from prospering by preventing them from selling goods to us, while we were trying to sell goods to them. We have intentionally ruined foreign industries and brought foreign workmen to starvation, and have exulted in it. We have levied high duties on books and works of art, and have thus done what we could to exclude the highest civilization and isolate ourselves from the most advanced development. We have built a Chinese wall of tariffs against our neighbors on the north and against our neighbors on the south. We have tried to hurt the poor fishermen of Newfoundland and the poor miners of Mexico, and have endeavored to make the planters of Cuba and the ranchmen of Argentina pay our taxes. We have done these things from avowedly selfish motives, and on the ground that we were looking out for our own interests and not for those of other nations; and we have boasted of our success. Of such a policy of isolation we may plead guilty, and, for our own part, we need hardly say that we have denounced this policy in season and out of season, and been denounced in return as "un-American" for doing so.

But in equally important respects we have not isolated ourselves. We have boasted, and we did well in boasting, that this country was the refuge for the oppressed of all nations. We have welcomed the poor people of Europe to our shores and our homes. We have invited them to a land where they should be free in their religion and in their lives, in their thoughts and in their acts. We have provided them with the blessed privileges of education for their children and of homes for their families. We have welcomed them to a happy land, where the right to labor and to accumulate and enjoy the fruits of labor was a fundamental principle of the Constitution and was carefully recognized by our laws, as it was nowhere else in the world; a land where taxation was not burdensome, and where they could enjoy exemption from the perennial curse of older countries, the crushing weight of military armaments. We have accepted them as fellow-citizens on the ground of the equality of all men, as the children of a common Father, and shared with them that sacred right of self-government proclaimed in our Declaration of Independence and our Bills of Rights. We have sometimes faltered in our course and wavered in our policy; but we have on the whole exhibited to the world the most splendid example of non-isolation that the world has ever seen or can ever again see.

And now we are asked to abandon our generous principles of human equality and self-government, of peace and freedom, and engage in military struggles. Our imperialists do not talk of war, but they mean it. They tell us that other nations will spring at our throats if we are not on our guard; they pray that we may be quick to resent insults, and insist on steps that will convert the friendly feeling of other nations into hatred and hostility. Henceforth no American can expect to be a welcome traveller in Spain, perhaps soon not a welcome visitor in France or Germany. We are advised that we must arouse the fear and jealousy of other countries by creating armies and navies that shall make them feel their inferiority to us. We may continue to welcome immigrants, but only on condition that they are ready to go to war with the countries of their birth, and slaughter their own kith and kin. We shall stipulate that they must come prepared to submit to the military yoke which they hate, and to pay the taxes required to maintain this yoke. They may continue to come and labor, if they will labor on the conditions which have made their lot miserable in other countries. They may enjoy such of the fruits of their labor as our Government will not take from them to maintain armies and fleets and fortifications in all quarters of the globe. This, we say, is not to abandon isolation, but to abandon the most glorious and beneficent example of non-isolation which history presents.

What of the isolation that the party in power has practised and boasted of? Washington, who, in the opinion of our modern patriots, must now be called

rather the grandfather than the father of his country, his counsels being thought to show signs of senility, advised us to avoid entanglements with foreign Powers. But he in the same breath advised us to extend our commercial relations. Have we outgrown these counsels, to which, indeed, we have never grown up? What imperialist dares to mention free trade? What Republican politician ventures to hint at the abandonment of protection? What recent convert to admiration for England's course towards weaker peoples proposes to imitate the only feature of her policy which has made it successful, the overthrow of all commercial restraints? Concerning these things a veritable policy of "isolation" exists among the leaders of the Republican party; but they will be obliged to emerge from their seclusion. Let them tell the country whether the trade of the colonies they propose to annex is to be thrown open to the world, or to be kept for the exclusive benefit of our merchants and manufacturers. When this question is answered, the world will know what judgment to pass on the magnanimity of our motives.

BISMARCK.

Otto Edward Leopold von Bismarck, who died on July 30, was born at Schönhausen in the Old Mark of Brandenburg, Province of Saxony, Kingdom of Prussia, on the 1st of April, 1815. He came of a line of country gentlemen whose main business was always the care of their estates in the Mark and in Pomerania, but who incidentally, like most Brandenburg gentlemen, served their princes in war, and sometimes as diplomatists or administrative officials. The record of the family runs back to the thirteenth century, and the estate of Schönhausen has been in possession of the younger branch for more than 300 years.

The country gentlemen of Prussia held, in Bismarck's youth, a position very like that of the landed gentry of England. They were the governing class, and managed the affairs of their districts; and the country gentleman who developed an exceptional talent for administration, passed easily and naturally from the government of his neighborhood to the administration of the province or of the kingdom. By way of preparation for these duties and possibilities, the future landholder sometimes studied law, and even entered the judicial or administrative service of the state, without necessarily intending to become either an advocate or a professional official. In accordance with this excellent usage, the young Bismarck, at the age of seventeen, was matriculated in the law faculty at Göttingen, and spent three semesters as a student in that university—but, if Göttingen traditions are to be trusted, cannot be said to have studied there. At Berlin, however, where he completed his law course, he must have studied; for he passed the state examination with credit, and entered the state service. After one year's work as assistant (*Auscultator*) in a Berlin court, and nearly three years' administrative service as *Referendar* at Aix-la-Chapelle and Potsdam, he resigned his position, and, at the age of twenty-four, assumed, with his brother Bernhard, the care of his father's Pomeranian estates. For eight years the future Chancellor of the German empire devoted himself to sheep-raising and grain-growing, relieving the monotony of his life by hard riding and occasional hard drinking, but also by hard reading and travel. In 1845 he was elected a member of the Pomeranian Diet. The death of his father, in the same year, gave him the ancestral seat of Schönhausen, and carried him from Pomerania to the Mark. Here he obtained his first administrative office, that of Superintendent of Dikes, and here also he was elected to the Provincial Diet; and when, in 1847, King Frederick William IV. attempted to solve the parliamentary question by collecting the representatives of the eight provinces, Bismarck went to Berlin as a member of the "United Diet." He was only an alternate delegate; but the proper representative, as it chanced, fell ill, and Bismarck's political career was opened.

It was an uneasy time in Germany and Prussia when the United Diet came together, and it was soon to be a stormy time. The German people were dominated by two aspirations, popular sovereignty and national unity. That these objects were not merely distinct, but to some extent incompatible, the people wholly failed to realize. The two ideas had gained their hold upon the German mind in the same historic period—that of the first French Revolution and the Revolutionary wars (1789-1815). The Revolution had infected the Germans with the democratic fever, and the subjugation and humiliation of Germany by Napoleon had awakened a specific German patriotism and shown the necessity of national union. In the War of Liberation (1813) the German governments, and notably the Government of Prussia, had appealed to both of these popular ideas. They had promised the people liberty and unity. When the victory was won, when Napoleon was dethroned and France reduced to its pre-revolutionary boundaries, the German governments broke their pledges. Germany was organized, at the Congress of Vienna (1815), into a loose confederation of sovereign states; and in the majority of these states, including Prussia and Austria, the princes retained absolute power. The people naturally lost all faith in their rulers, and began to look to a popular uprising and the establishment of popular sovereignty as the only means of national unification. So the two ideas became fused; the nationalists were all Liberals, and to a great extent Democrats; and, by an inevitable antithesis, all the Conservatives were particularists, identifying the maintenance of princely power with the system of state sovereignty, *i. e.*, the system of German disunity. All agitation in favor of national unity was punished as treason.

The European Revolution of 1848 gave the Liberals an unexpected opportunity to attempt the realization of their programme—unity through liberty. The Paris insurrection and the dethronement of Louis Philippe kindled the flame of revolution throughout Germany; and everywhere, at first, the German revolutionists achieved complete success. All the German princes who had thus far retained absolute power gave or promised constitutions; and those who had already given constitutions appointed Liberal ministers and promised Liberal reforms. Prussia and Austria succumbed to the popular movement as completely as the little states; and Austria, the bulwark of conservatism, was brought to the edge of ruin by simultaneous insurrection in Hungary and Italy. Constitutional liberty seemed assured, and the Liberal leaders had now free hand in their attempt to secure national unity. A German Parliament, elected by universal suffrage, met at Frankfort and addressed itself to the task of framing a national constitution for a new German empire.

It was characteristic of the *doctrinaire* spirit of the movement that the central and vital point of the whole question was the last to be considered. There were in Germany two great states, either of which was stronger than all the little states together; and the prime question was: Which of these two states, Prussia or Austria, shall have the hegemony in the new Germany? But as neither of these states would peacefully submit to the rule of the other, the question immediately restated itself: Which of these two states is to be excluded from the new Germany? The answer could not be doubtful. Prussia was the more modern and progressive of the two states, and in the customs union she had brought all the German states except Austria into commercial unity. The Parliament finally excluded Austria from the empire, and offered the imperial crown to Frederick William IV. of Prussia. But this result was not attained until the spring of 1849. The reaction had begun; the princes had largely recovered their courage and re-established their power, and Austria had fought through the worst of her embarrassments. Consequently, the offer of the imperial crown to Frederick William IV. was simply an invitation to him to mobilize his army and fight for it. The success of such a venture was doubtful; and from the Conservative point of view the stake was not worth the risk. The Liberals in the Frankfort Parliament had gained the adhesion of the Democrats and secured a majority only by making the Constitution of the new empire so democratic that the Emperor would have been a mere figurehead. Frederick William of Prussia accordingly refused the imperial crown, and the revolutionary experiment was at an end. For a brief space, in 1850, Prussia and Austria seemed likely to come to blows and the German question to a solution. But Russia threw its whole influence, and threatened to throw its whole force, on the side of Austria; and Prussia, in the convention of Olmütz, November 29, 1850, yielded every point in dispute. The old Confederation was reëstablished in all its old impotence, and the Federal Diet resumed its sessions at Frankfort.

What was Bismarck's position on all these questions? Towards the constitutional movement in Prussia his attitude was one of bitter and uncompromising hostility. In the United Diet of 1847-'8 he figured as a Tory of the Tories. He was more royalist than the King, and opposed every diminution of the kingly prerogative. When the King promised a Constitution (1848) and summoned a constituent Parliament, Bismarck refused to stand for election. When the King dissolved this Parliament, published a Constitution of his own, and summoned a new Diet, Bismarck reëntered politics and sat in this and in a second Prussian Assembly; but this he did only on the personal solicitation of the King. Towards the unity movement and the Frankfort Constitution his attitude was that of a cynical critic. He supported the

King in his refusal of the imperial crown because "all the real gold in it would be got by melting down the Prussian crown." He sat in the Erfurt Parliament, but clearly saw the hopelessness of its attempts and occupied himself in throwing cold water upon the enthusiasts. During the Austro-Prussian disputes of 1850 he spoke and voted in the Prussian Diet with the Austrophils, and defended the convention of Olmütz.

When the German Confederation was reëstablished, Frederick William IV. sent Bismarck to the Frankfort Diet as the representative of Prussia. It was essentially a diplomatic position, for the Diet was nothing but a standing congress of ambassadors; and the appointment of a man without diplomatic training was a breach of Prussian traditions. It was also a position which involved the assertion and defence of Prussia's interests against Austria; and the appointment of a pronounced friend of Austria seemed likely to result in a sacrifice of Prussia's interests. Bismarck undoubtedly owed his appointment to his legitimist, or rather absolutist, attitude in Prussian politics. His defence of the royal prerogative had won him the confidence of the King. His attitude towards Austria made his appointment particularly suitable. After Olmütz, it would have been absurd for Prussia to send to Frankfort an ambassador who was not *persona grata* to Austria.

Bismarck's appointment was no error. His attitude towards Austria resulted in no sacrifice of Prussia's interests. His support of Austria during his parliamentary career had been dictated by party feeling. The Conservatives rightly regarded Austria as the bulwark of conservatism, and Bismarck was a thorough Conservative. His support of the Olmütz convention was due, as we now know, not to his Austrian sympathies, but to his conviction that resistance to Austria and Russia was hopeless. He saw the wisdom, as his friend Von Wagener tells us, of "eating the dish of revenge cold." At Frankfort (1851-'9) he soon became a thorn in the side of the Austrians by the persistence and adroitness with which he countered their schemes and strengthened the Prussian influence. His dispatches are of such literary excellence as to make them one of the monuments of classical German prose; and they show such breadth of view and keenness of insight as fully to explain the rapid advancement of the writer to the highest position in the Prussian state. The business actually transacted in the Frankfort Diet was petty and unimportant to the last degree; but Frankfort was a central point of European intrigue, and the most vital questions of European politics were touched in Bismarck's dispatches. The King and his Premier, Manteuffel, consulted their ambassador at Frankfort upon all leading questions of state policy; and his advice seems commonly to have been followed—notably during the Crimean war, when France, England, and Austria endeavored to draw Prussia into an attitude of hostility to Russia, and Bismarck convincingly maintained the absence of any Prussian interest in the war and the impolicy of aiding Austria. He wrote in 1856:

"In every century since the time of Charles V., German dualism has settled its relations by an internal war, fought to the finish; and in the present century also there will be no other way of setting the clock of our development at the right hour. . . . I desire to express my conviction that at no distant time we shall have to fight with Austria for our existence."

And in 1859, just after the outbreak of the Italian war, he wrote that the embarrassments of Austria gave Prussia an exceptional opportunity to readjust her relations to Germany; that these relations amounted, for Prussia, to a disease; and that this disease, unless radically cured at some such favorable moment, would have to be treated, sooner or later, *ferro et igni*. Here is already the line of thought which led to the war of 1866 and the formation of the North German Confederation; and here is also, in its first form, the famous phrase, *Eisen und Blut*.

The letter last cited was written from St. Petersburg. Bismarck's hostility to Austria had become so pronounced that the Prussian Government, not yet prepared to accept his policy, had deemed it advisable to promote him out of Frankfort, and, as he himself expressed it, to "put him on ice" on the Neva. Here he remained as Prussian ambassador for three years, 1859-62.

During the latter part of Bismarck's term of service at Frankfort, King Frederick William IV. had been attacked by a disease of the brain, and in 1858 his brother, Prince William, had assumed the regency. In 1861 Frederick William died, and the Prince Regent became King. One of the chief causes of Prussia's disgraceful submission at Olmütz was the imperfect condition of her army; and King William, a soldier before all things, was resolved upon a thorough reorganization of "the instrument." The plan involved a serious increase of the budget, and this the Chamber of Deputies refused. Bent upon the realization of his plan, and foreseeing an obstinate conflict, the King sought a minister who would carry out the royal will in spite of the Deputies. He needed, for this purpose, a man completely devoted to prerogative, resolute in action, and fearless of consequences; and no other man seemed to him to possess these qualities in the same degree as his ambassador at St. Petersburg. In the spring of 1862 Bismarck was summoned to Berlin and offered a portfolio. At his own request he was first transferred to the embassy at Paris. He had devoted his three years in St. Petersburg to cementing the friendly relations already existing between Russia and Prussia, and had convinced himself that Russia would not interfere again, as in 1850, in behalf of Austria. He desired to be equally certain of Napoleon III.'s neutrality. He seems to have obtained satisfactory assurances upon this point; and, in the autumn of 1862, he returned to Berlin and assumed the premiership.

Prussia's internal politics during the next four years were extremely simple, although very stormy. Each year the Deputies refused to vote the increased military appropriations. Each year the Diet was dissolved and new elections ordered. Each new election increased the anti-governmental majority. But the people, even when the agitation was hottest, continued to pay their taxes; and the upper chamber, which was completely under the control of the Government, voted the desired appropriations. The money was then spent by the Government without authorization from the Deputies, and the army was reorganized according to the plans of the King and his War Minister, Von Roon.

Prussia's foreign policy during these years, on the other hand, seems very intricate and somewhat tortuous; and as far as the details are concerned, it was necessarily so. Bismarck had assumed the direction of Prussia's affairs with the intention of solving the German question by establishing the hegemony of Prussia. This could be done only after a successful war with Austria. To assure Prussia's triumph, Austria must remain isolated; that is, Prussia must maintain cordial relations with France and Russia. So far, all was clear and simple; but the realization of these main objects—*i. e.*, the *method* of their realization—depended necessarily upon the course of events. A liberal commercial treaty (1862) improved Prussia's relations to France; and the insurrection of 1863 in Russian Poland enabled Bismarck to render Russia useful aid and to place her under a debt of gratitude. The death of Frederick VII. of Denmark, November 15, 1863, gave him a chance to precipitate the solution of the German question.

The Schleswig-Holstein question, although a complicated one, is not so unintelligible as is commonly supposed. These two German duchies had long been united with Denmark; but the union was what is called a "personal" one, *i. e.*, Schleswig and Holstein were not parts of Denmark. Their association with Denmark was the result of a dynastic accident. The Danes naturally desired to make the union a real one. In the way of their ambition stood the facts, (1) that Holstein belonged to the German Confederation; (2) that old treaties guaranteed that Schleswig and Holstein should never be separated. Hence the incorporation of Schleswig was impossible without the simultaneous incorporation of Holstein, and the incorporation of Holstein was impossible without the assent of Germany—an assent which the Danes could not hope to obtain. The *condominium*, or joint sovereignty of Prussia and Austria in the duchies, consequent upon the invasion of Schleswig by Prussia and Austria, in February, 1864, was precisely what Bismarck desired. Believing that war with Austria was necessary for the solution of the German question, it seemed to him convenient to have a cause of war always ready; and such a relation as that now established in the duchies would necessarily be fruitful of causes for war. Further, whenever the war should come, these duchies would be for Prussia an extremely desirable addition to the stake in play. They represented a possible gain for Prussia, but no possible gain for Austria. Their position would make their annexation to Prussia both feasible and natural, while Austria could in no case dream of annexing them. From this point of view, Bismarck's diplomacy was especially skilful, and the association of Austria in the enterprise was its most masterly feature. Bismarck himself declared, after the French war, that the Schleswig-Holstein campaign was the one of which, from a political point of view, he was proudest.

The joint ownership of the duchies speedily led, as Bismarck had anticipated, to dissension, culminating in the brief war which was practically terminated by the great Prussian victory of Königgrätz or Sadowa, July 3, 1866. After Sadowa, Prussia was in a position to dictate the terms of peace. The military men wished to enter Vienna and to demand a strip of Bohemian territory. Bismarck feared a joint intervention of the neutral Powers, and desired a speedy set-

tlement. He also urged the impolicy of inflicting lasting wounds upon Austria's national pride; and, after a hard struggle, he carried his point. Preliminaries of peace were signed at Nicholsburg, July 26, and the final treaty at Prague, August 23. Italy (in return for her alliance by a secret treaty) received Venice; Austria conveyed her interests in Schleswig-Holstein to Prussia, and recognized the dissolution of the old German Confederation and the creation of a new North German Confederation, to be composed of the states north of the Main. North of the Main, also, Prussia was to annex such territories as she saw fit, promising to spare Saxony. The South German states were to be permitted to form an independent confederation of their own. (This they never did.) Austria was for ever excluded from Germany. Prussia annexed Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort—territories which added four and a half millions to her population and increased her territory by a fourth.

From this epoch the history of Bismarck is known beyond the need of its rehearsal here in the details of the war with France. But we must not slur over his part at the decisive moment of the French demands on Prussia through Benedetti. On the evening of July 13, 1870, he received a telegraphic account of the occurrences of the morning at Ems, closing with the suggestion, on the part of the King, that the new French demand and its refusal be made public. This suggestion Bismarck carried out in the most literal fashion, and, by omitting all minor details, he gave to the public the impression that the negotiations in Ems had terminated more abruptly than was really the case. The Germans thought that King William had been insulted—which was true as regarded the substance of the French demand, but untrue as regarded the form of its presentation—and the smouldering indignation that had been kindled by the arrogant tone of the French orators and of the French press burst into a flame of wrath. The Parisians thought that their Ambassador had been insulted, and demanded an immediate declaration of war.

The most important result of the war was the completion of German unity. In South Germany local patriotism and religious prejudices had heretofore stood in the way of union with Prussia. These obstacles were swept away in the enthusiasm of this national war. In the march from the Rhine to the Seine, Bavarians, Würtembergers, Hessians, and Prussians felt themselves, as never before, one great people. The diplomatists had only to put the stamp of law upon the accomplished fact. During the winter, treaties of union were concluded between the North German Confederation and the South German states; and on January 18, in the Hall of Mirrors in Versailles, King William was proclaimed German Emperor. The prophecy of Frederick William IV. had come true—that the imperial crown would be won on the field of battle.

The new empire, with its twenty-five states and its one territory (Alsace-Lorraine), embraced, at its establishment, over 40,000,000 people, a number which has since risen, by the natural increase of population and in spite of emigration, to more than 50,000,000. Its Constitution is simply a revised edition of the North German Constitution of 1867. The position of the South German states, barring a few "reserved rights," is identical with that of the North German states. Their governments are represented in the Federal Council and their people in the Imperial Diet.

In this Parliament Bismarck never found—nor in the light of his experience with the Prussian Diet could he have hoped to create—a passive instrument of his or the Emperor's will. The Parliament and the people behind it have always had and have constantly asserted an independent will of their own. But the people and the Parliament of the new empire have not at any time offered any such blind and obstinate resistance to the realization of vital national interests as did the Prussian Deputies before 1866. The internal politics of the empire has been full of conflict, but every conflict has been fought out within the lines of the Constitution, and settled by some compromise which has preserved at once the interests of the state and the liberties of the citizen.

Death at this stage of his career would have assured Bismarck the highest place in the hearts of his countrymen and in the estimate of posterity. His contest with the Ultramontane party, the "culture conflict," was a virtual failure. So was his measure of strength with the Socialists. His financial schemes for the imperial budget disrupted the National Liberal party, and imposed a protective policy upon the empire. His promotion of colonial acquisitions has yet to be judged. His conduct of German diplomacy during the early years of the empire is generally recognized as altogether masterly and successful. In this domain, even the most obstinate opponents of his internal administration conceded his supremacy.

The death of William I. and the brief reign of Frederick III. (March 9 to June 15, 1888) worked no change in the position or power of the Prince Chancellor. The humane and idealistic Frederick had little sympathy with Bismarck's rough and often cynical realism, but he showed no disposition to discharge a minister who had rendered such service to the dynasty and the nation. Bismarck had equally little sympathy with such a character as Frederick's; but he stood ready to serve the son as loyally as he had served the father.

Whatever peril of a breach existed was thought to be removed when William II. became Emperor. The new ruler was but twenty-nine years old; he had grown up during the triumphs of Bismarck's diplomacy; it was understood that he shared, or reflected, Bismarck's views. But it soon became clear that the young Emperor had ideas and a will of his own, and was not inclined to be guided by an all-powerful premier. To an energetic disposition he added the conviction of a personal responsibility to be discharged by personal attention to all governmental affairs. The question soon arose whether Bismarck, as President of the Prussian ministry, was to continue to exercise the powers of a premier as he understood them, or whether the monarch, to use Bismarck's expression, was "himself to act as Minister-President." On the 17th of March, 1890, the Emperor demanded Bismarck's resignation. A few days later the ex-Chancellor left Berlin, amid great demonstrations of popular affection and regret. We pass over his long and ignoble quarrel with the Emperor in inspired editorials and personal interviews; the nominal reconciliation; the slow and painful decay of the ex-Chancellor's physical powers.

Bismarck was a man of great stature and athletic frame. In his youth and early manhood he was an excellent fencer, a powerful swimmer, and a tireless rider; and at the age of fifty-five he bore the exposure and fatigue of the winter campaign in France, not merely without injury, but with positive benefit to his health. In later years his increasing weight unfitted him for physical exertion, but his capacity for protracted mental labor, always phenomenal, was unimpaired at the close of his public career. He possessed strong social instincts and great social talents. The perception of the characteristic in men and in things, the faculty of sketching in words, the frequent wit and the constant caustic humor which made him one of the best of letter-writers, made him also one of the best of talkers. This talent he turned to good account, not in European diplomacy only, but in German politics as well. Many questions that could not be settled by debates in Parliament, were adjusted over the beer and in the smoke of his famous "parliamentary breakfasts" in the Wilhelmstrasse.

He was not commonly regarded by the Germans as a good parliamentary speaker. In England he would have been regarded as one of the best. The German taste in public speaking inclines to the oratorical; Bismarck's manner was always conversational. The substance and the arrangement of his speeches were excellent. They were always adapted rather to convince his hearers than to excite their admiration. They contained, nevertheless, more quotable sayings, and have enriched the speech of Germany with more quotations, not, perhaps, than the writings of her great poets, but certainly than the spoken words of any German since Luther.

His writings have not only the excellence often observed in men of action—the simplicity, directness, and vigor of a Wellington or a Grant—they have in high degree a distinctively literary quality and charm. The vague word is avoided, and the precise, unique word is found; the current phrase, that has lost its edges by wear, is replaced by a phrase fresh-minted and clean-cut; there is the unexpected term that is wit without the obvious intention, and the suggestion that is not quotation; there is everywhere the perception, not only of the intellectual, but also of the sensuous value of words—in sum, there is style. When Bismarck's letters were first published, the novelist Heyse is said to have thanked God that that man had gone into politics, "because he would have spoiled our trade."

The qualities that distinguished Bismarck as a statesman were rapid and accurate perception of the central and decisive points in the most complicated situation; tenacity of purpose in following his chief end, combined with readiness to vary, with every change of circumstances, the mode of its pursuit; and a rare degree of moderation at the moment of fullest triumph. Of this last trait he gave striking evidence in the terms accorded to Austria and to the Prussian parliamentary opposition after the victories of 1866.

In the earlier stages especially of his public career, Bismarck showed himself a master of diplomatic strategy, but where finesse seemed needless he often employed methods that savored of brutality. It should, how-

ever, be remembered that the belated political development of Germany forced upon him, in an age that is humane to the verge of sentimentalism, the rough work which William the Conqueror did for England in the eleventh century, and Richelieu for France in the seventeenth. One great merit of his diplomacy was its general truthfulness; nor is this merit lessened by the fact that, because of the persistence of an opposite tradition, Bismarck's frankness was often more deceptive than another man's lies.

DREYFUS AND THE SOUL OF FRANCE.

NEW YORK, July 25, 1898.

Some time ago in two companion cartoons in *Figaro*, a caricaturist depicted the influence of the Dreyfus affair on French social relations. The first, showing a dinner party of men and women who regard one another distrustfully, and resolve not to touch the terrible and dangerous topic, bears the legend: "They will not talk about it" (*On n'en parlera pas*). The second and lower one shows the end of the dinner: all the guests tumbling pell-mell over each other and fighting like savages; and the legend explains everything: "They have talked about it" (*On en a parlé*). This farce sums up and symbolizes the state of France for six months, during which two parties have come to blows not only with ardor, but with a fanaticism not often met with in purely judicial questions.

It was, however—and that was the terrible viciousness of this affair—not a judicial question. Owing to the fact that the army was involved, many "patriots" refused to listen to anything, and considered blasphemous a single word that might affect the so-called "honor of the army." Then, when Zola had launched his "I accuse," when journals (mostly Socialist) had also begun to attack certain generals, the anger of the patriots turned to frenzy. Their susceptibility was wounded to such a degree that henceforth their minds could entertain no other thought than a concern to avenge what they styled "the insults to the army." And it is this susceptible, punctilious, and almost morbid patriotism that has given the Dreyfus affair an acute character, and has prevented it from being discussed and studied under normal conditions.

Moreover, some, even many, went so far as to maintain, if not in the press, at least in conversation, the frightful theory that the tranquillity of the state and "the honor of the army" were well worth the sacrifice of a human life; and that after all, even if Dreyfus was innocent, reasons of state compelled silence in order not to compromise those who had involuntarily committed the monstrous mistake. Such was the theory one heard repeated currently, and which was even attributed to eminent statesmen. In the statement which M. Cavaignac made the other day in reaffirmation, with proofs which the official dispatches declared to be very strong, but which in reality were of as doubtful value as all which had preceded them—in this statement, I say, the Minister of War protested for the first time against so frightful a theory. "If I were not convinced," he said, "that Dreyfus is guilty, no consideration of public safety would induce me to keep an innocent man in the galleys." Unfortunately, many of those who applauded these words were not so convinced; and in this, perhaps, consists the gravest sign of the present French crisis—namely, the indifference with which many men, even among the most distinguished, view the possibility of the sacrifice of an innocent man.

There were, thank God, in France, besides the great mass who were violently hostile to the work of justice, or remained indifferent to it, a genuine élite, small in number but strong in intellectual and moral worth, who, from the very outset, planting themselves on the ground of violated legality, energetically maintained the necessity of revision. To appreciate the courage involved in taking this attitude, you must imagine what public opinion in France was, six months ago—overwrought and malignant, every morning assured by five or six newspapers that a "syndicate of foreign Jews" was plotting the ruin and dishonor of France. All those who appeared to incline to revision were immediately considered anti-patriots, members of the "syndicate." This pretended syndicate, charged with having, by a lavish use of gold, succeeded in corrupting half the country, is one of the most absurd and humiliating legends with which the press has ventured to feed the public gullibility.

Well, in spite of the unpopularity attaching to this attitude, there was throughout enlightened France an admirable impulse of civic courage. After M. Scheurer-Kestner, the aged Senator who had sacrificed his peace, came M. Gabriel Monod, an eminent historian, professor in one of our highest schools, editor of the *Revue Historique*, who, in a letter made public, also expressed his belief in the innocence of Dreyfus. Third and next came Zola, who, with his vigor, his brutality, and his lyricism, began not only to praise M. Scheurer-Kestner, but to take sides with him as holding his opinion, and as being also "of the syndicate." And after Zola came a host of young writers, his admirers or friends, who ranged themselves behind him as much out of admiration for his courage as by convincement.

Several powerful adhesions swelled the "syndicate." The worthy successor of Pasteur, the illustrious savant Duclaux, after the reading of the indictment on which Dreyfus was condemned, wrote to Scheurer-Kestner a letter which was published, and prepared for the *Siècle* quite a series of notes of which the force and wisdom struck everybody. Other precious recruits were M. Trarieux, former Minister of Justice, a Bordeaux advocate of great talent and a generous soul; and M. Yves Guyot, likewise a former minister, and a journalist of the most valiant bravery. Then, in their train, came Jaurès, the powerful Socialist orator, who, almost alone of his party, confronting—he, the popular tribune—unpopularity, the greatest terror of politicians, dared in the Chamber to interpellate the minister, in the Court of Assize to testify in admirable language in Zola's behalf, and finally, before his constituents (the height of courage), to brave the defeat which he in fact suffered without flinching.

Another man of the very first rank, whom people were not a little astonished to meet with in this affair, was the gentle philosopher, the exquisite ironist and rare writer, Anatole France. Hitherto, absorbed in literature and in acute and bantering observation of contemporary manners (as set forth in his masterpieces entitled 'L'Orme du Mail' and 'Le Mannequin d'Osier'), he seemed a stranger to all personal activity. Nevertheless, this sceptic also dared to face the wrath of the mob and to offer his testimony to Zola.

Beside these leading lights were soon seen mustering a great number of men of letters, of professors, of Protestant pastors, of physicians and young students, who signed petitions and addressed appeals demanding a revision of the trial. In the forefront the Collège de France placed M. Albert Réville, the illustrious professor of exegesis, and Havet, the Latinist. The Sorbonne contributed M. Séailles, professor of philosophy, Brunot, professor of philology, Seignobos, professor of history. The École Normale Supérieure gave almost all of its pupils and professors. The École des Chartes, preeminently the school of historical criticism, was particularly interested in the *bordereau*, and one saw such men as Paul Meyer, the director, M. Giry, and M. Viollet join the fray. In the provinces, innumerable young professors, regardless of the danger to their careers from a manifestation of this kind, lifted up their voices for right and legality. M. Charles Gide of Montpellier, an eminent professor of political economy, always foremost in every bold and independent movement, also proclaimed himself a resolute partisan of revision. The son of Renan, the painter, Ary Renan, and his son-in-law, Prof. Psichari, are among the most ardent "Dreyfusards."

This movement, which grew daily, was dubbed the movement of the "Intellectuals." An "Intellectual" possessing a certain keenness of wit, but a lamentable mediocrity of character, and who, while a refined littérateur, can be a politician of the lowest order, working upon every passion of the mob, M. Maurice Barrès, thought to chaff those "Intellectuals" who courageously withstood the injustice of the majority. His raillery had a partial success. Many did not dare to come out, and one of the most disquieting symptoms of the general health of France was the kind of terrorism imposed upon the nation at once by the raillery of people like Barrès and the insults of low journals. Many men free to speak on other subjects were completely dumb on this. Journalists who on every question manifested great independence and courage, were afraid to whisper a syllable on this. Francisque Sarcey, the veteran journalist, who boasts of being the representative of good sense, and has more than once been the mouthpiece of all sensible people, has never uttered a word about the Dreyfus affair. M. Jules Claretie, M. Jules Lemaître, who chatter about everything—the one in the *Temps*, the other in *Figaro*—have appeared not to know that the country had a case of conscience before it. Eminent and popular professors like Lavisse and Gaston Paris did not dare to express their opinion, which is known to everybody.

In particular, the attitude of the French press has been one of the most curious ever seen, and never has despotism, Cæsarian or clerical, suspended liberty of thought and expression as much as the simple fear of displeasing the mob has suspended it in journals which, on every other subject, speak with a freedom bordering on audacity. Three or four distinctly took sides for revision, to wit, the *Siècle* of Yves Guyot, a journal moderate in politics, anti-Socialistic, and anti-protectionist in political economy;

the *Aurore* of M. Clémenceau, a violently Socialistic journal; and the *Droits de l'Homme*, a journal founded expressly to defend the cause. The *Rappel*, the *Petite République*, the *Radical*, and the *Signal* were impartial or rather favorable. Three or four other journals were professionally hostile, namely, those of the pamphleteers, "the amusers and poisoners of the public," as Channing says, the *Libre Parole*, the *Intransigeant*, and the *Autorité*.

But apart from these sheets, on one or the other side there is a considerable body of papers generally very independent, and which open their columns to the greatest diversity of opinion. Such are the *Gaulois*, the *Eclair*, the *Echo de Paris*, *Figaro*, the *Journal*, whose only principle is to entertain the public, and which often welcome writers differing most widely from each other. Well, among these journals there has reigned incessantly such a censorship that the most popular and eminent contributors saw their articles rejected, and were forced, in order to utter their opinions, to resort to allusion and to ruses similar to those employed by writers under the Second Empire. The *Eclair*, which professes to be "absolutely independent," became the very monitor of the État major, as did also the worldly and frivolous *Echo de Paris*, the great majority of whose staff could not express their conviction as being opposed to that of their chief. One of the colaborers of the *Eclair* resigned. The *Journal* declined a number of articles from its staff, and nobody reading it would have suspected that nearly all those who wrote for it were admirers of Zola. Journalists like Bergerat, Séverine, Alexandre Hepp were seen talking of other matters when the Dreyfus affair preoccupied the public mind as its sole topic. The *Journal des Débats* forfeited by its attitude the confidence of all its liberal readers.

That great newspaper the *Temps*, representative of the enlightened bourgeoisie, had to perform prodigies of diplomacy in order to satisfy both parties among its supporters. The editors were, on the Dreyfus question, exactly divided into two numerically equal groups. Its foreign editor, M. Francis de Pressensé, whose high political competency, broad erudition, and profound independence of spirit are known abroad, is one of the most militant partisans of revision.

One man has been remarkable for finesse and dexterity: I mean M. Anatole France. Writing for the *Echo de Paris*, the army journal and the bitterest of the "anti-dreyfusard" organs, he succeeded in insinuating skilful allusions and sly implications which recalled, to those gifted with a fine perception, the most admirable prodigies of style on the part of the journalists of the Second Empire, obliged to elude the menaces of the censor. This shows, alas, that all tyrannies, alike of monarchs and of collectivities, produce the same effects. The mob has its courtiers as do kings, and there is sometimes more courage in opposing a raging mob than in resisting a tyrant. "The weightiest arguments," writes a French publicist, Raoul Frary, "are invalidated before a numerous mob, and no courage is rarer than that which consists in pleading a lost cause simply because we find it just and with no hope of making it triumphant." The French Intellectuals who have had this courage perhaps deserve to have their valor and perseverance blazoned to the world. History, which will doubtless one day judge severely the attitude of the public authorities and of the majority of the French people in the Dreyfus affair, cannot overlook the part of those citizens of courage and good faith who are also France, and who, better than what Ibsen calls the "compact majority" and the imbecile multitude, have stood for its true genius of independence, generosity, and humanity.

OTHON GUERLAC,
Editor of the Paris *Siècle*.

THE POLITICAL CRISIS IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, July 8, 1898.

What has been so long sought for in Japanese political life has at last been attained, though at an unexpected time and in an unlooked-for way. A party cabinet has finally been established in the room of the Satcho Government that has ruled the country for nearly thirty years. The change has come so quickly and so noiselessly that perhaps nobody is more surprised than the opposition parties which successfully accomplished the result. The significance of the new order of things is unquestionable. Many intelligent Japanese hold it to be not less important than the great Revolution that overthrew the Shogunate thirty-one years ago, and think it yields in historical importance only to the opening of Japan to the world through the efforts of Commodore Perry.

The occasion of a fresh attempt on the part of the Opposition to attack the present Cabinet was furnished by the late dissolution of Parliament. Scarcely had the imperial rescript done its work when the leaders of the two great parties, the Jiyuto and Shimpoto, began to broach the question of a union of the two organizations. It has often been a puzzle why these two parties, with platforms essentially identical, with common purposes and for the most part common methods of action, have generally been antagonistic to each other. Their divided organization left the field open to their enemies, the Satcho, who made the most of playing off one party against the other. This truth finally dawned upon the minds of the party leaders themselves. As Count Itagaki declared at the dissolution of his own party only a few weeks ago: "Each party has tried the experiment of coöperation with the clan statesmen, and each has found it a failure. The reason is that the Government attaches no real importance to political parties, but merely consults its own convenience in taking them up and then casting them off." Or, as another speaker described this state of things, "it was a system that enabled the clan statesmen to plant their feet on the necks of their opponents." Unless the parties combined their forces, it was clear that the men in possession could never be overcome.

When once the first step towards a reconciliation of the party differences was taken by the party leaders the rank and file changed front directly. Parliament was dissolved on the 10th of June. Immediately afterward began a series of conferences between the chiefs of the Liberals and Progressives. On the 12th the Tokyo press was in full possession of the facts, and was eagerly discussing the possibilities of the new movement in all its phases. On the same day the representatives of the two parties issued a manifesto to their constituents which subsequently became the basis of the platform of the new party. In fact, all that remained after this conference was the dissolution of the old party organizations—a measure required under Japanese law—the appointment of an executive committee, and a general meeting of the party men to endorse the platform which the managers were instructed to arrange. It was decided that the new party should be called the *Kenseito*, or Constitutionalists—a term whose indefinite character suggests and yet conceals the object of the party.

A preliminary meeting of the Constitutionalists was held on June 16. It was an important occasion, because both the leaders of the old opposition parties, Count Okuma and Count Itagaki, gave it the prestige of their presence. The speech of the former was devoted to a skilfully worded account of a somewhat threadbare subject in Japan, namely, the origin of the present Satcho Government. The statesmen who had held the reins of power since the Restoration, he declared, had never given Japan a thoroughly national administration. They were to be compared rather to the Tokugawa Regency, who, while acting in the name of the Emperor, really prosecuted their own designs and increased their own power. The spirit of the feudal times still existed, he added, in spite of the progress made during the past forty years. Count Itagaki's speech ran on similar lines. So long as the influence of the clan government continued to exist in Japan, it was hopeless, he said, to expect any radical improvement in the conduct of affairs. Both speeches aimed at the same goal—the overthrow, not of the existing Cabinet, which, indeed, they scarcely attacked, but of the system of cabinets which had been imposed on the country by the Satcho immediately after the Restoration.

The definite organization of the Kenseito was completed on June 22. Previous to this date the two old parties, the Jiyuto and Shimpoto, had been disbanded, and nothing stood in the way of a formal inauguration of the new party. The meeting was a very large one. The paraphernalia of the occasion in the shape of flags, colored draperies, and music were provided on a liberal scale; the speakers were the best that the combined parties could furnish, and the whole proceeding was arranged on the principle that nothing succeeds like success. The announcement that the leaders of the old parties, Counts Okuma and Itagaki, had formally applied for admission to membership in the Kenseito, was greeted with prolonged applause. The spirit that animated the meeting was precisely what the party managers intended it to be—a bold challenge to the Government, disputing its authority, and demanding its overthrow. Of the platform of the new party little need be said. It had but one distinctive plank, and the rest was what any party of whatever complexion could easily subscribe to. The authority of the Emperor and the Constitution, the maintenance of a peaceful foreign policy within the limits of a careful adjustment of the balance of power in the East, moderate taxation and expenditure, development of commerce and industry—all these are popular catchwords in every political platform in Japan. The really distinctive part of the platform was the second article, pledging the Kenseito to the principle of party cabinets—that is, cabinets representing the majority of the lower branch of the Parliament. From

the sentiments of all the speakers of the occasion, as well as from its order in the platform, it was evident that this clause had brought the two parties into a single organization.

In every political crisis in Japan there is always an inexplicable something that baffles outsiders, and for which even the Japanese can often furnish no adequate explanation. About the time of this great celebration a mysterious transformation began to take place in Government circles. About ten days before this date, rumor had it that Marquis Ito was endeavoring to form a Government party composed of National Unionists—leading business men—and the disaffected elements of the other parties. The newspapers, which had been filled with accounts of the progress of the new political movement (the Teiseito or Imperialist party), suddenly confessed that the scheme was to be abandoned. The followers of Marquis Ito, who had been said to favor the establishment of a new party with the greatest enthusiasm, all at once retired into the background. Finally, to the surprise of every one, pro- and anti-Government, it was said that Marquis Ito with all his Cabinet intended to resign office and had recommended to the Emperor, as successors, Counts Okuma and Itagaki, who had just made their brilliant *coup* as leaders of the Kenseito. The rumor proved true. A few days after the 22d a letter was published from the Premier, in which he begged the Emperor not only to relieve him of his office, but of all his titles as well. With evident sincerity he wished, after years of the highest political honors, to return to private life as plain Mr. Ito, leaving to his political opponents the task of organizing the system of party cabinets. After an interval of only a day or two his resignation was accepted, without, however, the loss of his titles.

Two explanations of this extraordinary proceeding suggest themselves. One is that the business men who at first were inclined to rally around Marquis Ito's standard, finally yielded to their fears and refused their coöperation. Business in Japan enters into far closer relations with the policy of the Administration than it does in America. If the united parties should prove strong enough to oppose the present Cabinet successfully in the next session of Parliament, the business men feared that they could expect but scant sympathy for any legislation they might advocate. But, after all, the secession of the business men must have been a minor consideration in the mind of Marquis Ito. The significant fact probably is that he was himself in sympathy with the principle of party government. The Premier is of the Choshu clan, but it has been evident for several years that he is utterly weary of the task of supporting an unpopular system of government. The Satsuma wing of the Satcho has been opposed to him on important occasions, and even in the last session of Parliament intrigued against him. Whatever his faults, there can be no question of his sincerity and patriotism. He is said to have expressed the opinion several years ago that party government in Japan was only a question of time, and depended upon the cohesion and force of the parties themselves; when that time arrived he should be the first to welcome it.

From the moment of the resignation of the Ito Cabinet, events developed rapidly. A feeble attempt was made to organize a Satsuma Cabinet, under the leadership of Marquis Yamagata, and thus to prolong the life of the old order of things. But Marquis Ito's advice seems to have been decisive with the Emperor. The Premier had offered his resignation on the 25th of June. By the 28th it was settled that Counts Okuma and Itagaki had entered into a conference with the leaders of the Kenseito for the purpose of organizing a new cabinet. On the following day a note was published in the Official Gazette stating that the Emperor, out of regard for the wishes of his people, accepted the Ministers proposed by the representatives of the people. On the last day of June it was formally announced that the Cabinet formed by the two Counts had been installed in power.

The new Cabinet is organized almost entirely on party lines. The exceptions are the portfolios of the Army and Navy, which remain for the present in the hands of the former Ministers—a concession secured by Marquis Ito from his successors. But it is understood that the heads of these two departments will take no part whatever in the political struggles of the nation, either in or outside Parliament. The other eight Ministers are all members of the Kenseito. Only the two leaders, Counts Okuma and Itagaki, have ever before been Ministers of State, and of the other six, only one has occupied the post of Vice-Minister. In the sphere of actual administration they are untried men, though in other respects they are men of pretty wide political experience.

It is characteristic of Japanese politics that the consummation of the hopes of the popular parties has, after years of struggle, been accomplished at last without any public demonstration whatever. Yet public opinion is gratified, and deeply so. Expressions of regret at the new system, or of fault-finding with the appointments, are very few, while congratulations are showered on all sides. Yet it is doubtful whether amid all this feeling of satisfaction the public realize the full importance and responsibility of the political revolution. They are inclined to think that their worst difficulties are over, and the future comparatively plain. They do not see that their toils have but just begun. One problem already confronts the new Administration. Many of the partisans are bringing pressure upon it to turn out a large number of the present office-holders, most of whom are men of trained knowledge and long experience, and to put in their places men who have followed the party standards. Probably no extensive disposition exists to welcome the "spoils system" as such. But there is a strong feeling that the present incumbents of office have held their places by favor of the Satcho, and this is the excuse for urging a clean sweep. Whatever the other faults of the old Government, this charge, though once true, is no longer so. And one clean sweep would surely be the entering wedge for another upheaval, when the next turn of politics put another party in possession. In Japan, where clannism, though gradually weakening, still possesses a powerful hold upon the minds of the people in all parts of the country, a system of spoils would have an incalculable power for evil. Nor do intelligent men foresee what may result from the imperfect organization and constitution of the political parties. The Kenseito is but a newly fledged party; it stands without traditions, and possibly with little cohesion. Should the new party yield to internal wrangling, or should it not be strong enough to meet the combination of opposition parties not yet bound together by any organized principles, party government in Japan may for many years furnish another melancholy example of barren political experiments and premature ideals. G. D.

Correspondence.

MUNICIPAL JUNKETING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The annual encampment of the G. A. R. is to be held this year in Cincinnati, and the Board of City Affairs appropriated $10,000 for "expenses to be incurred during the G. A. R. Encampment in Cincinnati, to be held in said city in September, 1898." But it was not stipulated exactly what was to be done with the money, and an unconscionable taxpayer, who seems to doubt the unselfish purposes of the city authorities, brought suit in the Superior Court to enjoin the expenditure of the money, and hired two of the best lawyers in the city to prosecute the action. Though counsel based their argument on purely legal grounds, which evidently carried conviction to the Court, certain facetious references were made to the danger of the money being spent for things not strictly in the category of extra police or sanitary protection.

The Court, in a seriously considered opinion, granted the injunction. It was held that if the money was intended for the social entertainment of the visitors or others, the appropriation could not be allowed, inasmuch as the Constitution and laws do not contemplate the expenditure of the public funds for such purposes. The Court cites an instance in the year 1872 when it was proposed to invite Gen. Grant and Horace Greeley to be present at the Cincinnati Industrial Exposition. Upon that occasion, the city authorities having voted money to pay the expenses of entertaining these distinguished guests, upon application of the City Solicitor the General Term decided that such an expenditure could not be made. (Moore vs. Hoffman, 2 Superior Ct. Rep., 453.) If, on the other hand, the money was intended for procuring extra police or light service, or for taking increased sanitary precautions, as was neatly contended by the Corporation Counsel, then the appropriation is invalid for two reasons.

(1.) The scheme of municipal government for the large cities is so constituted in Ohio that all public expenditures must fall within certain classified departments under control of the several boards. An appropriation cannot be made which does not specifically provide for some object within the care of the appropriating board. If the money is to be used for extra lighting or extra police service, then there should have been a provision made by the proper board in the semi-annual appropriating ordinance for that particular purpose. Every sum set aside for the city's needs from the city's general fund must be made to provide for an object which is legally in the care of the city's legislating bodies, and all such appropriations must set forth specifically and with detail how the money is to be used. This precaution is taken to give citizens an opportunity to scrutinize and criticise the doings of the governing

boards and to prevent the diversion of the public money into improper channels.

(2.) The second reason why the appropriation cannot stand is, that before appropriations for the specific needs of the city authorized to be made from the general fund can be made, estimates of expenditures in the various departments must be submitted by their executive heads to the appropriating boards, so that the tax levied for the year can be set accordingly. Since this appropriation for the G. A. R. Encampment was made without having been included in the estimates sent to the tax-levying authorities, it must follow that there is no money legally in the treasury to meet the proposed expenditure from the general fund. The Court insists that the above-named steps prescribed by law are mandatory, and must be taken before an appropriation can be made valid.

The Judge evidently felt that the decision would not be popular even with those who do not think great things of the G. A. R. as a patriotic body. It is believed by many business men that the Encampment is of great benefit commercially to the city, and these may wish that the plaintiff taxpayer had desisted from asking for the injunction, in the commercial interest of the city. Besides, the turn things have taken may, perhaps, be construed by other communities into niggardliness on the part of Cincinnati. But the Court had to perform its duty and was clearly right in its decision.

It seems a pity that more thought is not given in our large cities to the reception by the Executive of visitors of real distinction. By this, of course, I do not mean the entertaining of large societies like the G. A. R. or Knights of Pythias. We are occasionally visited by notable foreigners, statesmen, and scientists, and by men of importance in our own country—for example, the President of the United States. But the executives of our cities are unfortunately not always the cultivated men proper to represent the city on such occasions; and, furthermore, if funds were provided for public receptions of this kind, the money would not always be used for the purpose it was intended for—as was suggested in the hearing before the Superior Court of Cincinnati. A. J. F.

Notes.

The Doubleday & McClure Co. will publish in the fall Conan Doyle's 'Songs of Action.'

From the Century Co. we may expect 'The World's Rough Hand,' by H. Phelps Whitmarsh.

'Hawaii and a Revolution,' by Miss Mary H. Krout, is in the press of Dodd, Mead & Co.

R. H. Russell's fall publications will include 'Sketches and Cartoons,' the third in the series of drawings by Charles Dana Gibson.

The forty-sixth annual report of the Boston Public Library is noticeable for the evidences of congestion caused by too scanty space in so large a building. In these days of "manifest destiny" it is safe to predict an ultimate doubling of the edifice by the absorption of the remainder of the block. A lecture hall is among the crying needs, and, once provided, the Library would make its lantern-slides from its vast resources in photographs and in books. The report states that the gifts to the Library since the erection of its present domicile have equalled one-twelfth of its entire cost, approximately. The number of newspapers currently taken is 319, and a recent acquisition for the shelves is a file to date of the London *Times*, going back to 1809. The average Sunday attendance is between three and four thousand. Almost no sale is reported of the list of periodicals, newspapers, transactions, and other serial publications currently received in the libraries of Boston and vicinity.

The report antedates a welcome piece of intelligence which we find in the current *Library Journal*, that Mr. Worthington C. Ford, for nine years chief of the Bureau of Statistics at Washington and until displaced by the "spoils system," has been secured by the Boston Public Library to take charge of its new department of statistics.

The Child Memorial Library at Harvard now exceeds 2,000 volumes, and the number given exceeds that bought, including many rare and valuable editions. It is contemplated to store this collection, together with those of the departments of German and of Italian and Spanish (400 and 500 volumes respectively), in Holden Chapel, but not before next year.

"The Geological History of the Isthmus of Panama and Portions of Costa Rica" is the subject of a paper by Robert T. Hill in the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College (Vol. 28, No. 5). The writer treats of the topography of the region, and describes at length the geology of the continental section, Colon to Panama, the Pacific Coast from Panama to Punta Arenas, and a continental section across Costa Rica. The concluding portion is a discussion of the union of the continents and the problems of the straits. In Mr. Hill's opinion, the assertion so often met with that the two oceans have been frequently and recently connected across the Isthmus is not supported by evidence. There is nothing to show, from either a geologic or biologic standpoint, that any communication has existed since Tertiary times. The palæontologic evidence indicates the ephemeral existence of a passage at the close of the Eocene period. Seven maps and twelve heliotype engravings illustrate this Bulletin.

Quite the most interesting feature of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* for July is a translation of extracts from the letter-book of Capt. Johann Heinrichs of the Hessian Jäger Corps, 1778-1780. The writer was a man of good education and some versatility, and of fair judgment, and his views are often amusing even when least flattering to the American character. The cheerful tone of his letters from Flushing, Long Island, in April, 1779, would have been heightened if he could have known what Gen. Greene was writing at the same time from the American camp, as shown in a subsequent part of the *Magazine*. A year later, Gen. Greene could express himself to his correspondent, Col. Jeremiah Wadsworth, about Congress only in cipher—332 standing for Congress, and 1,012 for rascals, "as great a set as ever got together."

The principal contents of the *National Geographic Magazine* for July are an article, illustrated by excellent relief maps, on the origin of the physical features of the United States, by G. K. Gilbert, and an account of the Government geographic work, by H. Gannett. There are also sketches of the geographic and historical development of the District of Columbia and Washington.

The most noteworthy article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July is by Prof. J. Geikie, on the geologic history of the tundras and steppes of Europe, with special reference to the morainic and loess deposits. It is accompanied by several maps showing the glaciation of Europe at different epochs and the present distribution of loess. There is also a description, by Mr. W. Ogilvie, of the Yukon District of Canada, with an excellent map; and an article, "From Astrolabe to Quadrant," giving an account of the instruments carried by Columbus and the other great discoverers of the end of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth century.

The quarterly statement for July of the Palestine Exploration Fund opens with a detailed description, with plans, of the configuration and character of the ground on which the Church of the Holy Sepulchre is built. This is with especial reference to the preparation of an essay by Dr. C. Schick on the genuineness of the church, or the true site of Golgotha, to be presented to the Emperor of Germany at his projected visit to the Holy Land in the coming autumn. Other articles are on Hebrew and Babylonian poetry, by Lieut.-Col. Conder, tables of meteorological observations at Jerusalem, from 1882 to 1896, and some interesting photographs of buildings at Petra. The important announcement is made that a renewal of the permission to excavate has been granted by the Porte.

The Continental literature of the past twelve months is reviewed by native writers in the *Athenæum* for July 2; Italy and the Balkan States being the only countries unrepresented. The general impression left is, that the period has been one of great productiveness in nearly everything but works of the first importance. There has possibly been a falling off in biographical literature; a gain in works, light and serious, treating of social questions; and an apparent increase of women writers. Among the interesting facts noted is the publication of several German books in Belgium. This is the result of a national movement among the 50,000 Germans in that country. Till quite recently they had allowed themselves to be quietly "Gallicized," but now they have established free public libraries of German books, they publish German newspapers, and insist on the use of the German language in Parliament itself, and are apparently building up a national literature. It is a pathetic and yet hopeful sign that the most important literary work in Spain is the endeavor to revive and preserve the memories of its past glories, in the publication of histories and collections of historical documents, as well as new editions of the works of its great writers. The Russian chronicler notes the appearance of some metrical translations of the poems of Edgar Poe, and adds that he "can boast in Russia many more admirers and friends than he can claim in America."

'Aus allerlei Tonarten,' by Otto Braun (Stuttgart: Cotta), is a neatly printed volume of 148 pages, of which the first fifty-four contain translations from the writings of José de Espronceda, José Somoza, Lope de Vega, Angel Maria Dacarrete, Luisa Arroyo, and other Spanish poets. These translations are in the metre of the original and are exceedingly well done. Dr. Braun, like

Gottfried Kinkel, Julius Froebel, Carl Schurz, and nearly all progressive and patriotic Germans fifty years ago, was active in the Revolution of 1848, and, after the suppression of that movement, went to Paris and afterwards to Spain, where he acquired a passionate love and thorough knowledge of Spanish literature, together with a strong aversion to the politics and priestcraft, the blind conservatism and bigoted clericalism, which have produced the decline and decadence of a once powerful nation. After his return to his fatherland, Dr. Braun was for more than a quarter of a century editor-in-chief of the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, one of the most high-toned and influential organs of public opinion in Germany. In the midst of the arduous duties of a journalist he found leisure to visit the haunts of the Muses. In the tasty little book just issued the author has preserved the choicest of these "Pierian blooms."

Two university stipends for women of 150 florins ($72) each have been founded by the Austrian poetess, Frl. Marie von Najmajer. They are to be awarded to pupils of the Mädchen gymnasium established by the Verein für Weitere Frauenbildung in Vienna, in order to enable them to pursue their studies at the University. A rather invidious stipulation in conferring the stipends gives precedence to the daughters of Government officials and officers of the army.

In the historical section of the exhibition of reproductive arts, held in Munich in June and July, was to be seen, among other rare and interesting collections, that of Dr. Martin Schubart, to which we call attention because it is now permanently located at the Bavarian capital, and can no doubt be examined by art students, also, after the close of the special exhibition of which it temporarily formed a part. The collection contains etchings, finely colored, by Italian artists of the last century; a number of the earliest English mezzotint portraits, and engravings of the eighteenth century, printed in colors, from several copper plates; among the latter are two by Le Blon (born at Frankfort in 1667), the inventor of the process. Bruckmann's publishing house at Munich has issued a neatly printed catalogue of the works in Dr. Schubart's collection, as well as a list of all the firms represented in the abovementioned exhibition. Many of these are not as widely known as they deserve to be.

Some notion of the increase in the value of fine Greek vases during recent years may be formed from the fact that at the sale of the Tyszkiewicz collection in Paris in June, a red-figured hydria, with some of the figures painted in colors, was bought for the museum at Lyons for 20,500 francs.

In Mr. John Edmands's letter to the *Nation* last week respecting the germ of 'Poole's Index,' he was made to write from Baltimore instead of from the Mercantile Library in Philadelphia.

—The annual judicial statistics published by the English Government are very elaborate, but come out rather slowly. The volume of "Civil Judicial Statistics" for England and Wales for the year 1896 has but recently made its appearance, the letter transmitting it to the Home Secretary, Sir Matthew White Ridley, being dated March, 1898. It should, however, be said that the year 1896 seems for many purposes to end on March 31, 1897. The editor is Mr. John Macdonell, who holds a title that twenty-five years ago would have sounded very American—"Master of the Supreme Court." It is a quarto paper book of 269 pages, and contains information relating to the work of the judicial committee of the Privy Council, the House of Lords, the Supreme Court of Judicature, County Courts, and other civil courts. It belongs to the series of Government statistical publications, so continually appearing in England, which are not distributed, as ours used to be, by the car-load from the centre of government, but placed for sale with reputable publishing houses, from whom copies are to be had through any bookseller. In the present case the price is 2s. 5d., which probably represents little more than the cost of production. By this means, such publications really go to those who want them, and to no one else, while what they yield goes to defray expenses which otherwise must fall on the general public. The judicial statistics for 1896 seem to have been compiled with great care, but not in such a way as to throw much light on questions relating to courts in other countries. The following points, however, are interesting. For the five years which ended March 31, 1897, the "net charge of service" for the Court of Appeal and the High Court of Justice (*i. e.*, the difference between the receipts and expenditure) was £140,403 9s. 2d., or about $700,000, which is almost exactly the sum put down as paid for the salaries of judges on the bench. The ordinary fees pay for the greater part of the whole outlay. The expenses of election petition trials are stated at £2,034 11s. 4d. a year, which is no doubt enormously less than the expense, as it used to be, of parliamentary petitions. In bankruptcy proceedings and in "Companies Winding Up," receipts are put down as exceeding expenditure, while for the County Court service the annual deficit is made about £130,000. It is almost impossible to make comparisons between judicial expenses here and in England, because we have a much larger population, scattered over a vast territory, and a double judicial system, Federal and State. The actual amount of money disbursed by the United States for salaries of Federal judges alone seems to be, Supreme Court, $90,500; Circuit Courts (salary $6,000), $132,000; Court of Claims, $22,500; District Courts (salary, except in four cases, $5,000), $352,000—total $597,000.

—The Society for the Education of Every Egyptian Youth, to which Prof. Willard Fiske has devoted himself with characteristic ardor, continues its publications designed to familiarize the Egyptian public with the Roman transliteration of its own speech. Cards displaying the Egypto-Arabic and Roman alphabets side by side; broadsides to the same effect, or containing syllabic and other spelling exercises, or names of men and women, or short stories, have been handsomely printed for wide distribution. Pending the publication this month of an accurate catalogue of Egyptian post-offices, Prof. Fiske has edited a very readable little pamphlet, 'All about Postal Matters in Egypt' (Florence: The Landi Press), which every Nile tourist can enjoy and profit by, for it is as lucidly written as it is elegantly published. We have first, on the cover, the Egyptian alphabet in Roman guise, with values; then a geographical section respecting the nomenclature of Egypt, its main divisions, counties and provinces; then a list of sixty-five of the principal post-offices, with population affixed; then a section on cities and their (postal topographical) features; a section on Egyptian names of foreign places; another on personal names, with lists for both sexes; a readable brief account of the present admirable postal service, with a glimpse at its curious history; and finally statistics of mail matter, etc. The back cover contains forms of letter addresses. No propaganda could be more intelligent than this, and it should commend itself to the British rulers of Egypt.

—It is astonishing how slowly the sentiment in favor of the admission of women to the universities is gaining ground in Germany. To be sure, three hundred and fifteen female students attended the various universities of the Empire during the academic year just closing, but most of them were foreigners; and the German physicians, at their recent meeting at Wiesbaden, adopted resolutions to the effect that no especial benefit would result from the admission of women to medical practice, nor any great harm as long as the facilities for their preparatory education were not extended beyond their present scope. In case, however, further advantages (such as the opening of girls' gymnasia by the state) should be granted, the crowding of larger numbers of women into the medical profession would prove detrimental rather than beneficial to woman herself, while it would be of little benefit to the sick, bring no advantages to the universities or to science, and, while detracting from the dignity of the medical profession, would not further the welfare of the people at large. On the other hand, the inevitable must have dawned upon the assembly when it adopted the additional resolution that, in case the pursuit of the study of medicine by women should assume greater proportions, both their preparatory and professional training ought to be in every respect equivalent to the requirements made of men. Furthermore, individual voices, claiming for woman the rights which the rank and file would still deny her, continue to be heard. Thus, Prof. Dr. Lehmann, director of the hygienic institute of Würzburg, in an address delivered for the benefit of the "Frauenheil" society and published in the Beilage of the *Allgemeine Zeitung* (Nos. 141 and 142), heartily defends the cause of woman practitioners. It is to be regretted that Emperor William, whose personal opinion (as has been seen in the gymnasium-reform movement) is not without weight in educational matters, has declared that the sphere of woman is properly limited by the "three K's," *i. e.*, *Küche, Kinder, Kirche*, or Cooking, Childbearing, and Churchgoing.

—Any serious attempt to restore Sir Gawain to his ancient rights in Arthurian story deserves a hearing, and Miss Jessie L. Weston's 'Legend of Sir Gawain' (London: D. Nutt) is such an attempt. Her results are, briefly, as follows: Gawain was originally a solar hero, and in that capacity possessed a distinguished horse, such as a sun-god ought to have (the *Gringolet* of French romance), and a matchless sword, *Excalibur*, in later story transferred to King Arthur. His chief adventure has come down to us, in a somewhat rationalized form, in Chrétien's account of *l'Orgueilleuse de Logres*, for whose sake the hero is hard bested. This adventure is parallel to that of the Irish hero Cuchulinn in 'The Wooing of

Emer.' Comparison reveals it in its original character as a "visit to the Other-World" and the winning of its queen to wife. The adventure with the Green Knight is one of the tests by means of which Gawain won his immortal bride. The story of Gawain and that of Perceval were brought into connection at a very remote date, and Perceval was probably once regarded as Gawain's son. It is also likely that Gawain was the original lover of Guinevere, and that he was ousted in later times by Lancelot. The more or less constant parallelism between Gawain and Cuchulinn points to their substantial identity, and proves the Celtic origin of the Gawain myth. It would require much space to discuss these propositions, with several of which we can feel no sort of contentment. In one point, however, Miss Weston has done good service: she has demonstrated that Middle Irish literature cannot be neglected in any scholarly discussion of the "matter of Britain."

CHANCELLOR KENT.

Memoirs and Letters of James Kent, LL.D., late Chancellor of the State of New York. By his great-grandson, William Kent. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1898.

James Kent was born in 1763, and died in 1847. Though his birthplace was in the State of New York, and his whole life passed here, he was a New Englander by descent, and, like his father and grandfather before him, took a degree at Yale. As in so many other cases of distinguished Northern Americans, his male ancestors were mainly substantial farmers or Presbyterian clergymen, well known, in the narrow little world in which they lived, for sturdy integrity or learning, but beyond its borders not known at all. Dr. Uriah Rogers of Connecticut is mentioned as the Chancellor's only noted ancestor. His grandfather, the Rev. Elisha Kent, was a Puritan, a strict old divine, whose severity is believed to have had an effect in turning his grandson's mind in the direction of liberality. All the early associations of Kent's life were such as to form good habits and a good character, but there was nothing in them to give him any special intellectual training or turn, and when he left college at the age of eighteen, though he says himself that he had "college honors and a very promising reputation," almost his whole equipment for the task that lay before him—not merely his unequalled range of learning in our law, but his mastery of literature and history, ancient and modern, of foreign languages and foreign jurisprudence—was still to be self-acquired in such leisure as might be afforded from a lifetime devoted to constant professional work.

That he had extraordinary natural gifts must be conceded, among them immense inherent vigor and elasticity of mind, body, and will. In the prime of life we hear that he devoted two hours a day to Latin, two hours to Greek, two hours in the afternoon to French, and in the evening read "standard authors." As these hours were all outside of his ordinary work, not only must he have required little sleep, but nearly every moment of his day must have been occupied. Work was the atmosphere of his life, and his success, as well as the great and happy age to which he lived, showed that his was one of the cases in which the man had been born for the part he played. During his judicial career his greatness never seems to have been questioned by his contemporaries. They saw that he was a great judge; we see that he was a legal giant—one of those masters whose stature is above that of ordinary men. But when we read his Life, and perceive his simplicity and modesty, and his unfailing refusal to trust to anything but industry and minute accuracy and research, we feel that, wonderful as his powers were, he earned his fame by labor as unusual, and hence the record of his achievements inspires in us, as it did in his contemporaries, less envy than a sort of affectionate veneration.

Kent's Life has never before been written. His son, Judge William Kent, was to have brought it out, but died, leaving some materials which his great-grandson has now put together in an agreeable sketch. The only other account of Kent with which we are familiar is that contained in the careful address delivered by Judge Duer on the occasion of his death—an address which contains an important review of his work as judge and commentator by a most competent critic.

The story of Kent's life is soon told (it is in part autobiographical or pieced out by letters), and the substance of it is simple enough. We must protest, however, against the term "student" applied to him with emphasis in the author's preface, for it is a term not in itself characteristic. During his whole life he was mainly occupied, not in mere study, historical or analytical, but in the decision of actual controversies between man and man, or in advising clients as to the practical conduct of affairs. It was to qualify himself to do this that he became a student, but his studies were all directed to the most practical ends, the weighing of proof and argument, the administration of relief, the enforcement of contracts, the execution of wills, the management of property, the punishment of guilt and vindication of innocence, the application and enforcement of the network of rules and customs which give character to civil society and hold it together. It was by these occupations that Kent, like all his great predecessors, became an authority in the law, and, therefore, to call him a "painstaking, industrious, and conscientious student" is to use epithets which bring into relief the means, but obscure the end. No great mastery of the law was ever attained through books only, and the most striking proof that is to be found of the fact is furnished by the circumstance disclosed in this volume, that Kent himself, when he attempted, as a young man without experience, to do precisely what later in life was to make him most famous—to lecture on law—after several attempts abandoned the task. It was as a professor at Columbia that he produced his 'Commentaries,' it was as a professor at Columbia that he made the only failure of his life. The reason of the failure is obvious. He was at that time attempting to do what all experience shows cannot be done—teach what he had not learnt.

Kent was essentially a man of affairs—a public man, who, had he not early gone on to the bench, would probably have had a political career. He was sent three times to the Legislature and once to a constitutional convention; as a very young man he took a deep interest in the proceedings of the convention which drew up the Constitution of the United States. Although not fond of advocacy—his talents lying in another direction—he had a lucrative practice, and might easily have been all his life a leader of the bar. His interest in public matters was profound, and, as any one can see from his judgments, it was because he was interested in the great questions involved in the life of man in society that he cared for law. It is important to remember, in following his career, that Hamilton was the publicist of the same world of which Kent was the judge. As a very young man, Kent fell under the influence of Hamilton, who became his idol. It was owing to a conversation in which Hamilton and Kent both took part, that the former met his death. The author gives a characteristic anecdote of a meeting between Kent and Burr long afterwards, when the latter had returned to the United States. Forgetting everything in his rage at seeing the man who had killed Hamilton, he rushes across the street, shakes his cane in Burr's face, and exclaims, in a voice choking with passion: "You're a scoundrel, sir!—a scoundrel!" Burr, well knowing himself to be a scoundrel, and with the wonderful coolness which he always had at command, raises his hat, bows, and replies: "The opinions of the learned Chancellor are always entitled to the highest consideration."

When a man has occupied a position such as Kent's for two generations, the public begin to forget the precise nature of the work by which he attained his eminence, his reputation becomes a commonplace, and we even wonder whether there may not be something factitious about it. Why is it that every one who goes over ground that Kent has covered confesses his superiority to all the rest? "I do most cordially assent to the language of praise in which a modern writer speaks of him as the greatest jurist whom this age has produced, whose writings may safely be said to be never wrong." This is the deliberate statement, not of an American eulogist, but of Abdy, himself an authority in the field in which he defers to Kent in this way. The present volume contains a pretty good account of what gave Kent his standing, but the reader cannot get an adequate idea of the whole matter without going to Judge Duer's address.

To put it in a few words, what we owe to Kent may best be compared with what we owe to Marshall. Just as American constitutional law to-day is mostly derived from principles first laid down by Marshall, so it is no exaggeration to say that it is to Kent that we may trace the main features of the system of private law and equity under which the American lawyer to-day advises his clients. When Kent went on to the bench of the Supreme Court, a most curious state of affairs existed, which it is difficult now to recall, even in imagination. At the beginning of this century there was hardly more law in this country than there was literature. There were no reports, the judges were often men unversed in legal or any other learning, and there were no written opinions, and, therefore, no record of the grounds of decision, and no rules. The Revolution had swept away the English system, not merely of law, but of government and society, and the principles on which a new society in its infancy was to exist were to be laid down. The account given of jurisprudence is that it was "a blank." Of this condition of things, delay, vacillations, contradictions, confusion, and uncertainty were the inevitable consequences, while the condition of the

bench had a most demoralizing effect on the bar. To establish any system in such chaos, a revolution was necessary, and, as Judge Duer says, "It was effected mainly by the efforts and by the example of the man who, at the early age of thirty-five, was now raised to the bench."

The control obtained by Kent over his court was due to sheer ability. We are told that his brethren were greatly astonished by the fact that in every case reserved for decision he "produced a written opinion," but as they had nothing to oppose to his reasoning or his authorities, they "were in no condition" to controvert him. There was nothing for them to do but to abandon the court to Kent, or to imitate his example. They chose the latter course, and in a few years the Supreme Court of New York was established as a court of the first rank and importance. When in 1814 Kent was made Chancellor, he found the Court of Chancery in a state still worse. It was viewed by the mass of the people as an arbitrary and irresponsible court, "masking oppression under the forms of law." No reports had been published, and during Kent's time no judgment or even dictum of his predecessors was cited, or even referred to before him. He created the court, and thus curiously recalled, after the lapse of centuries, the career of Sir Heneage Finch (Lord Nottingham), the founder of equity in England. Kent drew from English as Nottingham had drawn from Roman precedents. The genius of both lay in the sagacity with which they selected principles from older sources to found a system widely different from those to which it owed its origin.

All great judges deliver some judgments which reveal their powers and grasp of the law at their best. The professional reader will find several of these examined and explained in Judge Duer's address. Perhaps the best known to the world at large is that of People vs. Croswell (3 Johns. Cas. 363), in which the right of the jury in libel suits to pass on the whole question of guilt is upheld. This doctrine, which Hamilton vindicated, and Kent adopted, became, against the weight of Lord Mansfield's authority, one of the modern constitutional safeguards of liberty of speech. But when Judge Duer comes to give an account of Kent's judgments in equity, he pays him the sweeping compliment of declaring that selection is out of the question. The important cases are so numerous and cover so vast a range that any selection must be purely arbitrary. He can give no advice but to study every opinion that Kent ever delivered.

After twenty-six years of judicial service Kent was made Recorder in New York in 1797; he retired from the bench at the age of sixty, and became a teacher of law. In the seven years between 1823 and 1830 the 'Commentaries,' which remain his greatest monument, were produced. He says in his autobiographical remains, speaking of his lectures delivered in 1794-5, that they were "slight and trashy productions"; "I wanted judicial labors to teach me precision." Whatever he had lacked he had certainly now acquired. Many people, not familiar with the book, fancy it an American Blackstone; but this is a great mistake. There is a resemblance in the arrangement and in the affinity which springs from their being both commentaries on the common law; but in substance there are more points of difference than of resemblance. In matters of public and constitutional law they represent opposed systems, and in style there is no resemblance at all. Blackstone is the only strictly entertaining law-book ever written, but he has suffered from this very cause, suspicion attaching to the law when it is "as interesting as a novel." Kent is clear, judicial, and accurate—that is, he has the virtues of style requisite for his task. Blackstone is a key to the law, but Kent is the law itself.

Of the Chancellor's private life and character the book gives pleasant glimpses. As a boy he tells us that several of his fellow-students thought his tastes odd and dull, but he notes the fact that his critics in several cases took to drink and died young. We hear of his love-match, which was quite a romance, and the reader is not at all surprised to find that it turned out a success for life. We see him following his idol, Hamilton, through the long and doubtful debates of the convention on which in great measure hung the future fate of the country; we sympathize with his great hobby, geography and travel, the hobby of a man whose sympathies and interests took in the world, and whose travels extended to Albany or Philadelphia. Little traits reveal the man. His honesty and good sense attract the reader as they did his contemporaries, because they are so impulsive, unquestionable, and at the same time humane. When the time of his court is wasted with a ridiculous motion involving a few shillings, he cuts the matter short by exclaiming, "I won't hear it; I won't hear it. I would rather pay it myself"; and a curious instance of his readiness and resource is given in an anecdote of his overcoming an objection to the qualifications of a member of another bar, by appointing the objector to examine him for admission on the spot. Simplicity of feeling and expression, sometimes approaching naïveté; shrewdness and capacity for dealing with men; honesty, industry, strong domestic affections, combined with great kindliness, suavity, humanity, and modesty, shine out in the reminiscences and letters preserved. Kent's career was the opposite of adventurous—in fact, had few incidents of any sort; his biography cannot be made picturesque. Dramatic in a certain sense it is, for he was the architect of a great and enduring position, which he made himself by sheer native force of mind and character.

The Voyages of the Cabots: Latest Phases of the Controversy. By S. E. Dawson. Ottawa: James Hope & Co. 1897.

Recent Cabot literature may be divided into three main sections, each corresponding to a subject of spirited debate. These are, firstly, the circumstances under which John Cabot came to England and made his voyage of 1497; secondly, the exact geographical site of the landfall; and, thirdly, the character of Sebastian Cabot. In Europe, as was natural, discussion has turned more on the first and third of the above topics, while in America the second has received the lion's share of attention. Every one who is following the controversy in its local phase is familiar with what Dr. S. E. Dawson has already written to prove that Cape Breton is the region where the British flag was first floated in this hemisphere. His results (and especially his theory of magnetic variation) were widely noticed at the time of their appearance; and he is, we should think, the leading living advocate of a view once supported by Mr. Charles Deane and Dr. Winsor. Mr. Harrisse in like manner stands for the pretensions of Labrador, and Judge Prowse for those of Newfoundland.

Dr. Dawson now publishes in pamphlet form a long paper which he submitted to the Royal Society of Canada at its last meeting, and which is reprinted from its Transactions. The term "latest phases" apparently relates to the landfall question alone, for the Fust Chronicle is left in Mr. Weare's hands to be settled with Mr. Harrisse. The present position of things (we had almost said the present *casus belli*) is this: Newfoundland, "the oldest colony," has, in the persons of its antiquaries, been very much exercised over the landfall of 1497. Even could it be mathematically proved that Cabot touched at Cape Breton or Cape Chidley instead of at Cape Bonavista or Cape St. John, the historical place of the island on Britain's roll of colonies would be unchanged. Yet in a glow either of misplaced patriotism or of outraged scholarship, Judge Prowse, in criticising Dr. Dawson's defence of the Cape Breton theory, uses such words as "senseless," "absurd," and "preposterous." The issue between them and the manner in which it is being waged can be gathered from the following passage in Dr. Dawson's reply:

> "In a criticism of Archbishop O'Brien's address Judge Prowse states that 'the claim of Cape Breton is utterly untenable, opposed alike to common sense and reason and all the contemporary records.' It is therefore only right to repeat that it was the first place ever mentioned as the landfall, and that a large number of very eminent men have held and advocated that very theory. It has, moreover, been the prevailing theory during the past forty years. . . . In the last analysis, Judge Prowse stands alone . . . for Cape Bonavista. In his own words: 'Alone like *Athanasius contra mundum*, fighting for the creed of Christendom against the world.' The parallel is not exact, for Athanasius was fighting for the older faith."

In other words, it is a lively little encounter.

Besides having Judge Prowse for chief adversary, Dr. Dawson confutes Bishop Howley's claim that the landfall was on Cape St. John, and continues to differ from Mr. Harrisse with regard to Labrador. It is only in Judge Prowse's case that we are reminded of *tantæne animis cœlestibus iræ;* the rest of the discussion keeps within the bounds of academic argument. When he comes to tabulate his conclusions, Dr. Dawson insists strongly on a few main points, among which are these: Cabot meant to steer west from Bristol, and "all the conditions existing upon the North Atlantic tend to make a westerly course swerve to the south." In the next place, Cavo de Ynglaterra on Juan de la Cosa's map of 1500 is "admitted by very high authority" to be Cape Race, and thus the *Cavo descubierto* of the same map would correspond to Cape Breton. Moreover, Dr. Puebla maintained that the territory discovered by Cabot belonged to Spain, and the line of demarcation runs just to the east of Cape Breton, cutting off Labrador and Newfoundland. Add to this the explorer's own statement that "it is a region where brazil wood and silk might be expected to grow," and we get Cape Breton's brief down to the beginning of the sixteenth century. Corroborative evidence is supplied by Pedro Reinel's map of 1505,

Clement Adams's of 1549 (prepared with the aid of Sebastian Cabot), and Lok's of 1582. Resting his case on such grounds, Dr. Dawson believes that Cape Breton can lay claim to the honor of Cabot's landfall with no less justice than Watling's Island can lay claim to that of Columbus. He has certainly entered the best plea yet made on its behalf, and many professed historians will profit by following his use of evidence.

We should call attention to the large number of maps which are reproduced in support of Dr. Dawson's contentions. Much valuable material is also to be found in the appendices, *e. g.*, Appendix E, where the position of the Tanais (referred to in Soncino's letter) is discussed, and Appendix F, where it is shown that Prince Edward Island was not Cabot's St. John.

Michel de Montaigne: A Biographical Study. By M. E. Lowndes. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1898. 8vo, pp. 286.

It is delightful to the student of Montaigne to perceive that each new volume that now appears about him (and how rapidly they appear!) is becoming, for the most part, more and more serious in tone, more and more valuable in character; and that, as it takes its place in the library of Montaigne literature, it will push aside and out of sight the careless chronicles, the fantastic fables, and the pages of prejudice that have for so many generations passed as biographical information regarding the great essayist.

There is an agreeable interest of another kind in learning that this last new volume is from the hand of a woman. The first person to proclaim publicly and with enthusiasm the merits of Montaigne was his "fille d'alliance," Mlle. de Gournay, and from his day to ours an unbroken line of eminent women have, generation after generation, evinced such high regard, such warm admiration, for him that it constitutes the strongest of testimonies to the essential rectitude of his character and to the admirableness of his personal philosophy. Miss Lowndes carries on the tradition of feminine devotion—with a quiet moderation that is itself the best proof of how strongly she has felt Montaigne's influence. There is a complete avoidance of eulogy and of the common biographical idealizing in her pages.

The central subject-matter of the book seems, at times, not so much the character of Montaigne as the general tone of thought in France in his day, and the public conditions of the country. Montaigne's life is here imbedded in the life of his times in a manner which is the result of wide and thoughtful studies. This admirable method of presentation is open to the criticism—favorable perhaps rather than adverse—that it produces a book which will much more interest those who are already interested in Montaigne and in the history of the Renaissance and the Reformation, than those who are not familiar with the sixteenth century. Not that much information in the reader is assumed, and the facts referred to in the text are carefully detailed in the notes, but the peculiarity of the volume is that it has more the character of history than of biography. Small as it is, its outlines have great "largeness" of treatment, and its light is the open-air light of impartiality.

The most original portion of the study is in the last ten pages, in the statement of the connection between the thought of Montaigne and the thought of Descartes: the conversion of the philosophic doubt of the essayist into the methodic doubt of the scientific thinker. This has been frequently suggested but never before clearly stated. The author brings together Montaigne, Descartes, and Pascal—that trio of illustrious Frenchmen—and points out concisely but distinctly their respective types of genius, and the redoubled interest Montaigne acquires when thought of in conjunction with Pascal and Descartes.

No previous work on Montaigne in English is comparable in scholarship with this. And no French work is of a nature so satisfactory and complete, or presents so interesting a whole. Miss Lowndes has built necessarily and avowedly on (or rather with) the admirable and remarkable material collected by the generous industry of French workers; but no one before her in any country has created from it so excellent a structure. The thoroughness of her information and the largeness of her intelligence, connected with her fine sense of literary proportion, give her work solidity. If to this volume we add the chapter on Montaigne in Mr. Pater's 'Gaston de Latour,' with these two works our generation must be regarded as having established Montaigne's position, so peculiar and so high a one, more securely and unquestionably than it has ever been before. Henceforth there can only be individual differences of personal judgment about him; his place in history and in literature is now clearly and authoritatively assigned, and many of the former judgments of him, even such as those signed by the honored names of Sainte-Beuve and Emerson, must pass into the limbo of mistakes.

Miss Lowndes defines well the type of human mind of which Montaigne is representative as that which is naturally spectator, not actor, in life; which is essentially passive, unassertive, non-insistent in character, unconcerned in either remoulding or persuading the world. But she only here and there hints at the personal element in Montaigne's thought, and she does not undertake to show with any fulness what he added to that which he received from the world's thought. Neither does she declare, as she might, in considering the character of the Essayist, that the writing of the Essays was in fact a deed, and one of high import to the world, and that their value is not best seen from a biographical or historical or philosophical or philological point of view, but from one that reveals a mental personality as distinct as that of Socrates, that makes known the individual force which underlies and overspreads the wide outlook, the moderation, the imagination, the gayety, the sensibility of this "spectator." Perhaps this force may be found to reside in the geniality and warmth of mind which gives unfailing charm to the pages "full," as Miss Lowndes says, "of wholesome common sense and human wisdom."

It is to be hoped that this volume may have a second edition. In that case the authoress might accept a suggestion that she should indicate for each of her citations the date of its publication—often a point of considerable interest as showing at what period of his life and of public affairs Montaigne held the opinions expressed. And, also, that she should conform the spelling of these passages to that used by Montaigne, and not to the hybrid text of Louandre. In one of her chapters (the eleventh) she shows such use of the late careful "reprint" edition of Motheau & Jouaust as it would be well to make throughout — adding references, if she pleases, to the more common edition of Louandre.

A more personal request may be made to her—a wish that she would not continue to disguise her sex behind initials. Women should desire to-day to show openly what they find themselves able to do, and should put forth their literary work as simply as they lead their social lives. They should do this for the encouragement and support of women less favored than themselves in ability, and, also, it may be added, for the convenience of reviewers and library-cataloguers. It is long past the days when they need fear any prejudice in the opinions about their work.

A Text-Book of Botany. By Drs. Strasburger, Noll, Schenck, and Schimper, of the University of Bonn. Translated from the German by Dr. H. C. Porter, of the University of Pennsylvania. Macmillan. 1898.

It is properly held that there are few words in our language more deterrent to the general public than "text-book." The term brings up visions of dogmatic utterance and of statements so condensed and compressed that they are juiceless and indigestible. Moreover, it is widely known that many text-books are characterized by a cocksureness which may be valuable, but which is certainly exasperating, at least to many minds. Therefore the text-book is the very last place to which one goes for enjoyment of any kind. To give a volume this designation is to doom it beforehand to exclusion from the hands of the general reader.

Perhaps the few words which follow may do something to avert from the charming treatise mentioned at the head of this article a fate so undeserved. In the first place, the whole appearance of the work is attractive; in the second place, this attractiveness of appearance is associated throughout with a most skilful presentation of fundamental facts and essential principles. The translation is clear and strong, and remarkably free from slips of any importance. Two features are impressed on every chapter of the book: (1) definiteness and lucidity of statement, and (2) caution in holding the statements within defensible limits. These features may be illustrated by many examples—for instance, one taken from the account of mutual relations between certain fungi and the higher plants:

"A marvellous relation between roots and Bacteria exists in the case of the Leguminosæ. It has long been known that peculiar outgrowths, the so-called 'root-tubercles,' are found on the roots of many Leguminosæ (bean, pea, lupine, clover, etc.). Within the last few years the astonishing discovery has been made that these tubercles are caused by certain Bacteria. . . . The Bacteria penetrate through the root-hairs into the cortex of the root, and there give rise to the tubercular growths. These tubercles become filled with a bacterial mass consisting chiefly of swollen and abnormally developed (hypertrophied) Bacterioids, but in part also of Bacteria which have remained in their normal condition. The former seem to be eventually consumed by the host-plant, while the latter remain with the dead roots in the soil, to provide for further re-

production. . . . We have here another example of symbiosis, in which the Leguminosæ furnish carbohydrates to the Bacteria, which in turn possess the power of taking up free nitrogen and passing it on to the host in an available form. This, at least, is certain: the Leguminosæ with such tubercles contain more nitrogen than could have been procured from the nitrates and other substances in the soil in which they grow."

It is difficult to see how these newly acquired facts could have been stated more definitely, cautiously, or more interestingly. We venture to cite another example of symbiosis, but of another sort:

"The so-called 'ant-plants' offer to certain small extremely warlike ants a dwelling in convenient cavities of the stems, in hollow thorns, in swollen and inflated internodes, or in the labyrinthine passages of their large stem-tubers. At the same time the ants are provided with food in the case of the cecropias and acacias in the form of albuminous fatty bodies (food-bodies), and by the acacias also with nectar. The ants, in exchange, guard the plants most effectively against the inroads of animal foes as well as against other leaf-cutting species of ants, which in the American tropics kill trees by immediately and completely divesting them of their entire foliage. Upon the accumulated fragments of leaves (fungus gardens), according to Möller, the ants make pure cultures of the fungus mycelium, whose peculiar nutritive outgrowths serve them exclusively for nourishment."

The first part of the work is devoted to the forms of the external organs and their tissue elements, as well as to the adaptations to their surroundings. The second part is assigned to the functions of these parts and their coördinated actions. Next follows part third with an account of the Flowerless Plants, and, lastly, comes part fourth, with the families of Flowering Plants. Considering the fact that the work is a composite, coming from four hands, it is remarkable for its freedom from undue repetitions and from overlapping. The boundaries are well defined and have no vague penumbra. Therefore we commend the treatise to all who would place themselves in possession of the latest intelligence from the vegetable world.

Répertoire de la Statuaire grecque et romaine. Par Salomon Reinach. Tome II. Sept mille statues antiques, réunies pour la première fois. Paris: E. Leroux. 1898. 2 vols., 12mo.

In April of last year we noticed the appearance of the first part of Salomon Reinach's 'Répertoire de la Statuaire grecque et romaine,' which was a reprint, upon a reduced scale, of all that is of permanent value in Clarac's 'Musée,' with an index and notes by the editor. The second and more important part of the 'Répertoire' is now before us, and it testifies, more than anything he has yet published, to M. Reinach's ability and energy as a collector and compiler of material. From public museums and private collections of ancient sculpture, he has here brought together illustrations of nearly 7,000 statues and statuettes—he states the exact number as 6,693—none of which are included in Clarac. These are reproduced in outline, classified according to their subjects, with mention of the source from which each illustration was taken, and are followed by a complete analytical index, which makes it possible to consult the book without difficulty or vexation. As may be inferred from the title, busts and reliefs are excluded; and for some reason, which M. Reinach does not explain, terracotta reproductions of statuary types are also omitted, the selection being limited to works in bronze, marble and other stones. To give a conception of the completeness of the book within the range chosen by the editor, we may say that of Apollo, for example, there are 329 representations, including those of the "Narcissus" type, and the "type viril archaïque," and of Athena 227. With the publication of such a vast amount of material, M. Reinach has certainly done much to smooth the way for the editor of a complete *Corpus Statuarum*, should any one be found with sufficient courage to undertake such a task.

Still, we cannot help confessing that the very thoroughness with which he has accomplished his work makes us regret that the result is not more commensurate in appearance with the industry he has expended upon it. As we have said, the illustrations are outline sketches, generally roughly, and sometimes badly, drawn from photographs or other publications, reduced to a common height of about two inches, there being an average of eight to a duodecimo page. We appreciate fully M. Reinach's desire to keep the cost of the book down to the lowest limit, and even as it is we marvel at the possibility of publishing these two volumes at five francs each; but we question seriously whether the sacrifice thus involved in the quality of the illustrations has not been unnecessary as well as injurious. In the reprints which he has hitherto published the element of cost, the desirability of issuing them as cheaply as possible in comparison with their sumptuous originals, has been an obviously important factor; but in the present case an original compilation, containing no inconsiderable proportion of unpublished or inaccessible material, surely called for no such excessive economy. Had the book been twice its size, with four figures on a page instead of eight, and had these figures been reproduced in half-tone directly from the photographs or other illustrations which he used, the result would have been immeasurably more valuable to the public to which the book is addressed; and even had the price been in consequence five times what it is, it would still have been modest when compared with the richness of the material or the cost of other and much less complete collections of a like nature. We dwell upon this point because of our keen regret at what seems to us a lost or wasted opportunity. M. Reinach has done his work so exhaustively that nobody is likely to go over the same ground again, for the present at least, and it is most unfortunate that we are not enabled to enjoy the full benefits of his industry.

As it is, the cuts give the motive of each figure, they show whether it is draped, and if so, how the drapery is arranged, and they also show what attributes or accessories are attached to it, though not always as clearly as might be desired. One is able to see from them how far two given statues correspond in attitude, and sometimes in preservation, though the restored parts are not indicated as they are in Clarac. But of the shape and character of the features, and of such details as the arrangement of the hair, often of prime importance in the comparison or identification of types, they are too small and too loosely drawn to give more than the barest conception; and we cannot pass over the fact that the drawings are sometimes so carelessly made as to give an entirely false impression of the proportions of the originals.

In spite of these shortcomings, however, M. Reinach's 'Répertoire' is a book of unique value and one which every serious student of Greek sculpture will find a necessary part of his equipment. If we lament what it does not offer, this is with no intention of disparaging what it does. No other collection of Greek and Roman sculptural types approaches it in completeness. Merely as an index of Greek statues, a means of learning quickly what and where are the known examples of a particular type, its usefulness is difficult to overestimate; and if the student does not find all he needs in its illustrations, the notes at the bottom of each page will, in the majority of cases, tell him where to look for it. We remark, by the way, M. Reinach's announcement in his preface that he does not intend to end his labors in this field with the present volumes. He holds out a half-promise, which we hope to see fulfilled, of another volume in which he will give more information regarding such matters as the size and restorations of the statues here published than there has been time or space for in the preparation of Part II. The Supplement, also, which fills nearly thirty pages of the second volume, will be continued in the *Revue Archéologique* as the material for it accumulates; and to make this as complete as possible he asks the assistance of all who are willing to send him photographs or drawings of figures which are not included in the volumes already issued.

Familiar Life in Field and Forest. The Animals, Birds, Frogs, and Salamanders. By F. Schuyler Mathews. D. Appleton & Co. 1898. 8vo, xvi, 284 pp. Illustrated.

There are few things more gratifying to the lover of nature than those momentary glimpses of wild animals which he sometimes obtains while passing through the field or forest. To seek them is like taking a chance in a lottery: there are numerous blanks and few prizes. But because the wild folk are not in constant evidence like the wild flower, is no proof that they are uncommon. It may be largely a matter of good fortune if one catches a glimpse of some wild creature on the highway, but in the forest it depends chiefly upon the observer and his conduct. Wild animals never become familiar to one who is heedless and impatient. The rustle of a leaf or the snap of a twig will send the timid burrower to the depths of his hole, and it requires a more than ordinary patience to await his reappearance. It should be borne in mind, also, that wild animals vary in their range from year to year and season to season. What seemed to be absent or extinct twenty years ago may not be so to-day. The borders of abandoned farms are constantly invaded by animals which were not supposed to live within many miles. Occasionally an otter, a lynx, a deer, or a bear is unexpectedly encountered, and at once the whole country turns out to hunt it down, though there is no good reason why our woodland neighbor should be slain, unless by committing depredations it becomes a public enemy.

There is something satisfactory in the consciousness of friendly intentions when in the presence of some startled creature whose restless eyes betray the fear that we are a deadly foe, and an exultant pleasure when one sees the little wild thing approach, timidly accept a nut or crust, and actually eat

in within reaching distance. The wild life of the woods is not unapproachable. It may be difficult to cultivate its friendship, but in time it will respond. When we have persuaded a wild bird or squirrel to eat from our hands, the memory of it abides with us for ever.

Mr. Mathews's experiences with wild animals have been sufficient to develop a respect for their natural rights and a desire to speak a good word for them on suitable occasions. His little book is intended to assist the observer to become acquainted with his woodland neighbors, to recognize the different species, and to learn something of their ways. For this it is well adapted, and we think would prove a welcome guide to many an intelligent boy or girl on summer outing. Mr. Lyman Underwood has contributed some excellent photographs from nature, to which are added many pen-and-ink sketches by the author. To Messrs. Bangs, Henshaw, and Prof. Garman the author is indebted for assistance in bringing the scientific matter up to the latest date. Finally the publishers have done their part in making the volume attractive, and for this they will, doubtless, not go unrewarded.

Java, the Garden of the East. By E. R. Scidmore. The Century Company.

The island of Java at this moment is of unusual interest to us, for it suggests many points of similarity and contrast with two lands to which our attention is now particularly directed, Cuba and the Philippines. Java and Cuba are nearly of the same size and shape, and, though Cuba is the less tropical, they resemble each other in many of their productions and natural resources. The comparison, however, between Java and the Philippines is even more fruitful, as, besides being close to one another and having much the same general characteristics, they are two of the oldest colonies now held by any European Power, both governed for centuries by a handful of whites ruling over millions of about the same native populations (as well as a sprinkling of Chinese) for the benefit of the mother country. The difference between their conditions to-day is due almost entirely to the character of the nations that have held them, to the difference between the shrewd, practical, unsentimental Dutchman and the indolent, bigoted Spaniard. The result is that, whereas Java is not 20 per cent. larger than Luzon alone, it has more than three times the population of the Philippine Islands (mostly through natural increase in this century) and about ten times the trade. The Dutch empire is a splendid triumph of the great qualities of a little nation; the Spanish, formerly so vast, is a remnant long crumbling from its own vices until now its end seems at hand. And yet Dutch rule, if more enlightened and humane, has not, at least until lately, been very much more philanthropic in its intentions than has Spanish. The colonies have existed for the advantage of Holland and her sons, not of foreigners, Uitlanders, who are still regarded with anxious jealousy, nor of the natives. Under the "Culture System," which brought so much money into Dutch coffers, the Javanese were kept half slaves, condemned to steady work for the especial enrichment of others, while no pretence was made of educating or raising them. Their material welfare was, however, looked after, their laws, customs, and prejudices respected, by an able if despotic government. Dutch planters grew rich, Dutch officials drew high salaries, but the inferior race lived peacefully and multiplied, and appears on the whole not to have been discontented. On the other hand, it is very characteristic that, whereas there are said to be six million Christians in the Philippines to-day, the number of native Christians in Java is too insignificant to count. If we feel inclined to blame the calm indifference of the Dutchman to the spiritual welfare of his subjects, it has certainly saved him from many political difficulties.

Of late, it is true, things have not gone so well as of old in the island. Owing to many causes, such as the fall in the price of tropical products, the ruinous Atchinese war, the diversion of trade from Singapore, etc., Java does not pay as well as it once did; in fact, probably will never be quite such a bounteous source of revenue again. The natives, too, who cannot be treated as children for ever, since the "Culture System" gave way to more modern conditions are not so submissive as they once were; hence, as the population, now so small, of the other Dutch islands increases, the mother country may some day find her empire too great for her governing. Germany stands ready enough to come to her assistance, but to whom would the colonies then belong? This, however, is a chance of the uncertain future; the present is still brilliant enough for Holland.

Miss Scidmore's work is primarily a book of travel and is well written. Not only is the style good and the observation keen, but there is plenty of useful information with judicious criticism. English books on Java are not common, and we heartily recommend hers to the public.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Avancini, Avancinio. All' Ombra del Faggio. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.
Baldwin, Prof. J. M. The Story of the Mind. Appletons.
Bates, F. O. The Five Post-Kleisthenean Tribes. [Cornell Studies in Classical Philology.] Macmillan.
Collins, Prof. G. S. Selections from the Works of Jean Paul Friedrich Richter. American Book Co. 60c.
Cummings, St. James. Staves of the Triple Alliance. Charleston, S. C.: The Author.
Dictionary of "Greater" New York and its Vicinity. 1898. Appletons. 30c.
D'Ovidio, Francesco. Prose e Tragedie Scelte di Silvio Pellico. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.
Hanscom, Alice E. Perennia. Cleveland: Helman-Taylor Co. $1.
Harrison, Prof. J. A. Spain in History. Werner Co.
Henty, G. A. The Queen's Cup: A Novel. Appletons. $1.
Hutchinson, Woods. The Gospel According to Darwin. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.50.
Life is Life, and Other Tales and Episodes. By Zack. Scribners. $1.50.
Matthews, Victoria E. Black-Belt Diamonds. Gems from the Speeches, etc., of Booker T. Washington. New York: Fortune & Scott. $1.
Morgan, C. L. Psychology for Teachers. Scribners. $1.
Paget, R. L. Poems of American Patriotism, 1776-1898. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.
Redway, J. W., and Hinman, R. Natural Advanced Geography. American Book Co.
Richthofen, F. von. Schantung und seine Eingangspforte Kiautschou. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Rosenberg, Adolph. Lenbach. [Künstler-Monographien.] Lemcke & Buechner.
Saunders, Marshall. Rose à Charlitte. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Schwill, Ferdinand. History of Modern Europe. Scribners. $1.50.
Smyth, Prof. A. H. Burke's Letter to a Noble Lord. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Stevens, J. E. Yesterdays in the Philippines. Scribners. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 11, 1898.

The Week.

One reason why the country is receiving the assurance of speedy peace so quietly is that it has been certain to come ever since Spain asked our terms. It has, therefore, been "discounted" by the general public as well as by the stock market. There will probably be no very enthusiastic demonstrations when the suspension of hostilities is declared, unless by our soldiers and sailors. Their predominantly humane instincts and motives have been shown more than once in the course of the war, and they will hail the order bidding them save life instead of taking it. Nor have we the sense of deliverance from an overshadowing national peril to make us celebrate the date of the signing of the treaty of peace (as an impetuous Western editor advises) as a national holiday. We have conquered a weak antagonist, and have done it quickly, and to be too exuberant over the performance would look as if we had been none too sure of ourselves. The public, moreover, are alive to the fact that the problems thrust upon us by the peace are going to be much more serious than those we have had to face in the war itself. None the less, peace so soon arrived at, and after so comparatively small a loss of life, is a great cause for rejoicing.

Doubt is raised in some quarters whether an armistice will be declared pending the negotiation of a definitive treaty of peace. There ought to be, there can be, no doubt about this. The main object in seeking peace was to prevent further needless bloodshed. The war was degenerating into little more than butchery. Spain's power of resistance was fatally broken, though her men could still stand up to be slaughtered if necessary. But for fighting of even the most desultory character to go on with peace in sight would be too frightful. It would be like maintaining a public shambles for human victims. We cannot believe that the proclamation of an armisticee will be delayed a single day after Spain's acceptance is made known to our Government. If Sagasta has not asked it, the President should announce it on his own motion and without an instant's hesitation.

The report of a fight at Manila on the night of July 31 comes at a critical time, considering the fact that peace negotiations are almost concluded. There is no room for a charge of bad faith against Spain in any case, seeing that we continued hostilities in Porto Rico while the negotiations were proceeding. It should be borne in mind also that Spain has no means of communication with her forces in Manila except by smuggling through our lines or those of Aguinaldo. The first vague talk about peace got into the newspapers of July 22, and it would have taken nine or ten days for the news to reach Manila even without obstructions. In fact, it took nine days for the news of the battle to reach us, although there was no obstruction. All that can be said about the fight is that it was inopportune, but much more so for the Spaniards than for us, as their losses were far greater than ours.

The probability of an extra session of the Senate appears to be remote. The President has full power to appoint a commission to negotiate a treaty of peace with Spain, and there will be nothing for the Senate to do until that treaty has been concluded. It seems to be conceded that the commission will sit in Paris, and a considerable period of time must be allowed for its assembling and its deliberations. There is very slight chance that its work can be completed much before the regular assembling of Congress in December. The President, in fact, has the matter virtually in his own hands, and it is cause for congratulation that he has. No matter how "Jingoish" or "imperialistic" the Senate may feel when it assembles in December, no matter how Foraker may rant and Chandler rave, it is inconceivable that any treaty which may go before it for approval, after nearly or quite four months of virtual peace, will be rejected. The country will be so overwhelmingly on the side of the President and his solution of the question that the Senate will not dare to do anything except acquiesce. To refuse would be to reopen the war, and even the Senate would not venture upon that course.

Now that the foreign war is practically over, the strife becomes internecine; the generals and eke the colonels in the field fall to wrangling with the Secretary of War, who proceeds to give them as good as they send. The whole affair is humiliating and disgraceful. We can only thank Heaven that the Santiago campaign was fortunately over as it was before these revelations came to light. With a spirit looking painfully like insubordination in the officers of the army, and with the Secretary of War acting like a man moved by personal and political spite, the outlook would be alarming enough if there were still serious fighting before us. As it is, the work of saving the army from destruction by disease is the duty of the hour, and we are glad to believe that efficient measures have been taken to that end.

The unseemly controversy which is filling many columns of the press as to who is responsible for the lack of medical and other supplies for the army in Cuba has gained such headway that putting a limit to it now is probably out of the question. Everybody who chooses to take a hand in it, from Gen. Shafter and the Surgeon-General of the army down to all the privates and assistant surgeons and nurses, apparently feels free to do so. The Secretary of War has set the example in this method of discussing all questions connected with the campaign, and it is not to be wondered at that, with the newspapers egging them on, everybody below him connected with the war should be eager to take a hand in it. If this extraordinary unveiling of the War Department and army methods shall lead to a thoroughgoing official inquiry into the whole conduct of the campaign, it will not be a cause for regret.

The one great military lesson of the war is the need of reorganizing the staff of the army. Our cumbrous and obsolete system was certain to show such lamentable failures to coöperate between the different departments, and such woful lack of intelligent and centralized direction, as we have had pressed upon our attention so painfully in the last few days. It was not only that the war caught us unprepared. Our system was radically wrong, and could not be made to work well with all the time in the world to get it going. This is shown to demonstration in the authorized defence of the Surgeon-General made in the Philadelphia *Medical Journal* on Saturday. The medical department was, of course, hampered by an inadequate force, but the thing that made its best efforts fail was lack of coördination with the Quartermaster-General and the other heads of the army. Now it is this working at cross-purposes which the general staff of the Germany army, and of all other civilized armies save our own, prevents. Our military experts, especially our highly educated younger officers, have urged the adoption of the general staff in our army again and again, but thus far in vain. It is to be hoped that the needless suffering due to needless official blundering in the Santiago campaign may at last startle a complacent Congress into putting our army, in this essential matter of organization, on a par with the best armies in Europe.

The prime cause of the troubles is "politics." Does anybody doubt that if the control of supplies for the Santiago expedition had been entirely in the hands of the Navy Department, all these scandals and failures, involving not only great suffering, but loss of life, would have been avoided? What knowledge had the great force of civilians who were suddenly injected into the Quartermaster and Commissary Departments of the army of the business of which they were to take charge? In no field of human activity is expert knowledge of more vital importance than in these branches of the military service in time of war. Yet the authorities at Washington fairly stuffed them with men who had no other qualification for the work than that they were the sons, or relations, or protégés of men with a "pull." This of itself would have been bad enough, but these departments were already antiquated in their organization, mere relics of a military system which ceased to be of value thirty-five years ago. Any system of administration would break down under such conditions. To make the medical branch of the service dependent upon the Quartermaster and Commissary Departments of the army, largely filled as these were with incompetent men, was, as an eminent medical authority has said, a "sanitary crime equalled only by the selection of notoriously unhealthy places for the location of the preparation camps." It was surely nothing less than a crime to subject men who had offered their lives to the service of their country to such entirely needless perils. Public opinion is placing the primal responsibility for all this upon the Secretary of War, and if he hopes to escape it he must invite a full and fearless examination of all his doings since the war began.

According to the statements attributed to the naval officers who have been inspecting the fortifications of Santiago, the guns of our vessels did very little injury. Over $2,000,000 worth of ammunition was expended, and the chief harm done seems to have been that occasioned to our own ships by the tremendous shaking which it gives them to fire off their big guns. If it be true that ships' guns cannot reduce earthworks except when aided by land forces, we ought to be satisfied to adhere to a policy of peace. We see that the danger from hostile fleets is not so great as our imperialists would have us believe; and since no one dreads an invasion by land, we are secure enough without a gigantic navy. Moreover, it seems to be established that if the forts at Santiago had been demolished, the harbor could not have been entered by our navy without losing some vessels. The mines were well placed, and contained very powerful charges, the mine-house was equipped with the best electrical apparatus, and everything indicated that practically complete protection was secured. When we consider that the forts were furnished with obsolete artillery, some of the bronze cannon being cast in 1737, and think what would have happened if modern artillery had been mounted instead of those mediæval affairs, and had been served by as good gunners as ours, the danger to which our ports are exposed from hostile navies appears insignificant. It seems all the more foolish to annex territories which cannot be defended by fortifications, but require a naval armament costing more than they are worth to maintain our communication with them.

With the passing of the war there will come the question of how much military glory has been accumulated which will be available for political uses in the near future. In this respect the war has been far less fruitful than many supposed it would be. The supply of glory with political possibilities in it is very small. Gen. Wheeler has secured some of it, but he is too old to make much use of it. Col. Roosevelt has a good deal of it, and Mr. Platt and other politicians are endeavoring to decide at this moment just how much it is worth. But, aside from these instances, nobody else who has stirred the popular heart figures in the minds of the people to-day as an aspirant for high political honors. Neither Dewey, nor Hobson, nor Shafter, nor Sampson, nor Schley is "spoken of" as a Presidential possibility, and, in all probability, none of them desires to be. Other men who would like to be at this moment looming in the popular mind in that capacity have had no chance to secure the requisite glory. There is Gen. Fitzhugh Lee, who returned from Havana big with Presidential possibilities. The war is likely to end with him still in camp waiting for the movement upon Havana, which is never to start. There is William J. Bryan, who was made a Colonel with no other result than to fail to get into the field till the war was over. Many others might be mentioned who have met a like fate. They have offered to serve their country, and have done it so far as opportunity was given them, and they will have to find consolation and reward in the consciousness of duty done.

The question of territorial expansion is dividing parties. The platform of the Indiana Republicans avoids it. It expresses approval of the annexation of Hawaii, but it stops with that. It favors the establishment of coaling stations wherever necessary—a policy which can be condemned only by people who insist on unnecessary stations—but it does not say where these stations should be. It calls for the extension of American trade, the creation of a navy to correspond, and the construction of the Nicaragua Canal, our Government to have exclusive control; but it says nothing about enlarging our territory. On the other hand, the platform recommends "the enactment and enforcement of laws restricting and preventing the immigration of such undesirable foreign population as is prejudicial to free American labor." The truth is, that, in order to maintain the system of protection, the Republican politicians have of recent years been magnifying the danger of the competition of cheap Asiatic labor. They have explained to the working classes that the inhabitants of Asia live on next to nothing and are paid wages that amount to but a few cents a day, and it is quite probable that American laborers have been frightened by this bogy. To propose to annex ten or a dozen millions of these degraded Asiatics to the United States is therefore a policy which will have to be rather diplomatically advanced in States where the labor vote is an important factor, as it is in Indiana. To explain why the competition of the people of the Philippine Islands should be pernicious while they were ruled by Spain, and innocuous if they were annexed to our country, will be a task from which the ordinary politician may well shrink. The difficulty of this task explains the refusal of the Republican leaders to define what they mean by a policy of expansion, but they will not be able to avoid the difficulty much longer.

On the other hand, the Democrats of Texas are falling out over the same problem. The policy to be favored by the Democratic party would naturally be one of opposition to the measures of the Administration. It was an absurd blunder to force the Administration into a war which could end only in victory for our arms and popular support for the party directing operations. In consequence of this blunder, the Democrats now find themselves impelled to support the policy of the Administration in grasping the spoils of war. Instead of being able to oppose this policy, they are practically committed to its support. Some of the leaders recognize the suicidal character of this course, and try to show that it is the business of a party in opposition to oppose; but as most Democrats having any reputation for statesmanship have been driven out of the party, the task is almost hopeless. In such a State as Texas the traditional Democratic policy of extending the limits of the United States is naturally acceptable. It was through this policy that Texas came into the Union, and the spirit that brought it in is not extinct. There is no labor vote to pander to in Texas, and it is vain to attempt to commit the Democratic party there to opposition to the application of principles in which it has always boasted. It was bad

politics for the Democrats to goad the Administration into a war, and the present embarrassment of their leaders is nothing more than they deserve.

The "financial plank" of the platform of the Indiana Republicans is not quite so clear as that adopted in Iowa, but it is much better than that of Illinois. It has often been worse in Indiana, and indicates progress. It is explicit enough on the free coinage of silver at 16 to 1, regarding this "as absolutely certain to debase our money and destroy our private and public credit and cause general business disaster." But it is rather indefinite on the question of currency reform. It recognizes the necessity for "comprehensive and enlightened monetary legislation," and favors giving the declaration of the St. Louis platform about the gold standard "the vitality of law," but pronounces for no specific measures. Perhaps we ought to regard it as a satisfactory step in advance to have political conventions recognize the necessity of monetary legislation at all. If the Republicans are committed on this point, the conditions are favorable for getting a measure that will relieve the country from an ever-recurring peril.

There seems to be no doubt that Mr. Croker is about to assume complete control of the Democratic party of this State, having become fully possessed with a sense of his own capacity to be a "great national leader." It is said that he is about to start an evening newspaper in this city devoted to his personal interests and views. Few people outside politics know that he has for some time maintained such a morning newspaper, but this is a fact. The expense must be considerable, but the boss is in a position to sustain it without difficulty. He has already opened "war" upon ex-Senator Hill, who has demonstrated his unfitness for the position of even deputy party leader by speaking of Mr. Croker as a "race-track statesman." That will put Mr. Hill outside the pale of boss favor as completely as Bourke Cockran's observations about Mr. Croker's sudden wealth put him there several years ago.

The prevention of smallpox by vaccination is recognized as necessary so generally in this country that the prejudice against it in England is incomprehensible. Nevertheless it exists to such an extent that the Government has been obliged to yield to it and to abandon the principle of compulsory vaccination. The measure agreed upon will provide that no parent will be convicted for refusing to vaccinate a child if he satisfies the court that he has a conscientious disbelief in vaccination. Nor is any parent to be proceeded against more than twice in respect of the same child. This is a practical surrender of the principle of compulsion, but it seems to have been unavoidable. The number of children born annually in England is about 922,000, and the returns for 1893 showed that of that number 150,000 remained unvaccinated, while in 1897 the number had increased to 250,000, and is now probably 300,000—this in spite of several outbreaks of smallpox in places where vaccination is unpopular, in which the unvaccinated suffered severely. It is contended in support of the new law that it will at least reach careless parents who have no scruples of conscience to plead. But it is not probable that such parents will be unable to produce the necessary scruples when they are arrested for disregarding the law. In fact, this result is already indicated by the experience of certain local authorities. In a place near Bristol a circular was sent out informing parents that conscientious scruples would be respected, and such scruples were immediately multiplied. Parents who had previously had all their children vaccinated without objection, declined after the circular was issued to continue their consent. It seems to be generally admitted that the opposition is too stubborn to be overcome by penal laws, and apparently there is nothing to do but to let the punishment ordained by nature take its course.

The Congress of the English Trade-Unions has for some years been under the control of the Socialists, and they have now completed the symmetry of their schemes. They have heretofore demanded that the hours of labor should be limited to eight per day in all trades and occupations, and that a minimum rate of wages should be established, and now they call for "a measure embodying the principle of protection, by which alone declining British industries can be effectually restored." This is a perfectly logical demand from the socialistic point of view. If Parliament can raise the rate of wages, why should it not exclude foreign competition? While it is deplorable that these great trade-unions, whose work as societies for mutual aid has been so excellent, should fall into the hands of their present counsellors, it is not to be regretted that the identity of the principle of protection with the theory of socialism should be exposed. For the sake of a most impressive lesson to mankind we could almost wish that the English people might try the experiment of protection for a little while; but the trade-unions will have to be stronger than they are now to bring it about.

The international conference held at Brussels on the question of sugar bounties has had the same fate as the international conferences on bimetallism; which, indeed, have been conferences on the question of silver bounties. The attitude of England has been characteristic. Lord Salisbury and the Tory element in general are but half-hearted free-traders, not a few of them, indeed, being avowed protectionists, and they have in a roundabout way gone to work to pay bounties to the sugar-planters of the West Indies. At the same time, they have not ventured to favor any action which should arouse the opposition of the consumers of sugar in Great Britain, who are not merely people of that country, but certain large manufacturers of jam and jelly and other conserves, who possess great political influence. To put a duty on imports of sugar with a view to neutralize the export bounties of other countries would be a palpable attempt to tax important manufactures of England, as well as all its inhabitants, for the benefit of a few concerns in Jamaica and Barbados, and would be extremely unpopular. Hence the subterfuge of subsidizing these concerns by a grant from the imperial revenues has been resorted to, the effect being, as we have said, the same as a bounty on production. Under these circumstances the British delegates were very judiciously instructed by Lord Salisbury to be very particular to put forward no definite proposals, and to maintain an "attitude of reserve" upon all important points.

The report of the delegates, however, indicates that such caution was superfluous. The conference was called for the purpose of suppressing bounties on exports of sugar, or, at least, for an examination of this question. The delegates from Austria-Hungary, Germany, and the Netherlands announced that their Governments were in favor of a complete suppression of these bounties. But the delegate from France stated that his Government, although willing to withdraw the direct bounty on export granted by it in 1897, yet entered the conference with the express reservation that its system of indirect bounties on export should remain outside the scope of the discussions. The Russian delegate informed the conference that his Government had accepted the invitation to attend only on the express understanding that the internal law of Russia concerning sugar bounties should not be considered, adding the categorical statement that his Government had no intention of altering its existing legislation on the subject. The French delegate politely intimated that his instructions did not permit him to entertain any propositions for altering the French system. The unyielding attitude of these two Powers, the English delegates report, "presented an insurmountable obstacle to any agreement," and it became evident that "a prolongation of the conference at the present moment could not lead to any general understanding."

GOVERNING INFERIOR RACES.

The idea of educating barbarous tribes up to the level of American citizenship, and thus to the capacity for self-government, has a fascination for many of our people. They do not pretend to know how it is to be done, but they have great faith that it can be done somehow. No doubt this idea is supported by generous feeling; those who entertain it, many of them at least, do so from benevolent motives. But they seem, in insisting on our responsibilities, to ignore almost invariably the frightful consequences of failure. It is certainly as wrong to assume responsibilities for which we have made no suitable preparation as it is to decline them. No conscientious person would take the destiny of another human being in charge without in the first place carefully examining his own qualifications for so serious an undertaking. A man who applies to an asylum for destitute children, professing a wish to adopt some young girl whose natural guardians have abused her, is required to furnish evidence of the purity of his motives. If it is found that he has previously adopted orphans and maltreated them shockingly, and that he has never maintained such decent regulations in his household as would indicate the sincerity of his benevolence, his professions of better conduct in the future are properly regarded with suspicion. He may have repented, but he must bring forth works meet for repentance before he undertakes to elevate other people.

The case is not different with nations. An individual can be held to some responsibility, but a government cannot. If one people subdues another, the other can take no appeal. It may writhe, but there is no authority that can intervene for its protection if it is maltreated. Hence, when it is deliberately proposed as a measure of national policy to subdue various uncivilized peoples from motives of benevolence, we must insist on evidence that our Government has shown some competency for such work. But such evidence is not forthcoming. No one pretends that our Government has dealt well with the Indians. No one that did pretend this would be believed. There is a book, entitled 'A Century of Dishonor,' which contains the history of our treatment of the Indian tribes, and no one has ever tried to refute its statements. In fact, the majority of our people are entirely ignorant of the character of our dealings with the Indians and are supremely indifferent to the matter. Probably nine-tenths of the well-meaning persons who are now indulging in the vague talk of imparting the blessings of our civilization to the Malay races, have never taken the slightest interest in our Indian tribes or felt the least responsibility for their elevation. It ill becomes such persons to declare that we have responsibilities in Asia that we must not shirk. We had responsibilities here which we did shirk, and worse than shirk; and it is a shameless proceeding to ignore our past in imagining our future. We began the present war by announcing the unselfishness of our motives. Just as soon as the Spanish fleet was destroyed at Manila a large number of our humanitarians dropped their horror at what President McKinley called "criminal aggression," and proclaimed that we were going to get all the Spanish territory we could and to keep all we got. Is this not a warning of what will happen to the missionary spirit when political ambition and commercial greed begin their work in remote colonies?

Some of our English advisers are no doubt to some extent disinterested in wishing us to engage in the work of civilizing the Malay tribes, but they are careful to point out the conditions of success. The *London and China Telegraph* says that we should govern the Philippines as Great Britain governs the native states of the Malay Peninsula. The principle of government there has been the consideration of the interests of the subjects felt by the British officials. The residents were accredited to the native states for the purpose of collecting and administering their revenues and of giving the native authorities good advice. "Not by wars involving the slaughter of native races, not by drafts upon the imperial exchequer, not by agency of chartered companies, which necessarily seek first their own interests, has the development of the Malay states been attained." By the selection of admirably qualified men, "an administration of sympathy, consideration, and mutual respect" has been developed. Did our Congress develop such an administration of the "native states" with which we had to deal? If it did not, what change has taken place in the hearts of Congressmen that will make their administration of the Philippine Islands better? We have no body of trained public servants from whom administrators could be chosen, and there is nothing to suggest that they would not be selected just as our Indian agents have been chosen. What our Senators think of reforming our civil service is shown by the census bill which they have just passed; and to suppose that such men as the Senators from New York and Pennsylvania, for instance, will contemplate our colonies, not as politicians, but as high-minded Christian statesmen, is to fly in the face of common sense. It is not our religious editors or our clergymen that will direct our colonial administration. Our politicians will have control of it. Those who demand that our Government shall take charge of millions of helpless beings on the other side of the globe, on the assumption that the politicians are to be excluded, are assuming a more terrible responsibility than they are willing to admit. Let them ask themselves seriously if there is any evidence that our government of these people will be what they admit it ought to be. If there is such evidence, let it be produced. If there is not, let us cast the beam out of our own eye before attempting to remove the mote from that of our brother.

THE RELIGIOUS PROBLEM IN THE PHILIPPINES.

The appeal, or demand, of the Vatican that the lives of Catholics in and about Manila be protected by the United States forces, may have been a disagreeable surprise to President McKinley, but it should not have been. Some have professed to see in it a recognition by the Catholic Church of our sovereignty over the Philippines. That does not follow. It is, however, a recognition of the serious and solemn obligations we have taken upon ourselves by our conduct in Manila Bay. The moment the President ordered Admiral Dewey to stay there after executing his original instructions to destroy the Spanish fleet; the moment he gave orders to coöperate with the insurgents, by furnishing them arms and ammunition, in order to weaken and ultimately to overthrow the Spanish military power in the islands, that moment, consciously or unconsciously, Mr. McKinley assumed for this country the duty of at least preserving the lives and property of non-combatants in and about Manila. The Vatican is perfectly right in notifying our Government that we shall be held responsible, morally at any rate, if there are massacres of nuns and friars on the shores of Manila Bay, and if the property of the religious orders and the Catholic population is destroyed.

The Administration has already heeded this grave communication from the Vatican. It has cabled instructions to Dewey and Merritt to suppress the insurgents without mercy if riot and massacre threaten. This was the least that could be done. We cannot feed and fan an insurrection in a foreign land and then wash our hands of the responsibility. We cannot call in savage allies in warfare without shouldering the consequences of their acts. Aguinaldo is reported to be behaving "badly." That means that he wants to fire the rifles we have given him as he pleases, not as we please, and that, with fine assimilation of American political ideas, he is impudently asking what there is "in" all this for him. But that does not alter our duty in the premises. We have made this insubordinate insurgent what he is, and we must lay him by the heels if he proposes, within sight of our forces, to run amuck with torch and sword.

But this particular complication is only a part of the large and puzzling religious problem with which we are certain to be confronted if we retain one

island or the whole group of the Philippines. Our Protestant missionary societies, which have already had conferences in order to parcel out the work between them, have taken it for granted that the field was one of virgin paganism, so to speak. They did not even seem to be aware that there was such a thing as Catholicism in the Philippines. The fervent Methodists, at the beginning of the war, resolved that it was going to be a righteous and holy war because it would destroy "Romish superstition" in the Spanish West Indies. Not even with such doubtful compliment do the missionary societies speak of the existing religion in the Philippines. They think of those islands only as a hitherto unoccupied mission field, now, in the wonderful Providence of God (with some aid from such humble instruments as Dewey and McKinley), thrown open to them.

But what are the facts? A powerful Christian church is powerfully established in the Philippines. According to the *Études* of Élisée Reclus of July 5, 1898 (quoted in the *Catholic World* for August), the spiritual charges of the various religious communities and the secular clergy are as follows:

1892—Augustinians	2,082,131 souls
1892—Recollects	1,175,156 souls
1892—Franciscans	1,010,753 souls
1892—Dominicans	699,851 souls
1895—Jesuits	213,065 souls
1896—Secular clergy	967,294 souls

In other words, here are some 6,000,000 out of 8,000,000 or 9,000,000 souls in the islands under nominally Christian instruction.

We say nominally Christian, for we are not set for the defence of the friars in the Philippines. There is no doubt that their political influence, there and in Spain, has been mischievous. There is no doubt that, in too many cases, the natives regard them as hated oppressors. Nor have we anything to say as to the merits of their religious tenets and teachings as compared with those of the Protestant societies which intend to supplant them. That Catholicism in the Philippines is not all that it should be, even from the standpoint of an American Catholic, is admitted by a writer in the *Catholic World*. But that is not the point. It is not primarily a religious but a political problem that confronts us in the Philippines. We have to consider the religious element only as it complicates the political problem. And that it does complicate it terribly is beyond question. How are the Catholics in this country going to stomach the practical destruction of the Catholic Church in the Philippines? Are we going to get rid of the Irish vote (thanks to the English *entente*) only to put in its place a Catholic vote? The Pope has already shown that he will not sit idly by and see Philippine Catholicism endangered. Thousands of voters in this country pay Peter's Pence as well as war taxes, and they will not be pleased to see one eat up the other. However we look at it, the religious problem in the Philippines, if we take them, will be most grave, and will affect the political problem there and at home mischievously. In view of this powerful deterrent, added to all the others, against holding the Philippines a day longer than necessary, it does seem as if our rulers might learn wisdom from the little girl who said that pins saved the lives of thousands of people—by not swallowing them.

THE NAVAL OFFICER.

No feature of the present war has impressed the public more favorably than the professional ability of our naval officers, and their devotion to the public service. An *esprit de corps* always of the highest is stimulated by a long line of historic examples, from John Paul Jones to Farragut, to whose names those of more than one of our present naval commanders are likely soon to be added. A body of men whose animating principle is devotion to the honor and glory of their organization never fails to command popular admiration. In the present case one is not less struck by the efficiency and success with which our naval commanders have conducted their operations, than by the eagerness shown by officers of all grades to brave peril whenever the cause could thus be promoted. It is true that the story of victory might have been very different against another antagonist. It is not conceivable that an English, French, or German fleet could have been utterly destroyed with scarcely a life lost or a ship seriously injured on the side of the enemy.

Granting this, it is equally true that we cannot conceive of a fleet of any other nation winning more decisive victories under better-trained commanders. The necessary result of successes so brilliant will be to give the navy a commanding position in public favor, and thus to make the peculiar characteristics of the naval officer a subject of wider interest than ever before. It would be a great mistake to suppose that every such officer is a Dewey, a Sampson, or a Schley. The wisdom of the head of the Navy Department in selecting the best men for high command has been a most essential factor in the whole case. When it is a question of awarding honor, an organization is justly entitled to be judged by its leading men; but in a question of granting power or influence, the general qualities of the organization at large must be considered. Every light has its shade, and every man has his limitations. Indeed, we may go further and say that when a man is rigorously trained from his youth up with exclusive reference to a special duty, he is not likely to prove well fitted to move in a different sphere.

The controlling motive of the best officers of our navy is to make their organization worthy of public support. With this naturally goes a desire to conceal from the public everything that would lessen the repute of the service. Differences so serious as to require adjudication are settled by the commanding officer if possible, by the Navy Department if absolutely necessary, by the public never. An officer who allowed his grievances to become public property would lose caste at once. More than any other branch of the public service the naval is, so far as externals go, exposed to the eyes of foreigners, and the policy of so conducting himself that the world shall see only what is good is a part of the professional training of every well-equipped officer. Hence, to take professional statements and arguments as the sole basis of our judgment of naval efficiency is like making the arguments and opinions of counsel for the defence the sole basis of our judgment of a defendant's guilt or innocence. Is not Lawyer Brown one of the most honorable and high-minded men in the community? Can you for a moment suppose he would argue as he does if he had not carefully examined all the facts, and thus become fully convinced of his client's innocence? We surely cannot know more of the case than he does. The best that we can expect from the professional historian or exponent of naval affairs is to deal with the shortcomings of the service as the Catholic historian deals with the faults and misdeeds of Pope and Church; say as little as possible about them, and as much as possible about the errors of those who judge them harshly.

The *esprit de corps* and professional spirit of our naval service are very largely of internal creation. The official regulations of the Navy Department, complete as they appear to be, are supplemented by an unwritten ethical code which bears the same relation to them that the rules of good breeding bear to the laws of the land. The punishment meted out to violators of this code is, from some points of view, more to be dreaded than official censure. The latter has a definite term, or is productive only of a temporary mortification; the term of the former is unknown. It takes the form of a professional disfavor, which the victim is made to feel without his being able to make any complaint of his treatment. He well knows the cause and so do his friends, and yet if he should raise a question on the subject he would at once be silenced by a call for his authority.

The operation of this code begins with the newly fledged cadet at the Naval Academy. His walk and his behavior towards his senior fellows are fixed by rules that the authorities officially know nothing about, and yet which he must obey. He must never presume to take a seat in the Academy grounds. What would happen to a cadet with the per-

sonal independence to disregard these rules, now that hazing is abolished, it would be hard to say. Probably he would either have to learn better or conclude that the naval service was not to his liking. "I would not submit to such tyranny if I were you," said the father of a fourth-class man. "But, father, just think how nice it will be next year when I am a third-class man." When the practice of hazing was abolished by law, West Point found little difficulty in enforcing compliance; but years of effort with vigorous repressive measures were required at Annapolis. This is only a straw, but it shows the difference of winds at the two institutions.

Notwithstanding all this, we believe that intellectual initiative and independence find a more congenial soil at Annapolis that at its sister institution. In the contest between the old and the new, inaugurated by armored ships and steel guns, our naval authorities were wise enough to side with the new and provide a broad scientific education for the rising generation. But it remains true that there are qualities, not wholly bad, which naval training and naval ethics do not tend to foster. Independence of opinion, freedom of speech, candor, and sincerity are among them. Between the department on the one side and the ethics of the service on the other, the limits of discreet talk on professional topics are necessarily restricted, and the combination of sincerity with discretion may well tax the power of the best-trained officer.

The typical naval officer is far from being the simple-minded man that is sometimes supposed. Using the term "politician" in its best sense, there is no astuter politician than he; none who knows better what to leave unsaid as well as what to say; none who has so delicate a touch for the pulse of public opinion. Full though the journals seem to be of naval news, there is no other branch of the public service of the internal organization of which the mass of intelligent men know so little as of the naval. Every one has seen or read of ships of war, knows what one looks like, how she is armed with big guns and small ones, and how skilfully she is designed for her work. But outside the service proper it would be hard to find in the whole land men qualified to form an independent first-hand opinion of the best measures for promoting economy and efficiency in the administration of a ship of war. What the best-informed men in public life know of the subject is little more than the boiled-down result of a great number of things that they have from time to time been told by interested parties. Our navy needs no trained advocates to present its case to such men. It comes before them with all the prestige of valor, patriotism, and professional ability combined with a sagacity in stating its case equal to that of the best members of the bar.

It would be a serious mistake to suppose that the training of the naval officer fits him for civil administration. The habit of ready command which is his most essential qualification, does not tend to that careful study of details and that deliberation over all sides of a case which are so necessary in the conduct of public business. He can never be a reformer, because the man to play this part must be keenly alive to the abuses to be corrected, and ready to ask public help for their correction—a proceeding which would at once place a naval officer under the ban. No matter how extravagant in expenditure may be a branch of administration with which he is charged, he has nothing to gain by pointing it out, and may have a great deal to lose. It follows that any policy which looks to making him useful outside his strictly professional sphere is a bad one. It is impossible to change at pleasure habits of mind and conduct which have been forming and consolidating for generations. The pressure in favor of the policy is strong, backed as it is by the desire for shore duty on the part of the officer, and the justly high appreciation in which the public holds his professional character. But wisdom points in the other direction, and declares that while the activities of the officer are admirable within his sphere, they cannot be made effective in other departments of administration.

NOT ALDRIDGE, BUT PLATT.

The real culprit in the canal scandal is Thomas C. Platt and his system of government. He selected Mr. Aldridge for Superintendent of Public Works, and induced Gov. Morton, in spite of very strong protest from the reputable press of this State, to appoint him in January, 1895. He also induced Gov. Black to reappoint him in January, 1897. There was no man in the State whose character as a public official was more open or better understood than Mr. Aldridge's was when he was chosen for this place. When his name was first mentioned in connection with it, after Mr. Morton's election in November, 1894, the suggestion was received with general amazement and incredulity. In protesting against it on December 1 of that year the *Tribune* said:

> "The plain fact is, that Mr. Aldridge is not fit for the office of Superintendent of Public Works, and no amount of rhetoric about party fealty and critics' motives can make him so. He has been the local boss of Rochester, and has built up his power with the aid of mercenary Democrats. In that city he represents the kind of politics which the people in Brooklyn and New York have rebuked in the elections of Mayor Schieren and Col. Strong."

This was a very mild and conservative statement of the case. Aldridge as boss and Mayor of Rochester had been one of the most open and defiant spoilsmen that city had ever known. That is why Platt wished to have him put at the head of the Public Works Department. He showed his mettle as soon as he got there. He defied the civil-service regulations, and nothing but a decision of the Court of Appeals against him was sufficient to convince him that he was not above the law. He has never had any other idea of the public service and the public money in charge of an official than that both were to be used primarily for the benefit of politics, and to his credit it should be said that he has never pretended to take any other view. In that respect he is as free from "humbug" and "hypocrisy" as Platt, or Lou Payn, or Croker, or Tom Grady is. He knew perfectly well that he was made Superintendent of Public Works for the purpose of "working the place for all it was worth" in the interest of Platt politics. When the people of the State were beguiled into placing $9,000,000 of their money in his hands for canal improvements, he knew what Platt expected of him.

The report of the investigating commission shows how well Aldridge fulfilled Platt's expectations. He has spent the $9,000,000, largely in poor work, the improvement is not half done, and fully a million dollars has been "improperly" expended. That the "improper" use has been for the benefit of politics, no man can read the report and doubt for a moment. It went for the employment of great gangs of useless and incompetent inspectors, for extravagant advertising in Platt newspapers, for illegal payments to favored contractors who in return therefor helped the Platt machine, for gangs of "muckers" who were hired at election time in order that the State might be made to pay the price of their votes, and in innumerable other ways, all of which were connected more or less directly with the Platt machine. It is absurd to say that Platt and the Governor were not fully aware of what Aldridge has been doing, or that the findings of the commission are a surprise to them. Aldridge must be greatly amused at the Governor's request to the Attorney-General for an opinion upon his conduct. That the Attorney-General, who in his time has supplied on request some very striking Platt "opinions," should shy at this task, is not surprising. It is calculated to stagger even a Whalen.

We say that the Governor has no reason to be surprised, and that is the fact, but he ought to be shaken somewhat in his views of what should constitute fitness in a public official. He took the position in Aldridge's case, and in Lou Payn's, that character was not an essential qualification for positions of high public trust. He sneered in his inaugural address, in more than one of his annual messages, and in his memorandum appended to his famous starchless civil-

service law, against the pharisaical persons who insist too strenuously upon mere common honesty, character, as the first requisite for public office. Aldridge had no character to speak of, but he was "practical," he had "executive capacity," there was no "humbug" about him. Putting aside for the moment all consideration of the moral aspects of his case as it stands revealed in the commission's report, what does the Governor think of the political consequences of having such a man in office? Would it not, on the low level of party policy, be better for the Governor's personal prospects to-day if he had put an honest, capable man in Aldridge's place when he entered upon the governorship? Is there not something to be said in favor of plain, every-day honesty as a useful thing even in machine politics?

If the Governor is really surprised and shocked by the revelations which his own personally selected commission has made about Aldridge's doings, why does he not at once remove him? Under the law he has full power to do so. He can suspend or remove him whenever in his judgment the public interests so require, merely filing with the Secretary of State a statement of the cause of such removal, and reporting the fact to the next session of the Legislature. Is there not ample cause in the findings of the commission? Why does the Governor hesitate? Why does not Mr. Platt come out with an indignant demand for Aldridge's removal? Can it be that he fears that Aldridge might "squeal" if he were to be removed? There are certainly reasons in the testimony taken by the commission for inferring his ability to do this effectively. For instance, on page 66 of the report there is an extremely interesting correspondence which shows that one Flynn, a representative of the Platt Family Surety Company, which, under the guidance of Son Henry, did a roaring business in canal-contract bonds, was able to exert such a "pull" upon the State Engineer in favor of a contractor who had taken out Platt bonds that he had 6,000 cubic yards of "earth" reclassified and paid for as "rock," getting $1.25 per cubic yard instead of 24 cents, for which he had contracted to do the work. The commission says this was an "improper" transaction, and it seems open to that construction. Was Mr. Platt surprised when he heard of this, and was it an isolated case in Aldridge's distribution of the millions of improperly used State money? If the Governor will remove Aldridge immediately from office, we may get some light on this interesting point.

CORRUPTION IN OFFICE.

Inefficiency and corruption seem to be the two causes to which mankind generally attributes the Spanish defeat, and, of course, inefficiency is a necessary consequence of corruption. But governments in which there is a great deal of corruption sometimes are able to put very efficient armies into the field. Turkey did so last year against Greece, when there was plenty of corruption on both sides, and Rome retained her military power long after the body politic had become absolutely rotten. The *Spectator*, moralizing on the subject, suggests that in southern Europe corruption is fostered and sheltered by a general legal cause —the exemption of the agents of the state from responsibility to the ordinary tribunals. But the area of corruption, if we may use the phrase, is a good deal wider than southern Europe. It covers at least the whole of Russia, Turkey, China, and the entire East, South America, Central America, and Mexico—that is, the greater part of the entire world. On the other hand, how far agents of the state are responsible to the ordinary tribunals in Germany and the few other northern European countries that we have not mentioned, may be a question. We doubt if there is much difference in this respect between Prussia and France. A more serious question would be, How far is the fact that agents of the state are with us responsible to the ordinary tribunals an adequate explanation of our superiority so far as it exists?

The English and American principle that the agents of the state are responsible to the ordinary tribunals is a very old one, but it has primarily to do, not with official corruption, but with the protection of the citizen. A suit against a sheriff for improper seizure of property, or against a collector of customs for wrong assessment of duties, or such a suit as that brought by Mr. Rockefeller against the assessors of the town in which he lives for excessive taxation, is illustrative of this principle. But such suits do not necessarily involve corruption in office. The Rockefeller case, indeed, is based partly on a charge of "malice," which in a person occupying a judicial position such as that of assessor is akin to corruption; but nothing is more certain than that, speaking generally, the liability of administrative officers at common law to suits by persons who allege wrongs at their hands, does not operate directly to make the punishment of corruption easy.

As a general rule in the United States, and we believe in England, official corruption is not punished in the ordinary tribunals, and, even when so punished, there is no responsibility until some agency of the state has been called in to enforce it. That is, the agent of the state is punished by some other agent of the state, just as he would be in the south of Europe or in China. Of course, the tribunal itself is an agency of the state; but in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred the prosecution is set on foot by the District Attorney or Attorney-General, or through him by the Governor or other executive. In the present canal scandal, it is Mr. Black (an agent of the state) who calls upon Mr. Hancock (another agent of the state) to act. In the old canal scandals Gov. Tilden was the moving party. Tweed was regularly convicted in an ordinary criminal trial. In one large class of cases, those involving the official corruption of officers of the United States, the ordinary tribunals are not allowed to act, and the procedure of impeachment, a species of trial in which the judges are one set of state agents and the prosecutors another, is provided. In all these cases the consent of one agent of the state has to be obtained in order that another may be punished, exactly as would be the case in Spain or France.

The real difference between the machinery provided to check corruption in England and America and in so many other countries lies not so much in the fact that we subject the agents of the state to the ordinary tribunals, as in the fact that we have broken up the vicious system under which the judges and the Legislature are agents of the executive. In Spain and in the whole Spanish-American world the judge on his bench and the Deputy in his chamber are more or less the servants of the executive, premier, or dictator. The assembly is not free to deliberate, the judicial tribunal is not free to judge. This system produces corruption, just as slavery produces cruelty. Corruption supplies the oil which keeps the machinery in motion. The corrupt official is not punished, because his corruption would be necessarily imputed to the head of the state. The best proof of this is found in the fact that those very branches of the English Government which are to-day free from corruption were, a hundred and fifty years ago, when bench and Parliament were still more or less creatures of the executive, steeped in corruption.

Go back to the old system—for it is the oldest in the world—and you can readily produce corruption anywhere. This is what we have done in New York, as far as possible. What we call the "machine," whenever it exists in a perfect form, is simply the merging of all the functions of government in one control, though we have added the curious feature, unknown elsewhere, of having the head outside the state altogether. Through his control of the nominating bodies, which is a pecuniary control, a boss like Croker appoints judges and members of Assembly and the Mayor and the heads of departments and the District Attorney. When he cannot quite accomplish this, he divides the offices with another boss, Platt, equally irresponsible, and the two have this made legal by a Legislature consisting of their own creatures, by means of a statute calling the division "bi-partisan." It is

obvious that under such a system there can be no such thing as punishment for corruption, because one corrupt agent of the state has to get the consent not merely of another corrupt agent of the state, but of the powerful beneficiary of the whole system, to begin proceedings. We have to live in hope that some honest man may turn up strong enough to attack the machine and set us free from it.

MICHELET AND THE COLLEGE OF FRANCE.

PARIS, July 25, 1898.

Perhaps the most interesting feature of the celebration this year of the French national fête was the commemoration of the centenary of Michelet's birth, the series of ceremonies closing yesterday with the highly successful musical and spectacular performance on the square in front of the Hôtel de Ville. The event has naturally called forth numerous speeches, articles, and letters dwelling on the labors and life of the great historian. One episode in his troubled and busy existence seems, however, to have received but little attention. I refer to Michelet's stormy relations with the College of France. But M. Wilfrid de Fonvielle, the venerable French aeronaut and popularizer of the sciences, is engaged on a paper which is to do full justice to this chapter in Michelet's career.

It was in 1838 that Michelet was appointed to the chair of history and moral science at the College of France, and the democratic tone of his utterances and the severe strictures on the Jesuits which he indulged in soon made him extremely popular with the young men of the Latin Quarter. But at the same time he incurred the displeasure of the Government of Louis Philippe, which was abandoning more and more the liberal policy that had characterized the July Monarchy at its origin as it gradually approached the moment of the catastrophe in which it perished. This tendency was revealed in the successive suppression of the lectures of Mickiewicz and Quinet at the College of France, and culminated in the suspension, in January, 1848, of those of Michelet. And yet the Prime Minister of France was Guizot, the austere Protestant, who had been Michelet's master in historical science, whose substitute at the Sorbonne Michelet had been a few years before, and who had himself been struck down in almost exactly the same way nearly a quarter of a century before, under the Restoration, while filling the chair of history at the Sorbonne.

It was impossible to get the Ministers to say just why the lectures of Michelet were suspended, though it was rumored that the measure was due to disturbances which occurred in the lecture-room one day before the professor had arrived. That the Government's action was impolitic soon became evident, and it was certainly one of the important minor causes of the Revolution of 1848. When Michelet, who, for several weeks, had been expecting what had now happened, was informed of the Government's decision by the Administrator of the College of France, he acknowledged the letter in a firm reply which was intended for the public rather than for the scholar to whom it was addressed, and which was immediately printed in the Opposition papers. It contained this sentence: "From Mickiewicz to Quinet and from Quinet to me is a *coup d'état* in three acts." The *Réforme*, one of the boldest mouthpieces of the advanced party, followed Michelet's letter with these words: "Here disappears the last of our free tribunes," and the next day it too spoke of the measure as "a sort of *coup d'état*," while an orator at one of the Reform Banquets which precipitated the Revolution of 1848, held at this same moment at Toulouse, referred at some length to the incident and closed by saying: "The System moves on towards its fatal destiny."

Michelet's mouth was not to be shut so easily as that. They had closed the door of his lecture-hall, but he still held his pen. Besides his powerful letter to the Administrator, he also announced in the public prints under his own name that his weekly lectures would henceforth appear in the form of pamphlets issued every seven days. But it was the students themselves who made the most of this new arm put in their hands by the short-sighted Government, which had now stirred up a veritable hornet's nest. As the day came around when the usual lecture should be delivered, some two thousand hot-headed young men met, at the very hour when Michelet was accustomed to begin, in the big square in front of the Panthéon, and drew up an address which ended with these words: "We shall always carry in our hearts the names of those who combat for liberty, truth, and the rights of all." They then marched to their honored teacher's house, which was hard by, and, finding him out, paraded peacefully through the streets of the city. "Half Paris witnessed this demonstration," remarks the *National*.

This address was followed by a protest, also from the student body, which appeared in the newspapers of January 5, 1848, and which finished with these prophetic words: "The time of liberty is near, and woe to those who try to strangle it." A day or two afterwards they sent a petition to the Chamber of Deputies praying that Mickiewicz, Quinet, and Michelet be restored to their chairs. It was signed by nearly three thousand students, who, when they marched to the Palais-Bourbon to deliver it, found drawn up on the quay a large number of municipal horse-guards, scores of ordinary policemen, and a regiment of cavalry with unsheathed swords, showing that the Government feared trouble. Crémieux, who a few weeks later was a member of the Provisional Government, came out from the Chamber, as prearranged, addressed the young men, accepted their petition, carried it in and laid it on the President's table. They then retired, but before disbanding visited some of the newspaper offices friendly to the liberal cause. M. de Fonvielle writes, in an unpublished letter: "The greater number of those who took part in this demonstration figured in the column which came down from the Panthéon on February 22, and began the Revolution." And M. de Fonvielle knows whereof he speaks, for in this same letter he says: "I was present at Michelet's lectures, at the demonstration on January 6, and at that of February 22. I took part in the Revolution."

Nor did the agitation stop here. At the same time that the regular attendants on Michelet's lectures were protesting in every form, the "liberal Catholic students" (as they designated themselves) were also up and doing. They, too, sent a petition to the Chamber in which one reads: "We have never been friendly to Michelet nor afraid of him, but we cannot see justice and liberty violated, even in the person of our adversaries, without protesting. . . . We join our prayers, therefore, to those of our fellow-students, differing with them in opinion, but in accord with them as regards the sacred principles of liberty and justice." Simultaneously, M. Charles de Rémusat laid on the table of the President of the Chamber of Deputies a third request called forth by the attack on Michelet, signed, in this case, by more than sixty college professors, praying that a guarantee be given of the independence of the teaching body.

In the midst of this growing agitation, and before these petitions could be considered by the Chamber and a grand debate brought on, which would surely have been another powerful blow at the prestige of the rapidly sinking Government, the Revolution of February suddenly burst upon the country. Universal suffrage was established, the slaves in the French colonies set free, and liberty, equality, fraternity became the device of the political millennium. Of course, the wrongs of Michelet were righted. On March 6 he and Quinet reopened their lecture courses. The jubilant ceremony did not occur, however, at the College of France, which had no room big enough to hold the delighted youth of the Latin Quarter, now delirious over their double victory, but in the famous old amphitheatre of the Sorbonne, the very hall in which Guizot had had his own voice gagged, and which has recently been swept away to give place to the magnificent buildings of the new University of Paris. Three chairs were set side by side on the platform—one for Mickiewicz, which remained empty, as he was in Italy, a second for Quinet, and the third for Michelet. Quinet spoke first, and began in these words: "Royalty closed our lecture-rooms, but the republic has opened them." He was followed by Michelet, who declared that the students of Paris, by their demonstration in favor of the condemned lectures of the College of France, had given the signal for the Revolution. "The statement was absolutely true," says M. de Fonvielle, in the letter already quoted, "for the success of that demonstration suggested the idea of crowning the campaign of the Banquets by that of the Twelfth Ward, which caused the insurrection of February 22, and was the beginning of the struggle."

Michelet was not left very long in peace at the College of France. The Republic of 1848, like the July monarchy—in fact, like all the governments which have succeeded one another in this country since the upheaval of 1789, not excepting even the existing one—began to deteriorate and enter upon the tyrannical stage which always precedes a political syncope. In a word, Michelet fell an early victim to the rising star of Louis Napoleon. "The suppression of his lectures in 1851," says M. de Fonvielle—for it was in fact this time a permanent "suppression" and not a momentary "suspension," as in 1848, since Michelet never again lectured at the College of France—"was an act of violence like many of those committed at that moment when the *Coup d'État* was in the air, and the prison-ships were being got ready to receive us. It was an incident of no importance." While it is quite true that this second persecution was of no importance

in its political bearing, as compared with the preceding measure, it was of vital moment to Michelet, who was placed by it, and the consequences resulting from it, on the verge of starvation; so that there was no exaggeration in the utterance of one of the speakers at the ceremony held a few days ago, before the historian's tomb in Père Lachaise Cemetery—"If Michelet did not die of hunger, it was not the fault of his contemporaries."

Another feature of this same incident also possesses some interest. I refer to the part played in it by the late Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire, who was Administrator of the College of France when Michelet's chair was suppressed. The following statement was made to me by M. Saint-Hilaire and revised by him a year or two before his death. In reading it, one should bear in mind that, during the Republic of 1848, M. Saint-Hilaire, who was a Deputy, voted with the moderate wing of the Republicans and sometimes even with the Right, though later he took a firm stand, worthy of his best moments, and turned his back on the Second Empire:

"Michelet mingled too much politics with the other elements of his lectures," M. Saint-Hilaire began, "to please his associates of the College of France. So he was summoned to appear before the officers of the College, a committee composed of myself as chairman, Laboulaye, secretary, and one or two other professors. He was charged with two faults. In the first place, each professor was expected to lecture at least thirty times during the university year, whereas Michelet failed some years to lecture at all, and during the years when he did appear, he averaged only eleven lectures. The excuse which he offered was his severe literary labor and his researches in the public libraries and national archives.

"The second and graver charge was his not confining himself to history and moral science, the real title of his chair, and his branching off into the field of every-day politics. The committee said to him: 'If the professor of mathematics were to take up botany, we should complain. In the same way we find fault with your course.' Michelet offered certain explanations in extenuation of his conduct, which, however, were not satisfactory to the committee, and he was finally cited to appear before the general assemblage of the professors of the College. We met on the appointed day and at the appointed hour, but waited in vain for Michelet to present himself. He did not come, but published a defence in the newspapers. Thereupon the assemblage voted that he be requested to meet his peers the very next day, and that in case he should not heed the summons, he should be summarily judged and condemned *in contumaciam*.

"In the meantime I had attended some of Michelet's lectures, and convinced myself that they had nothing to do with the subject on which he was supposed to speak. I even had a sworn stenographer take down, word for word, two of the lectures, and the long-hand copy of his notes was laid before the professors when Michelet appeared. Having read the reports, he denied the correctness of one of them, but admitted that the other expressed his thoughts in his own language."

At this point in his narration, M. Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire gave, with much relish, the substance of this lecture, imitating Michelet's high-pitched, rather effeminate voice, his ample gestures, and his flowery language. This mimicry was excellent and very funny; in fact, extraordinary in a man almost a nonagenarian. Michelet, it appears, had a way of lowering his head and of swinging it from side to side when speaking, and Saint-Hilaire did not forget to reproduce this peculiarity. He closed the scene by announcing that eighteen out of the twenty-two professors voted for Michelet's suppression.

I must say that while Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire was giving me this lively account, I was thinking of another conversation which I had had with him and which was far more to his honor. It ran as follows:

"The manner in which I became Administrator of the College of France well illustrates my theory that if you do the best you can for others, quite regardless of your own interest at the time, they will eventually turn to seek your aid and to confer honors on you with a view to their own advantage.

"Thus, at the beginning of the Republic of 1848, Hippolyte Carnot, then Minister of Public Instruction, wished to remove from his chair in the College of France Michel Chevalier, said to be compromised by some questionable financial transactions. I considered this a very bad way of getting rid of an objectionable professor. After due deliberation and in order that it should not appear that this act of severity was aimed particularly at M. Chevalier, the Minister decided to push aside, at the same time, four other professors, who were to be replaced by as many good Republicans. This increasing of the number of victims did not remove from my mind my dislike for the method, and as I was a Deputy at that time as well as a professor at the College of France, I determined to combat the measure, notwithstanding the fact that I was the Secretary of the Government. So I moved in the Assembly that the professors be restored to their chairs, and that their back salary be paid to them, all of which was done. The administrative post becoming vacant shortly afterwards, the professors, in recognition of what I had accomplished for them, proposed to the new Minister of Public Instruction, Count de Falloux, that I be placed at the head of the institution, which was also done."

And yet, a few months later, as I have related, this same Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire took the lead in having one of his own colleagues expelled from the College of France, ostensibly for violating the rules of the institution, but in reality for political reasons.

THEODORE STANTON.

MME. DARMESTETER'S RENAN.

PARIS, July 27, 1898.

I am not surprised that the 'Life of Ernest Renan,' by Madame Darmesteter, should have already been reprinted in a second edition. This success is not owing solely to the name of Renan, but also to the real merit of the work. Madame Darmesteter is, as is well known, of English origin—Miss Mary Robinson before her marriage with the late distinguished French professor and linguist, James Darmesteter. Certain expressions, certain peculiarities of style and shades of thought betray the foreigner, but on the whole Madame Darmesteter writes in excellent French and is familiar with all the delicacies of the French language.

It required, perhaps, the pen of a woman, of a very refined woman, to give a good account of the complex character of Renan, but it was necessary that this woman should have a very superior intellect, and that she should be capable of moving freely in the world of thought in which the powerful mind of Renan moved. It was necessary, also, that she should be capable of seeing through Renan, so to speak—of discovering in him what was fundamental and what was merely accidental; and of feeling a sort of profound sympathy with the new form of scepticism of which Renan was the living expression—a scepticism which may be called a religious scepticism, in opposition to the irreligious scepticism of Voltaire and the school of the philosophers of the eighteenth century.

Renan's origin explains the character of religiosity which imbued all his work. Madame Darmesteter has charming pages on Tréguier, the Celtic birthplace of Renan, on his family, on his sister Henrietta, whom she calls his guardian angel. Henrietta was already twelve years old when Renan was born in the winter of 1823. She is thus described by Madame Darmesteter:

"She had little in common with her mother; she was neither vivacious, nor witty, nor pretty. A birthmark disfigured the lower part of a face whose features preserved, however, a charming *morbidezza*. Her forehead was pale, her eyes had a rare softness, her hands were white, long, and fine. She was very intelligent, of a high and pure character in a serene reserve."

Renan was five years old when the body of his father was found on the seashore; it was never known whether the death of the old sea-captain was by accident or suicide. He left many debts, and his widow had to give up her house to the creditors. Henrietta, in order to make money, accepted a place in an educational house in Paris. The boy was educated in an ecclesiastical seminary. "I owe," he said afterwards, "to priests all that is good in me. . . . They taught me the love of truth, respect for reason, the seriousness of life. . . . Old and dear masters, whose images often appear in my dreams, not as a reproach, but as a fond memory, I have not been as unfaithful to you as you believe." Renan has given us some of his best pages on his college and on the church at Tréguier.

From Brittany he went to Paris to the school of Saint-Nicolas. He was educated for the Church; but his sister Henrietta, his spiritual guide, had become an unbeliever. "Her opinions tormented her when she visited her brother, every week, in the parlor of the little seminary. She feared to see her child bind himself, at the age of fifteen, by a perpetual engagement. More than once she bade Ernest reflect on the irrevocable character of the sacerdotal vow; but she never said a word which could directly wound his faith." At that period of her life Henrietta was obliged to leave France; she accepted a place as governess in Poland in 1841. In her exile at Clemensow she remained her brother's confidante.

In 1842 Renan left Saint-Nicolas for Issy, the country-place of the great seminary of Saint-Sulpice. We have admirable pages of Renan's on the years which marked the crisis of his life, the transition from belief to unbelief. He studied German philosophy, and thought "that he was entering a temple." No life appeared to him so fine as that of a priest. "The sublimity of the priestly office has always struck me. Even if Christianity were but a dream, the office would still be a divine type." He asks himself if the priest is obliged to believe all that he teaches, and writes to Henrietta: "It is so hard to think only for yourself. . . . You should have a thought behind, as Pascal says, and judge from that, though you speak like the people." Henrietta was more sincere, and did not approve this dilettantism. Renan entered the great seminary of Saint-Sulpice, still resolved to take orders. His studies of Hebrew and of German exegesis decided his destiny. He found in questions of dates, of texts, the historical proofs which confirmed his doubts. After many perplexities, he stopped, to use the words of Bishop Dupanloup,

at the foot of the altar and left the seminary.

His clerical friends did not abandon him, hoping still to bring him back to the Church. They procured for him a place in a half-clerical, half-lay institution; but he did not remain in it, and entered as *maître d'études* an obscure lay establishment, where he had to work for his board and received no salary. He was very unhappy in his new environment. In the little world of the Montagne Sainte-Geneviève, he found nothing to compare to the excellent men whom he had left and of whom he speaks with so much affection in his 'Souvenirs.' He had thought too well of the outside world; its mediocrity and vulgarity wounded every fibre of his nature. He found, fortunately, a friend in a young man of eighteen, Marcellin Berthelot. They lived in the same house and shared their hopes and ambitions in common. Their correspondence, which was published not long ago, shows well the difference in their two natures. "As Renan," says Madame Darmesteter, "was instinctively Breton and religious, so was Berthelot (a Parisian by birth) a democrat and a rationalist." Berthelot had been brought up among scientific people, devoted himself to science, and believed only in science. He did not understand the extraordinary depth of the religious feeling in his friend. He had an ardent faith in the future of science. They had both an innate love of truth, but they saw it under different angles and aspects. "Renan, philosopher, philologist, exegete, theologian, knew nothing as yet of those splendid certainties of physical science, of chemistry, of positive science, of which his friend spoke to him." He was, however, seduced. "If Spinoza was said to have been intoxicated with God, Renan became intoxicated with the universe. The echo of these conversations in the winter nights of 1845 is heard through all his works. As fast as the last veils of Catholicism fell from his eyes, like a torn curtain, Renan saw, in their place, the whole glory of Cosmos." He felt himself becoming the priest of a new universal religion. His doubts had left him; he decided to begin his Semitic studies anew. He presented in 1847 to the Academy of Inscriptions the manuscript of his 'General History of the Semitic Languages,' a philological work which seemed very audacious at the time.

The commotion of the Revolution of 1848 had also its influence on him. He was essentially a man of peace and of order; but he was a philosopher and capable of penetrating the causes of revolution. "We must not," he says, "view too near these great convulsions of humanity. The appearance of Christianity appears to us altogether pure, holy, and supernatural; so it was, in fact, but only in its entirety. Could we view it very near, should we not find many spots in it? How many crazy, extravagant, immoral, monstrous sects. . . ." He would like to compose a new society; to elevate and purify the people; for, such as it is, it is impossible to love it or to desire its triumph. This idea torments him, and he exposes it in his 'Avenir de la Science,' written after 1848, but published only many years later.

In 1849 he was sent on a scientific mission to Italy, and on his return he declares himself another man. "The Madonnas have vanquished me." He felt that science was not all, that art was a world in itself. He had left France full of socialistic ideas; he felt that what he had written after 1848 was too bitter, too dogmatic, too sectarian and hard. Art appeared to him like a fairy, "who told me what the Church said, in one of its hymns, to the wood of the Cross:

> "'Flecte ramos, arbor alta,
> Tensa laxa viscera,
> Et rigor lentescat ille
> Quem dedit nativitas.'

A sort of mild zephyr softened my severity; nearly all my illusions of 1848 fell, as impossibilities. I saw the fatal necessities of human society."

Renan obtained a place in the department of manuscripts of the National Library. His sister Henrietta joined him in September, 1850. With a few thousand francs a year they could live together in Paris. She had become old before her time in Poland; they took a modest apartment in the Rue du Val de Grâce, near a convent of Carmelites in which sleeps Louise de la Vallière. Henrietta was her brother's secretary. She collected notes for him, read documents, helped him in everything; she wrote herself for an educational review, edited by Mademoiselle Ulliac. Renan's first publication was 'Averroès,' which was written for the doctorship of letters. It appeared in 1852. In 1855 the 'History of the Semitic Languages' appeared in print, and, the year after, Renan was elected a member of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres. He became a regular contributor to the *Journal des Débats* and to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. In 1857 appeared the 'Études d'Histoire Religieuse,' and in 1859 the 'Essais de Morale et de Critique.'

He made, in the studio of Ary Scheffer, the acquaintance of the niece of the Dutch painter. Madame Darmesteter has need of all her talent to make us understand what difficulties Renan encountered in escaping the tender tyranny of his sister and in taking a wife. "The hour in which Henrietta conceived the first suspicion of the secret sentiment of her brother towards Scheffer's niece was followed by cruel recriminations, by revolt, by all the bitterness to be found in a wounded soul." Renan has himself alluded to this domestic tragedy in the little work dedicated to "my sister Henrietta." He announced to Mademoiselle Scheffer that he would see her no more if the heart of his sister did not cease to bleed. He announced his resolution to his sister, who felt remorse and went herself to see Mademoiselle Scheffer. Everything was arranged; they were to continue all to live together; her economies would swell the budget of the young people. "Often, however," says Madame Darmesteter, "did the torments, the uneasiness of the imperious and tender sister threaten the domestic happiness. Fortunately the young bride possessed adorable constancy, simplicity, equableness. Thanks to her, all got on. She was born in the liberty of Protestant, liberal, artistic surroundings. She never complained of the severity of her new home; never did a bitter word show that she was not the sole mistress. She only wished to be the wife of Ernest Renan, the little sister of Henrietta. So much abnegation could but have its effect."

Correspondence.

JUDGING COLLEGE DEBATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some considerations seem to me to weigh heavily against Mr. Ringwalt's suggestion in regard to the principle of decision in intercollegiate debates. That suggestion, if I interpret it rightly, means that judges should go outside of the arguments presented and estimate the relative merits of debaters by comparing their actual performance with the utmost that might possibly be made of their side. In this way the accident of having a weak case will be compensated for, and failure to make the most of a strong case will be duly taken into account.

Obviously, judges competent to make allowance for the relative strength of two sides of a question must be profoundly learned in the subject discussed. Otherwise, their reckoning of the strength and weakness of the opposite sides will depend upon their own general impressions and the showing made by the disputants. The untrustworthiness of both sources of information need not be insisted upon.

The restriction to specialists of the field from which judges may be chosen would greatly diminish the small supply of available men and would not insure freedom from professional bias. The complication of the already complicated duty of a judge which would result from the adoption of this plan would render just decisions very difficult At present a judge is supposed to divest himself of prejudice in listening to an argument, and to render his decision in favor of the debaters who would leave an impartial and intelligent listener, unacquainted with the merits of the question, in the belief that they seemed to be in the right. It is no easy matter to obtain judges who can do this. A correspondent suggests judges in law-courts as peculiarly fitted to be judges in debate; but I should not have liked in 1800 to argue for a prize before English judges in favor of the mitigation of penalties for crime, nor should I now like to defend before a bench of judges a proposition for any very far-reaching change in public policy. Again, if the decision is to be reached by the application of any subtler principle than power to induce belief in the mind of an unprejudiced listener, then personal notions about style, voice, attitude, cannot but receive dangerous attention from the judges.

The proposed change fails to render imperative mature consideration of the substance and phraseology of the question propounded. Only so long as there is something to be gained by having the stronger case, will De Quincey's rule for sharing an orange —you divide and I choose—be applicable to debate. The selection of a subject and the phrasing of a proposition are as truly parts of a debate as are the massing of evidence and the analysis of syllogisms. If debaters propose an uneven subject, or get on the wrong side of one, they ought to lose. Subjects which are nearly even can be found. Conscientious, learned, and able men are on both sides of nearly every great political question. The Supreme Court has decided cases by a majority of one. Approximate equality is sufficient as a practical test of the power of debaters. Seldom, indeed, will the opponents be so nicely matched that the estimation of a hair in the weight of the cause will turn the balance in favor of a side.

Any standard of judgment which obscures the fact that argument is to convince and persuade induces artificiality and insincerity. Prize contests are only too easily degraded into exhibitions. Showy metaphors, pompous generalizations, declamatory in-

flections, affected voices, everything to humiliate those who still believe that rhetoric in the classic sense is a respectable study, will surely result when skill, and not power, is made the test of excellence. The conditions of an intercollegiate debate are artificial at best. Can we afford to make them more so?—Yours very respectfully,

H. B. LATHROP.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, July 25, 1898.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press Henry Cabot Lodge's 'Story of the Revolution,' which has been running in their magazine; 'War Memories of an Army Chaplain,' by Henry Clay Trumbull, D.D.; 'The Story of Spain Briefly Told,' by Mary Platt Parmelee; 'Our Navy in the Spanish War,' by John R. Spears; a new edition of 'The Navy in the Civil War'; 'A History of Modern Europe,' by Ferdinand Schwill, instructor in the University of Chicago; 'Thomas Gainsborough: His Life and Works,' by Walter Armstrong of the British Museum; a new volume of Donald G. Mitchell's 'American Lands and Letters'; 'Causes and Consequences,' a social and political essay, by John Jay Chapman; 'Architectural Essays,' by W. P. P. Longfellow; 'Fashion and Fashions in Paris,' by Octave Uzanne, with 100 full-page colored text and 230 text illustrations by François Courbin; 'Music and Manners from Pergolese to Beethoven,' by Henry Edward Krehbiel; by the same author, Henry T. Finck, W. J. Henderson, W. F. Apthorp, and others, "The Music Lovers' Library," a series of popular volumes; 'Odes in Contribution to the Song of French History,' by George Meredith; 'Worldly Ways and By-Ways,' essays from the *Evening Post* by Eliot Gregory ("An Idler"); 'Rome,' by Reinhold Schoener, with 300 full-page (quarto) illustrations; 'In the Highest Andes,' by Edward A. Fitz-Gerald, F.R.G.S., with sixty full-page illustrations from the author's photographs; 'The Workers—The West,' by Walter A. Wyckoff; and 'A Study of English Prose Writers,' by Prof. J. Scott Clark of the Northwestern University. The same firm has in preparation the 'Life and Letters of Eugene Field,' by Slason Thompson.

A volume of short stories by the late Edward Bellamy, with a biographical sketch by Sylvester Baxter, will be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Doubleday & McClure Co. will shortly publish 'Songs of Action,' by Conan Doyle, and 'Military Europe,' by Gen. Nelson A. Miles, with illustrations.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will issue in the fall 'The Grenadier: A Story of the Empire,' by James Eugene Farmer.

'Ada Vernham, Actress,' a novel by Richard Marsh, is in the press of John Long, London.

Supplementary to the "Rulers of India" series, the Clarendon Press will bring out the 'Life of Sir Henry Lawrence, the Pacificator,' by Lieut.-Gen. J. J. McLeod Innes, with portrait and map.

In the July *Publications* of the Southern History Association (Washington) it is stated that the trustees of Clemson College, S. C., who hold the larger part of the correspondence of John C. Calhoun, will commit it to the hands of Prof. J. Franklin Jameson of Brown University, representing the American Historical Manuscripts Commission, for publication in the next Report of the American Historical Association. Prof. Jameson, whose address is No. 196 Bowen Street, Providence, R. I., will be thankful for the loan of Calhoun letters and other pertinent unpublished material to assist him in his editorial enterprise.

The well-selected "Stories by Foreign Authors" of the Messrs. Scribner continue in two volumes, Scandinavian and Russian, with portrait frontispieces of Turgeneff and Björnson. The Russian collection is typical enough—Pushkin, Gogol, Turgeneff, and Tolstoi. Frederika Bremer is not forgotten in the Scandinavian.

Appletons' 'Dictionary of "Greater" New York' is the amended title of the twentieth edition of a well-known and convenient guide to this city. The new bounds are not shown in detail on any one map, the borough of Manhattan alone being reserved for this distinction. Evidences of the thorough overhauling made necessary by the expansion of New York are abundant. There are not a few half-tone illustrations.

Most people who have read any of Mr. Poultney Bigelow's previous writings will know about what to expect to find in 'White Man's Africa' (Harpers). At the request of his publishers, soon after the Jameson raid, the author went to South Africa to obtain "impressions" wherewith to enlighten the American public. He has done his job thoroughly—indeed, almost every page is full of impressions delivered with refreshing certainty. He travelled through the several states; he interviewed two presidents and a prime minister or so, besides many lesser lights; he tried to read "all" of the literature on South Africa. Hence, there remained for him no mysteries in the problems that vex the country. Altogether, it was a true piece of journalism, with its merits. The book is well written, bright and entertaining, even at times suggestive; the wealth of historical parallels is impressive, and why should we scan them too closely? We get pictures of interesting scenes and characters, while never too much losing sight of the writer. No bibliography of South Africa will be complete without this work.

'The Benin Massacre,' by Alan Boisragon (London: Methuen), is an account of a recent episode in the history of British West Africa, the murder of a party of English officers with their attendants by a treacherous native chief. Only two of the nine white men escaped, and they as by a miracle, after undergoing fearful suffering and privation. The story is told by the author, one of the survivors, with a straightforward artlessness which is at times quite effective, so that we enjoy the couple of hours necessary to read the book. Of course, the massacre was followed by the usual successful punitive expedition.

Burmah, the last great acquisition to the Indian empire of Great Britain, is still little known. Its rich natural resources are almost totally undeveloped, and since its recent pacification it has not yet attracted many visitors or provoked widespread interest. Hence its long if rather uninteresting history and its peculiar character and civilization, in which India and China meet, have hardly begun to be studied. Mrs. Ernest Hart, in 'Picturesque Burma, Past and Present' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), has tried to write a systematic work, based on the best available authorities rather than on her own travels. The scope is shown by the division into five parts—"The Country of Burma," "The People of Burma and their Customs," "The Religion of the Burmans," "The Story of Burma for Twenty-five Centuries," and "The Resources and Future of Burma." Such an attempt is ambitious, perhaps too ambitious in the present case, for the author does not seem to have the grasp, the power of arrangement, selection, and deduction necessary for a great or even a particularly good book of this sort. The result is, nevertheless, praiseworthy, and can be useful to many, if such there be, who are anxious to learn about things Burmese. The volume is well printed, handsomely illustrated, and prettily bound; indeed, is evidently intended to look well on a table, as it is far too heavy to be comfortable in the hand.

The Pocket and the Student's Dictionaries by Ferdinand E. A. Gasc have prepared a welcome for the same author's 'Library Dictionary of the French and English Languages' (Henry Holt & Co.). To speak first of externals, the two parts consist of 950 pages, the matter in triple columns of small but legible type, with full-page catchwords. Beyond a few indications, the pronunciation is left to be acquired independently. Derivation is equally disregarded. The vocabulary for the current speech is remarkably full, as one may see by comparing it with that of Hatzfeld-Darmesteter. Of especial excellence and abundance, as should be the case, are the definitions, which are laudably idiomatic. A very good illustration of the help to be obtained from Gasc is afforded by the words *badaud* and *badauderie*, which, from the meagre and formal definitions in Littré or Hatzfeld, would tax ordinary wit to find an English equivalent for without great circumlocution. In a word, this Dictionary must recommend itself even as an adjunct to any other of its class now available. The price is moderate.

Professor Kluge, well known as one of the first of living Germanic philologists, has associated with himself Professor F. Lutz of Albion College in the preparation of a little manual entitled 'English Etymology' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). The book is correctly described in the title-page as "a select glossary, serving as an introduction to the history of the English language." It is not, of course, meant as a substitute for a large etymological dictionary, but within its compass it is very full, and it is throughout distinguished by clearness and scientific elegance. It ought to be in the hands of every person who cares for the history of our tongue. For teachers of English who are not fully trained in such matters it is downright indispensable.

It is a timely deviation of Knackfuss's "Künstler-Monographien" from the old masters which gives us one on the living Franz Lenbach, by Adolf Rosenberg (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). This artist is *par excellence* the portraitist of the German empire of to-day, and is known everywhere for his portraits of Bismarck in particular. Numerous examples of this series, along with Dr. Schweninger, accompany the monograph; but also the first and second German Emperors and their families, Moltke and Delbrück, Wagner and Liszt, Von Bülow and Johann Strauss, Helmholtz and Max von Pettenkofer, Döllinger and the Pope, Paul Heyse and Hermann Lingg, Arnold Böcklin and Franz

von Seitz, together with many women of station or beauty, are shown in paintings or drawings. Gladstone, too, is here, whose death in the same year with Bismarck still further couples their names as their lives. The English statesman is shown both singly and in that queer post-mortem group with Döllinger which recalls the two shades in Aldrich's "No-man's-land," vainly inquiring after each other's identity:

" 'I know not,' said the second Shape,
'I only died last night!' "

The third of G. Hedeler's (Leipzig) trilingual 'List of Private Libraries' deals with Germany, and enumerates no fewer than 817, whose characteristics are briefly set forth. Collections in excess of 10,000 volumes are plentiful, and several surpass 100,000. There is an index of places, and another of specialties, but these last are arranged by class and not alphabetically.

The numerous "Anleitungen" and "praktische Wegweiser" for university students in Germany are a result of the prevailing lack of close relations between professor and student which often prevents the former from being the guide of his hearers as well as their teacher. These treatises are adapted, in the main, to the wants of native students, but the perusal of several of them suggests their possible utility to foreigners also, especially those who are in pursuit of academical honors. There is no need of warning them that certain suggestions should be followed rather cautiously, as, for instance, Dr. R. Pappritz's remark, in 'Anleitung zum Studium der Klassischen Philologie und Geschichte' (Berlin: Fussinger), that private reading and not the hearing of lectures is of prime importance. A whole series of pamphlets, entitled "Wie studiert man, etc.," has been published by Rossberg (Leipzig): Dr. M. Brasch's 'Wie studiert man Philosophie' has been seen through the second edition by Dr. Hans Zimmer, who is also the author of a little guide to the study of pedagogy. Professor Erhard (Freiberg) writes for the benefit of mining engineers, and Professor Birnbaum (Leipzig) for students of the science of agriculture; but the treatises on the study of classical philology, modern philology, medicine, dentistry, and several others, have for their author the versatile "erfahrener Fachgenosse" who, having been "through the mill," can give valuable hints to inexperienced freshmen.

The University Library of Vienna has issued a volume of nearly 800 pages, containing a carefully classified list of all the periodicals taken not only in its own reading-rooms, but in those of all the Austrian high-school and educational libraries. Every periodical published in the Austrian empire is included in the list, and of foreign papers nearly all the scientific publications. Five savants collaborated in this work—Grassauer, Kaukusch, Geyer, Donabaum, and Makasch.

Among the presents given to Grand Duke Karl Alexander of Weimar on his eightieth birthday (June 24) was a publication issued by the Goethe-Schiller Archiv, entitled 'Goethe und Maria Paulowna.' Its object is to supply the material for an appreciation of the relations between Goethe and other literary men of his time and the Grand Duke's mother, who was born in 1786. The monograph contains, among other things, a record of what Goethe, Schiller, and others said and wrote about Maria Paulowna; letters from Goethe; and letters by Maria Paulowna to Goethe and to Schiller's wife.

A few years ago the German Government established at Heligoland a biological station similar to the famous laboratory at Naples, and, while it is on a much smaller scale, it receives the same subsidy—$10,000 a year. Its object is not only to afford students practically free opportunities to study marine life in all its phases, but to promote the welfare of the fishing industry by studying the waters bordering on German soil with German thoroughness. The director of the station is Prof. Heincke, who has several expert assistants, besides four fishermen and five boats at his service. As a practical result of its labors, the institute has already issued two volumes of "Wissenschaftliche Meeresuntersuchungen," with monographs on several kinds of fishes, describing their habits, the places they frequent, etc. Later on, popular editions of these are to be issued for the guidance of fishermen. The Biological Institute is also issuing in instalments Prof. Heincke's exhaustive treatise on the herring, in which a new classification of the varieties of that fish is attempted and the problem of its migrations carefully studied.

A posthumous "List of Portraits in the Various Buildings of Harvard University," instituted by the late Justin Winsor, forms No. 53 of the University Library's Bibliographical Contributions. It is naturally a very miscellaneous collection, since it includes the Peabody Museum among the buildings. Mr. William Garrott Brown, who has carried out Mr. Winsor's design, frankly confesses his deficiency as a connoisseur in portraiture. This is exemplified in the vague "photo. of portrait" of Rousseau, of whom a good iconography exists; and again in the definition of "line engraving" affixed to Kruell's wood engraving of Asa Gray. It is noticeable that this artist, who might almost be styled engraver to Harvard University, is unrepresented (or was, when this list was compiled) by any other of his masterly series of Harvard worthies, the Phillips, Lowell, Holmes, Child, and Norton. His Webster, Lincoln, Grant, and Sherman we will also indicate to those who wish the University to possess the best portraits in black and white of these great Americans.

Mr. Charles F. Lummis tells in the August number of his *Land of Sunshine* (Los Angeles), in language more picturesque and racy than his photographic memoranda, of his recent ascent of the Enchanted Mesa with a considerable party, embracing among others President Jordan of Stanford University, Theodore H. Hittell, the historian of California, and the writer's little girl of six years. The climb, with ropes and ladders, was made in a little more than two hours. Though the soil of the summit has been practically all washed away, traces still remain of human dwellings and occupancy, and the party secured arrow-heads, shell-beads, a turquoise pendant, and chips of agate brought (like the other articles) from a great distance. Incidentally, some account is given of Acoma and the Grand Cañon, which were included in the three weeks' excursion.

—The *Century* for August opens with an illustrated article on "The Arctic Monument Named for Tennyson by Dr. Kane," written by Charles W. Shields, the explorer's brother-in-law. The article contains a couple of letters from Tennyson, and carries the reader back to the romantic period of the search for Sir John Franklin. Those who are interested in heredity will be struck with the account given of the ancestry of Dr. Kane. On his father's side, he was descended from an English officer, who married an aunt of Chancellor Kent. His grandfather married Alida Van Rensselaer; his father was an American judge of note. On his mother's side he was descended from Thomas Leiper, described as "cadet of a Scotch family of French origin," who served by the side of Washington. There united in him, therefore, strains of Scotch, Dutch, French, and English blood, all of which had become in him thoroughly American. Mr. Shields adds that he was also "of Irish origin," but seems to have omitted the evidence on which this statement rests. Those who remember Dr. Kane's charm, gayety, and readiness in conversation will not be likely to be sceptical on this point. The *Century's* group of articles by eye-witnesses of Dewey's exploit at Manila will be found suggestive of much. We will instance the surgeon's confession that he could not endure, on land, the spectacle of human mutilation caused by the American missiles, "as a spectator"—and he was not there to relieve. A valuable paper on "The Sanitary Regeneration of Havana," by Surgeon-General Sternberg, shows that a very large part of the troubles of the pearl of the Antilles have been owing to dirt—and inasmuch as, a hundred years ago, portions of New York and Philadelphia were as filthy as the Jesus Maria ward of Havana is to-day, there is no reason for despair. In the remarkable series of papers on "Confederate Commerce-Destroyers," James Morris Morgan, formerly midshipman of the Confederate cruiser *Georgia*, gives an account of the "Confederacy's only foreign war," which seems to have been with the Moors. When off the coast of Morocco, Mr. Morgan and a party of officers went ashore, when they were brutally attacked by "a crowd of armed Moors," who literally kicked the whole company into the sea. The ex-midshipman gives a minute account of how he was suddenly seized by the shoulders, twisted round, and unmercifully kicked "at every step" "until I was up to my neck in the sea"; the assailants "desisted only when I climbed into the boat." No one showed fight, but the captain shelled the coast till the Moors, who had no "sea-power," ran away.

—In the *Atlantic* the article on "The Trend of the Century," by Seth Low, and the first instalment of the "Reminiscences of an Astronomer," by Simon Newcomb, are sure to attract attention. We have examined the first with some care to see if Mr. Low's rather comprehensive topic brings him to an avowal of his political creed; but he rather avoids committing himself to any dangerously incisive declaration of faith. He says that "every one is conscious of the new problems, but no one is wise enough to see how they are to be worked out," and, after describing and discussing in turn the panacea of the Anarchist, the Nihilist, the Communist, and the Socialist, reaches the conclusion that "there is nothing to be done but patiently to meet each problem in the best way possible, in the confidence that in the long run the outcome will be advantageous to mankind." This seems to show that Mr. Low is something of an opportunist, and also a good deal of an optimist, which we knew before; but precisely what light this throws on "the trend" of the century we are unable to say. It is certainly a curious illustration of the mental

temper of the times that optimism should be the prevailing "note" of the philosophy of the presidents of both Harvard and Columbia. It seems to be as natural an American growth as Indian corn. Prof. Charles Kendall Adams contributes a valuable paper on "Neglected Aspects of the Revolution." Some of the things we have forgotten to remember in this case are that the Revolution was really a civil war, in which there were almost as many good and worthy men on one side as on the other; that the issue of the conflict was so doubtful that it might almost as easily have turned out one way as the other; that the constitutional arguments of the Tories were strong, and that the war was attended by a ferocious proscription which did not reflect much credit on the victorious party. But how was it that men like Washington and Franklin, originally loyalists, were drawn to the support and leadership of the Revolution? It is the desertion of the English side by these men, who were its natural defenders, that is the best proof of the inevitableness of the war. There can be no doubt, however, of the truth of the main point which Prof. Adams wishes to enforce, that until very recently we have received from our teachers a most one-sided view of the whole period.

—*Harper's* contains for its leading illustrated article a most surprising account of "The Convict System in Siberia," by Stephen Bonsal, which differs *toto coelo* from the hitherto accepted account of life in that part of the world. G. W. Smalley contributes "Reminiscences, Anecdotes, and an Estimate" of Mr. Gladstone, collected in the spirit of a candid admirer. He contributes a bit of "private history" with regard to Gladstone's relations with Gordon, to the effect that the former refused to see the latter just before his departure for Egypt, in order to be, later, "in a position to disavow Gordon." At least, the only alternative supposition which Mr. Smalley will admit as possible is that Gladstone's repugnance to meeting Gordon was unconquerable. But Mr. Smalley fails to explain how not seeing Gordon, whose services he had already accepted, and who had had an interview with Lord Granville, would enable Gladstone to "disavow" him. The story that Gladstone, on hearing the news of Gordon's death, immediately went to the theatre to testify his joy at the occurrence, Mr. Smalley explodes by facts showing that he was at the theatre when the news came.

—*Scribner's* is trying experiments in color, for art's sake. The number for August contains a poem, "The Sea is His," by Edward Sandford Martin, embodied or submerged in eight full-page illustrations by Henry McCarter, reproduced in color. We are not sure that the effect of the verse is not somewhat belittled by the process, but then other people might say the same of FitzGerald's 'Omar' as treated by Vedder. "The Landing of the Army," by Richard Harding Davis, like most of Mr. Davis's writing, is vivid, but superficial. "Bumptious" is perhaps the term which a friendly critic might apply. A piece of writing about the war intrinsically more valuable is that of J. F. J. Archibald, who gives an account of the "first engagement of American troops on Cuban soil," an engagement in which the writer was wounded. Of most permanent interest in the number is Capt. Mahan's second paper on "John Paul Jones in the Revolution."

—**The July number of the Oxford English Dictionary** (New York: Henry Frowde) stretches from *haversine* to *heel*, with a noticeably scanty admixture of Latin or Greek derivatives. *He, head, heat,* and *heart* are among the longest and most interesting articles. No one has studied his English grammar so well that he cannot learn something from the presentation of the historical development of the pronoun *he* in its various cases. Curious are the survivals of dialectic forms like *ha, a,* for the nominative, *hem, 'em* for the dative-accusative, and *en, 'n* (*un*) for the accusative, as well as *hisn, hern,* and *theirn* for the genitive. Nothing suggests more forcibly the resistance which the unlettered Hodge has offered to literate uniformity of speech. That extension of meaning which by humorous and poetic (metaphorical) comparison charges our simplest words with the greatest diversity of uses, is well exemplified in *head,* in five or six pages of this instalment. We remark here that while a citation for "to keep one's head" is found as early as 1717, Tennyson in 1847 is the earliest authority for "to lose one's head." Either phrase seems, therefore, to be pretty recent. John Bartram (1762) is first caught using the convenient expression "to head" of a river, but this Americanism has gone abroad. *Headstone* (for a grave) is traced back no further than 1775. The literal if not the figurative illustration of "heart of oak" would have gained a serviceable link in Coleridge's latter-day line:

> "If a foe have kenned . . .
> A rib of dry rot in thy ship's stout side, . . .
> With heart of oak replace it."

And may we query, in passing, under which classification this phrase would fall? *Ship* is clearly figuratively used; but is *heart of oak,* carrying out the metaphor, to be regarded as anything but literal in its application? The Latin origin of "to carry hay in one's horn" would have been deftly shown by Lowell's warning (1846), for the benefit of clergy, respecting Stephen Foster:

> "*Habet* a whole haymow *in cornu.*"

And the same poet's allusion (1877) to the fates—

> "They, the unspeakable Three, whose debt,
> Like the hawk's shadow, blots our brightest day"

—would have adorned the short list of figurative uses under *hawk.*

—In the case of *heath,* Dr. Murray is able to fortify conclusively a suspected Shakspere reading, in the "Tempest," "*long* heath"; for Turner, in his 'Names of Herbes' (1548), wrote: "There is in this Countrie two kindes of Heath, one . . . is called long Heath. The other . . . smal Heath." *Heather,* by the way, is not from heath; the two names are topographically at extremes—Scotland and the southern and midland counties of England respectively. Nor is *heathen* certainly 'a dweller on the heath' (as if a loose rendering of Latin *paganus,* villager, rustic, and then non-Christian). The obsolete haw, 'an enclosure,' is cognate with *hedge* and with The Hague ('s Graven hage, 'the Count's Haw'). "To be on the hedge" is interpreted by our American "to sit on the fence." There is no American citation for *hay-fever,* which Southey called *hay-asthma* in 1827, and Sydney Smith by its present name in 1835, and which was first scientifically described, under the name of *summer catarrh,* in 1828, by Bostock. Our rustic *hayseed* is dated back to 1889. We have heard in current (reminiscent) use on this side of the water "as sure as *hearth-money*" (meaning the collection of the tax of that name), a proverb which escaped Dr. Murray's readers. But we must close, with mention only of the discovery that "hear, hear" was originally, in Parliamentary punctuation, "hear him."

FORD'S FEDERALIST.

The Federalist: A Commentary on the Constitution of the United States. By Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay. Edited, with notes, illustrative documents, and a copious index, by Paul Leicester Ford. Henry Holt & Co. 1898. 12mo, pp. lxxvii, 793.

A new edition of the 'Federalist,' when there are at least four others on the market, must needs possess some distinctive merits to justify its appearance. That Mr. Ford's work meets this requirement there can be no question. It is emphatically a student's or working edition, and the needs of the student have been paramount in the eyes of the editor. That he has not provided for them with uniform success should not detract from the positive services that he has rendered. First among these must be placed the new index. No one who has had occasion to use the 'Federalist' can have escaped repeated vexation at the very inadequate index which has hitherto been available. Mr. Ford's index is about four times as full as the old one, and, so far as we have tested it, is satisfactory. Other improvements which facilitate consultation are the running titles comprising the topics, the number and author of the essay, and the occasional cross-references to indicate repetitions of the same matter in other papers.

In regard to the text, Mr. Ford has followed Dawson and Lodge in selecting the newspaper text for the first seventy-seven numbers. He has, however, improved upon them by identifying and prefixing to each essay the name and date of the journal in which it first appeared. The same principles of criticism which demand the original text point just as definitely to the choice of the exactly descriptive title of the first collected edition of 1788: 'The Federalist: A Collection of Essays, written in favor of the new Constitution, as agreed upon by the Federal Convention, September 17, 1787.' Instead of this, Mr. Ford, like Lodge, has adopted the title devised by John C. Hamilton: 'The Federalist: A Commentary on the Constitution of the United States.' This title is objectionable for two reasons: it is the invention of an editor, and it is inexact. Almost half of the 'Federalist' is taken up with a general discussion of the defects of the Confederation and of the value of the Union. These earlier numbers are in no sense a commentary on the present Constitution; on the other hand, they may properly be described as essays "in favor of the new Constitution."

Another feature of the editor's treatment of the text must be regarded with grave misgiving, if not positively condemned. He has printed in smaller type that part of the text "which relates to the purely temporary issues of 1788, and much of the historical part, both of which are now of slight value." We question whether this proceeding can be justified either on critical or utilitarian grounds. The 'Federalist' is read to-day, not to understand the Constitution of the United States in 1898, but to understand the history and political thought of the period of its

adoption. Consequently, the editor may render the student a positive disservice by labelling a paragraph "Now of slight value." As an illustration of the political thinking of the time such a paragraph might be the most instructive in the whole essay.

Mr. Ford is the first editor to comment on the text at any length. Dawson planned an elaborate commentary, but never finished it. Mr. Ford's notes are not a systematic critical and historical interpretation of the text, but rather the clever and suggestive running comment of one who combines an extensive knowledge of books with an extensive knowledge of affairs. They will be read for their own quality, but this most exceptional merit is attended by a serious defect, inexactness. The same defect characterizes the introduction. The notes of sound scholarship are precision, verification, and careful authentication of material. Mr. Ford is careless about these essentials. He rarely gives a precise reference to an authority. In the appendix he prints some twenty-five constitutional documents, and in only three cases does he give the source of the collection containing the standard text. These documents are dated only by years, and in not a single instance is there a reference to guide the student to the literature of the subject. It is needless to say that editing a collection of historical documents requires more than simple chronological arrangement. Examples of carelessness are the attribution of De Pauw's 'Recherches philosophiques sur les Américains' to Raynal, p. 71, and the assertion, on p. xl., that "James C. Hamilton edited an elaborate edition of Hamilton's revised text of 1788," whereas it was John C. Hamilton, and his text, as he expressly tells us, was a combination of those of the editions of 1802 and 1818.

An error of a more serious character is that on p. 274, where, in discussing the slave-trade compromise of the Constitution, Mr. Ford writes: "United with them [*i. e.*, the Carolinas and Georgia] in the desire to maintain the slave trade were Massachusetts and Rhode Island, for in these States a larger part of this profitable traffic centred." It is incorrect to say that Massachusetts and Rhode Island desired to maintain the slave trade. In the first place, Rhode Island, not being represented in the convention, had nothing to do with this compromise. Second, what Massachusetts and Connecticut wanted was the Constitution with a clause authorizing a navigation law, and to get this they sacrificed their preferences in regard to the slave trade. There is no more reason for saying that Massachusetts wanted to maintain the slave trade than for saying that South Carolina wanted a navigation law. In 1785 the Legislature of Massachusetts appointed a committee on the slave trade, and in 1788 passed a law prohibiting citizens of the State, under heavy penalties, from any participation in it. Rhode Island had done the same in 1787. On p. 281 the so-called distribution of the surplus revenue in 1837 is attributed to the Democratic party. It was a Whig measure, and was forced on the Democrats, who accepted it under the guise of a "deposit" of the public money with the States. On p. 269 the Democrats are said to have "originated the first 'protective' legislation." The reference is apparently to the tariff of 1816. Mr. Ford, although a great admirer of Hamilton, evidently does not regard his efforts in behalf of protection as worthy of consideration. It will be remembered that the first tariff bill, 1789, was entitled "An act for the encouragement and protection of manufactures." In the same note, again, the Democrats are made "responsible for the first institution of bounties by the silver-purchase laws." The uninformed reader could hardly be expected to deduce from that utterance the fact that the silver-purchase laws were Republican devices to displace the free coinage of silver, nor the fact that the sugar bounty of 1890 was a Republican measure. It may be remarked, in passing, that although the Republican substitute for free coinage was in effect a bounty, the original Democratic measure was not. Free coinage is properly to be classified as a change in the standard of value.

Other examples might be cited; the foregoing illustrate the point that Mr. Ford's shortcoming is carelessness. He takes the task of writing history much too lightly. The same fault may be found with his style. On p. 142 he writes: "Congress can still act with the greatest celerity (notably in their vote of the funds entailed by the Venezuelan measure)." No President's message can entail either funds or a vote of funds. On p. 268 we read: "The narrow view, here expressed by Madison, he held consistently, while in the opposition, it first found definite expression in Jefferson's 'Opinion on the Constitutionality of the National Bank.' " The implication is that Madison and Jefferson belonged to different parties.

In his introduction Mr. Ford offers a new solution of the question of the authorship of those numbers which have been claimed by and for both authors. His results differ from those of any previous editor, and are in harmony with the claims of neither author. His argument is ingenious, but unconvincing. It invites careful examination and detailed criticism, but we have hardly the space for such a treatment of the subject. Nor is it really necessary at this time. All of this portion of the introduction appeared in the *American Historical Review* for July, 1897, when, as it was ostensibly a reply to Prof. Bourne's article in the April number, it was followed by a rejoinder from Prof. Bourne which revealed some positive errors of fact in Mr. Ford's argument. The opinion was expressed at the time in these columns that Prof. Bourne had successfully maintained his conclusions. That Mr. Ford should then reprint his article in a permanent form, entirely ignoring these criticisms, shows an attachment to preconceived convictions which must militate against his authority as an historical writer.

BISHOP BASS.

The Life and Times of Edward Bass, First Bishop of Massachusetts. By Daniel Dulany Addison. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Addison has made his book interesting and valuable by setting the life of Bishop Bass in a story of his times. Taken by itself, the Bishop's life would not have been a fruitful theme. Such significance as it had was mainly as illustrating and interpreting the early history of the Episcopal Church in Massachusetts before, during, and after the Revolutionary war. He was born in Dorchester, Mass., November 23, 1726. He graduated at Harvard in 1744, and remained there, pursuing his studies in theology, until 1750. All that we know of these years is that he was twice fined for absence "after the vacancy was up," or, as we should say, after the end of the vacation, and that his thesis for his master's degree was, "Will the blessed in the future world, after the last judgment, make use of articulate speech, and will that be Hebrew?" His biographer often speaks of him as scholarly, and the learned Dr. Bentley of Salem remarks that his library of 46 folios and 240 volumes was the largest outside of Boston, while, strangely enough, it contained no Greek New Testament. When, for some unexplained reason, he turned from the Congregational church of his birthright to the Episcopal, his scholarly attainments did not impress the vestrymen of the Newburyport parish so much as some others. He was found to pare an apple and light a pipe more like a gentleman than any of the other candidates. There being no bishops in the colonies, his ordination involved a journey to London—a risky one, as about one-fourth of all the candidates regularly died there of smallpox. Assuming his charge in 1752, he held it until his death, in 1803, the last six years coinciding with the term of his bishopric.

Newburyport disputes with Marblehead the honor of having the second Episcopal church in Massachusetts, and would seem to have the best of the argument. Almost every parish in New England had its meeting-house quarrel, and Newburyport was no exception to the rule. The bad blood occasioned by such a quarrel was in Newburyport the seed of the Episcopal church. Under Gov. Nicholson's administration, those attached to it were excused from the tithes of the Puritan parish, but this exemption was not long enjoyed. When, in 1715, there was no clergyman, the Puritans fumigated the church with their own preaching, and when a clergyman was secured, the Puritans instituted preaching in a house near by, and their Boanerges roared so loud as to disturb the Episcopalians in their devotions. Judge Sewall's entry in his diary, stating that Mr. Lucas, the Episcopal minister, "cut his own throat," and continuing, "however, the minister of Marblehead set a good face on it, had the Corps carried into the Church, preached a funeral sermon, and buried him therein," is believed by Mr. Addison to have been a slanderous rumor. In due time the Episcopalians had their own meeting-house war, aggravated by the report that the rector had worn "a spreckled handerchief" in the pulpit. Changes in population called for a new church building, and the rector demanded as his right the charge of both the new one and the old one. It was one of the conditions of the settlement of this quarrel in his favor that Mr. Bass was installed as his assistant. He was soon left in sole charge by the death of Mr. Plant.

Mr. Addison's narrative and the documents which he quotes profusely or gives in full, throw much pleasant and instructive light on the religious manners of the time. In the same year with the Lisbon earthquake, Newburyport enjoyed a social one—the introduction of an organ into Mr. Bass's church. It was a famous organ, the first one used in a New England church. It had been given in 1713 to King's Chapel, Boston, after having been refused by the Brattle Street Society. One of the conditions of the bequest was that "a sober person" should be procured "to play skilfully thereon with a

loud noise." As well, thought Cotton Mather, have "Dancing and several other Judaic actions." Mr. Bass's position was that of a missionary of the London Society for Propagating the Gospel in Foreign Parts. Many of the missionaries exaggerated the value of their services, but Mr. Bass's modesty was equalled only by his punctuality in drawing his salary every six months. His baptisms of slaves were relatively so numerous as to make it appear that there were many of them in Newburyport. Until 1763 the relations of Mr. Bass and his people with the Congregationalists seem to have been friendly, and after the war there were interchanges of civility which would be impossible at the present time. But in 1763 the virulent Mayhew controversy stirred up the Puritan mind against the Episcopalians, and a little later the Stamp Act and the subsequent measures which heralded the Revolutionary war made bad matters worse. One of the two Episcopal churches in Newburyport having fallen into disuse, the Congregationalists appropriated it, and, Mr. Bass being moved to protest, the local *entente cordiale* was affected seriously. As controversy waxed hotter, Mr. Bass sent to England for books with which to confute 'A Sure Guide to Hell, in Seven Sections,' and other violent assaults on the Episcopal Church and worship.

The natural desire of the Episcopal churches in the colonies to have a bishop of their own was a fruitful source of disputation, and we find Elbridge Gerry writing to Samuel Adams that "it may not be amiss" in certain resolutions "to hit at the church innovations and the establishment of those tyrants in religion—bishops." But there were amenities with all the bitterness, as when, at the burial of Whitefield in 1770, Mr. Bass was one of the pall-bearers. In truth, the Episcopalians owed much to Whitefield. The violence which he excited in the Congregationalist churches was turned to as good practical account by the Episcopalians as was the anti-slavery preaching of a later period.

Mr. Addison has excellent chapters on the churches before the Revolution and the churches during that trying period. Parker of Boston and Bass of Newburyport were the only Massachusetts clergymen of the English church who remained with their parishes. Bass held with the hare and ran with the hounds in a judicious manner. A Tory and "in all respects a good subject," he managed to satisfy the claims of a parish in which there were some ardent patriots, and to live peaceably in a community in which there were many. He did not succeed in satisfying so well the claims of the London Missionary Society. Mr. Weeks, the rector of the church in Marblehead, informed against him as not praying for the King but for Congress, reading the Declaration of Independence in church, taking a collection to clothe American soldiers, and opening his church on Fast Days appointed by Congress. He was convicted on but two of these counts—not praying for the King, and keeping the Fast Days—and his salary as missionary was cut off. This treatment had, possibly, some influence on his views of church government. What is certain is that, when there was much debate over the new constitution of the church, Mr. Bass was for lay representation in its governing body. This attitude distinguished him sharply from the Connecticut churchmen, who were much opposed to lay representation or influence. As to the prayer-book, Mr. Bass would omit the Athanasian Creed and some other things, but not so many as Bishop White of Philadelphia, and he was not sympathetic with White's revolutionary scheme for making a new start with bishops laying no claim to apostolical succession.

He was chosen Bishop of Massachusetts in 1789 by the vote of four Massachusetts and one New Hampshire clergymen, but for some reason he was not consecrated. Mr. Addison does not incline to the view that his election was merely an ecclesiastical device for meeting a certain difficulty. In 1796 he was again elected, seven laymen participating in the election with ten clergymen, and he was consecrated in Philadelphia, after some delay, May 7, 1797. Why Parker of Trinity Church, Boston, a man of much greater force than Bass, did not desire the office, is not clear. It was not an imposing one, and he may have despised the day of small things. Bishop Bass did not; but, on the other hand, he did not magnify his office, never penetrating to those parts of his diocese which lay beyond the Connecticut River. His episcopal duties added little to his parochial cares, and he discharged them with that cautious inoffensiveness which was the most characteristic trait of his behavior at every stage of his ecclesiastical career.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XXV. Index. London, February 19, 1898.

This is the closing volume of a series which from the beginning has seemed so important that, in these columns, some little space has, from time to time, been allotted to the consideration due it. It is a pleasure to note that, in his list of errata, Mr. Stevens has availed himself of the few suggestions which a careful scrutiny had been able to discover.

At this culmination of a work which has in part occupied thirty years of one man's life, it is proper to look briefly at the undertaking as a whole. Mindful of the Sparks-Mahon controversy as to the obligations of an editor to manuscripts, Mr. Stevens early made up his mind to "servile accuracy," and this he thought was best to be attained by use of photography. To compass the task by this method required no less than 9,000 negatives, besides 3,000 title-pages, descriptions, editorial notes, collations, references, and translations. It became first necessary to establish in England the thesis that the process of photography was, if not implied, at least not denied in a permission to "peruse, catalogue, and copy" the desired records. This point successfully carried, the French Government proved itself willing to follow precedent. No doubt one determining cause of the method chosen was the intimation by Lord Granville, at the time Secretary for Foreign Affairs, in answer to an application by Mr. Stevens to use American papers in the Public Record Office, that he must "take the whole or leave the whole of each individual document, . . . and garble none as had been done by two most eminent historians." This set the pace, and it was kept. Mr. Stevens has thought fit to defend himself for offering facsimiles instead of careful transcripts in print. No one would seriously have differed with him in this matter, but it is well to have his view. The inaccessibility of most manuscripts, the general demand to-day for veracious sources (and documents are the true sources), and the stimulation to work caused by examination of originals, blemished and unsightly as they may chance to be, were inducements enough to present the best possible substitute—photographic facsimiles on enduring paper, beautifully imitating in "fibre, texture, color, sizing, and mill-finish" some models of the Revolutionary period. Accepting Mr. Stevens's explanation as satisfactory in regard to the documents, it may yet be true that it would have been serviceable had he put his translations, which he has admittedly offered only as gratuities, into print, though this plan would necessarily have detracted from the symmetry of the volumes. The lack of a strict chronological arrangement, which has puzzled even those most inclined to admire the work, is explained by the decision to extract at once all documents wanted from each volume as intrusted for inspection. In private collections use was allowed for only a short time, while to have held all facsimiles unprinted until a final order was complete would have involved the keeping, as Mr. Stevens says, "of tons, literally tons, of lithographic stones."

To those who are unfamiliar with the currents of historical study in this country it will be a surprise and a disgust to learn that, in promoting the interests of his Facsimiles and Catalogue-Index, Mr. Stevens encountered the "strong opposition of an eminent historian"—possibly one of those referred to by Granville—on the ground that, the history of the United States having been carefully written, it was needless to give the "rising generation" the chapter and verse of original authorities, because such references might invalidate the supposed accuracy of "quotations and conclusions." Possibly Mr. Stevens has understated the other side, but it makes it tolerably sure that we have among us a Propagation of the Historical Faith of which such men as the late George Bancroft and the present senior Senator of Massachusetts are to be considered diligent servants.

Chief among the more concrete portions of the collections are the following: The papers of the Peace Commission of 1778 (vols. iv., xi., xii., and parts of i. and v.); Deane's relations with the French Government (vi., vii., viii.); Chief Justice Smith's letters to Eden (vii.); Sir Henry Clinton to Eden (vii., x.); Henry Laurens papers (x.); Lord Stormont's correspondence from Paris (xiii. to xvi., xviii. to xxii.); Arthur Lee's Berlin papers, including the "despatch-box" story (xv.); Lafayette's unofficial correspondence (xvii.); Siege of Savannah (xxiii.); Oswald's and Serle's letters from the Earl of Dartmouth manuscripts (xxiv.). Nor do these exhaust the riches. Under such names in the Index as Beaumarchais, Hynson, Landais, Bancroft, and Wentworth, will be found references which illustrate essential history, and compared to which the communications of Stormont, Vergennes, Weymouth, and the clever Florida Blanca are almost as surface material.

Aside from such documents as are concerned with the actual conduct of the war on American soil, the preponderating bulk of these papers hinge directly or indirectly on the question of American privateers, and more especially on prizes brought or intend-

ing to be brought into French ports. On this point the true diplomacy of the Revolution turned.

It is supererogatory to explain the importance of this collection or to praise the fidelity and elegance of execution. The natural sentiment is one of gratitude that the task should have reached completion without mishap, and, it may be sincerely hoped, not without reward. It is our greatest historical monument since Force's "Archives," and altogether the stateliest in form. In saying this we do not forget Mr. Thwaites's 'Jesuit Relations' and the Putnam editions of the American Fathers. To these other tasks Mr. Stevens's attempt must have proved an inspiration.

An admirable portrait of Mr. Stevens; a preface, from which has been frankly drawn some of the substance of the present notice; a numerical arrangement of all the documents, with added dates; a chronological arrangement of the documents; an alphabetical arrangement of writers, receivers, or indicative words; and finally a subject-matter index, without which the other twenty-four volumes would be "without form and void"—such is the composition of the last volume, and in this nearly perfect achievement the end has crowned the work, and Mr. Stevens's long and patient task is happily done.

The Attitude of the Greek Tragedians towards Art.—Greek Tragedy in the Light of Vase Painting. By John H. Huddilston. The Macmillan Co.

In these two recent works Dr. Huddilston has hit on a rather new vein, which has not been fully explored even by German scholarship. The former monograph has Euripides for its centre, and brings out in a very interesting manner the sympathetic feeling of this poet for the art of his period, and his technical acquaintance with its details. Art was one of the many sides on which he touched the life of his generation and represented its moods and general drift. If he had not actually, according to the tradition, the training of a painter, he was at any rate a connoisseur, with an eye for the picturesque and a splendid gift for pictorial description. He was his own most brilliant scene-painter. He indulged his gift, doubtless, to the delight of his audiences. It was an innovation; it was not dramatic action, but it brought out his strong point, it was justified partly by the tradition of the Messenger's speech, partly by success. The tableaux he painted so minutely linger on the memory, and impressed with their vividness the art of the following centuries.

Sophocles had not the same taste or the same gift; if he had, he preferred not to indulge it. His extant plays contain hardly an allusion to the rich developments of art that were going on about him; they reveal no interest in the subject. This may have arisen simply from a deliberate avoidance of such matters; his dramatic instinct may have regarded them as alien and superfluous. At any rate, his silence or indifference in this direction is remarkable; he stands, in fact, quite alone in this attitude, since Aeschylus is distinctly fond of the spectacular, and shows a strong interest in the art of his period. He describes in detail, for example, the devices borne by the Chieftains in the "Seven against Thebes," and these devices are more or less realized in contemporary art. We note, by the way, in Dr. Huddilston's catalogue of these on page 25, Eteocles for Eteoclos (as he would write it). The silence of Sophocles as to matters of art is so marked that our author proposes a novel and ingenious test of the much disputed authorship of the "Rhesus." The decorations of the armor of Rhesus are quite in the Euripidean style; the Thracian cloak in which he passed the night was first becoming known to the Greeks in the fifth century, and was a fashion that probably disappeared soon after. Such allusions are absolutely foreign to all we know of Sophocles; they would entirely fit a youthful Euripides, still under the influence of Aeschylus. It is well known, since the French excavations, that we have utterly lost the great temple of Apollo at Delphi, its statuary, its pediments, and metopes; yet the chorus in the opening of the "Ion" are so minute in their description of its beauties that Dr. Huddilston attempts a restoration of three metopes from their admiring exclamations.

So much for Euripides, the connoisseur; his influence on art was as enduring as it was extraordinary. It began almost in his lifetime, and it is felt in the Roman sarcophagi and the Pompeian wall-paintings. It inspired the passion and violence of the Farnese Bull, and struck the note of the sculpture of the Pergamene school. So far as the vases are concerned, they are another testimony of his lasting and widespread popularity. His plays were really made household words by wandering troops of actors; they became familiar from Asia Minor to Italy. Out of hundreds of Etruscan urns two-thirds deal with Euripidean scenes. The cheap Megarian bowls are a popular illustration of the mania for Euripides. The artist generally works with independence, and is inspired rather than controlled by the original scene. Occasionally, in some detail, he can be detected following with fidelity the letter of the poet. The vase then becomes a precious, because nearly contemporary, commentary on the text.

Aeschylus is the next favorite with the artists, particularly his famous picture of the Sleeping Furies in the Delphic temple, and his recognition scene at the tomb of Agamemnon. Curiously enough, he is not in vogue with the Attic potters; every one of the scenes here published derives from vases of Lower Italy, and this means that certain of his plays continued to be admired by those ardent theatre-goers of Apulia and Campania, who preferred a good play to fighting or transacting serious business with Roman ambassadors.

Not a single vase-painting can be positively assigned to any extant play of Sophocles. Of course, nine-tenths of his plays are lost, and the monuments are very incomplete. However, the fact is singular, and Dr. Huddilston explains it by saying that "Sophocles was not a creative power." He really means that Sophocles, so far as we know, did not invent many novel and strikingly picturesque scenes which lend themselves to the painter. He did make especially his own the psychological development of character and the presentation of its working; and this power is eminently creative. But you can't paint the workings of the mind of a Philoctetes.

Dr. Huddilston very properly objects to the present entire dissociation of archæology from editions of the tragedians. He forgets, perhaps, Dr. Sandys's learned and beautiful edition of the "Bacchæ," and the delight and illumination which its illustrations afford; in an amateurish way, the recent French translation of the "Lysistrata," with colored engravings by Notor, shows how fascinating may be made the association of the text with the monuments. Dr. Huddilston is himself well equipped for the task which he suggests. His acquaintance with the monuments is wide and scientific, his judgment and reasoning in matters of art are sound, his selections most instructive. He may perhaps give us a specimen of some play or plays in which the illustrations shall include a judicious selection from all the sources—sarcophagi and paintings, as well as the vases. If he does, may we suggest that he prepare himself, and clear his style of German idioms by taking a good bath in "some well of English undefiled"? He has lately read so much German that he has temporarily forgotten how to write his native tongue. "Agave *will* impale" for wishes to impale; "one should not think," "one is led up," as if the English use of *one* coincided entirely with that of the German *mann;* and again, the "affair transpires on the seashore," "equally much," "neither of his compilers concerned themselves." These are a few of scores of slips which we have marked, and which we set down not in malice, but in hopes of neater workmanship from an able and industrious scholar.

Sir Hudson Lowe and Napoleon. By R. C. Seaton. London: David Nutt. 1898.

Of the thirty or forty books relating to Napoleon's second captivity, O'Meara's 'Voice from St. Helena' is quite the most celebrated, and during Sir Hudson Lowe's lifetime it did his character much harm. Napoleon, in his last interview with Lowe, called him a *sbirro Siciliano,* and the idea that the Governor of the island had acted towards the ex-Emperor like a thief-taker or a jailer, stood in the path of his future promotion. After his return to England in the autumn of 1821, the only appointments which came his way were the government of Antigua and the command of the forces in Ceylon—this, too, in spite of the cordial reception given him by the King at the first levee he attended.

O'Meara's attack, unanswered as it remained, had its intended effect, and, ever since, the burden of proof has rested with those who take Lowe's part. He died in comparative poverty, though without having suffered depression of spirits either from the reports spread about him or from the neglect with which successive ministries treated his claims. Nine years later the evidence in his defence was brought together by an able lawyer, William Forsyth, and published in three volumes as the 'History of the Captivity of Napoleon at St. Helena.' If we may liken this work to a full pleading, Mr. Seaton's sketch is a brief in the case. Forsyth's apology is half forgotten because of its length. "Lowe's character is there completely vindicated, it is true, but it is also completely buried." Mr. Seaton aims at making Forsyth's results effective, and especially at destroying whatever influence may have been produced by the last reprint of O'Meara, now called 'Napoleon at St. Helena.'

Considering the state of English feeling towards Napoleon, it was a proof of the highest confidence in Lowe that he should be given charge of the dreaded captive. The *Times* of July 25, 1815, expressed the hope

that the first procedure on the *Bellerophon's* arrival would be "a special commission, or the appointment of a court-martial to try Bonaparte for the murder of Capt. Wright." However far Lord Holland and his supporters might go in censure of the Government for their decree of perpetual exile, the popular sentiment favored harsher treatment still. To keep a single prisoner on an island under the Southern Cross may now seem to have been a simple matter for a Power of England's naval strength; but there was always an off chance of escape, and on the choice of a proper guardian European peace might depend. Lowe was probably selected because, through a long term of service, he had shown himself a vigilant officer. Sir John Moore once said to him: "Lowe, when you're at the outposts I always feel sure of a good night's rest." The salary of £12,000 which went with his position is a gauge of its importance.

There can be no doubt that Napoleon at St. Helena posed as a martyr with a view to securing his release. Like all Frenchmen of that period, he found difficulty in grasping the fact that the English Opposition was a constitutional rather than a revolutionary party. He sought to touch public sympathy by the sight of his woes, to the end, as Las Cases says in one of the suppressed passages of his journal, "that the Opposition in England might not fail to attack the ministry on the violence of their conduct towards us." Lowe had to meet what Count Montholon called, in conversation with Col. Jackson, "la politique de Longwood," namely, complaints, protests, and abuse. Besides these annoyances from the Napoleonic household, he had two other difficulties—the first, his own peculiarity of manner; the second, his instructions from the home authorities. Among the Governor's standing orders were several which proved sources of constant friction; for instance, that the title "Gen. Bonaparte" should always be used, and that an orderly should see him twice a day to reduce the chances of his escape.

The peculiarity of Lowe's manner which we have mentioned can best be described in his son's words. "In speaking, he was frequently embarrassed for words, and in society alternated very much between extreme taciturnity and vehement animation of discourse. Even the greatest excitement, however, scarcely made his diction fluent." A cheerful, thick-skinned person might have suited the place better in some respects, but Lowe's watchfulness was what the Government wanted. So far from appearing brutal to his official superiors, the hint reached him from London that he was over-lenient. He raised the grant for Napoleon's household expenses from £8,000 to £12,000, and if, after the experience of five interviews, he refused to hold any further personal communication with his captive, he often "used his power to mitigate harshness and not to aggravate it." O'Meara's private grudge and foolish inconsistencies are a fair prey for Mr. Seaton, and his *seriatim* answers to the charges which have been brought against Lowe constitute a strong case. We quote his concluding sentence: "It is to the honor of England that the truth of this miserable affair should be known, and the more widely it is known the more will it become recognized that Englishmen have no cause to be ashamed of the conduct of Sir Hudson Lowe at St. Helena." But is not a portion of the load which falls from Lowe's shoulders transferred to those of his superiors?

The Development of the Frog's Egg: An Introduction to Experimental Embryology. By Thomas Hunt Morgan, Ph.D. 8vo, pp. xi, 192; 51 figs. Macmillan.

This work exemplifies the rapid and substantial progress of a branch of cytology which would probably be called "oölogy" but for the prior and general application of that word to the consideration of the comparatively unessential calcareous protecting envelope of certain eggs. The modernity of this "science of the egg" may be inferred from the fact that, of the 223 publications cited, 126 have appeared in or since 1889, when, by the way, the author published the first of his own five contributions. Among the American titles might well have been included Minot's 'Human Embryology,' notwithstanding that its contents for the most part bear only indirectly upon the subject of the present volume. Dr. Morgan has

"attempted to give a continuous account of the development, as far as that is possible, from the time when the egg is forming to the moment when the young tadpole issues from the jelly-membranes. Especial weight has been laid on the results of experimental work, in the belief that the evidence from this source is the most instructive for an interpretation of the development. The evidence from the study of the normal development has, however, not been neglected."

Characteristic chapter-titles are The Formation of the Sex-cells; Polar Bodies and Fertilization; Experiments in Cross-fertilization; Cleavage; The Effect of Injuring one of the first two Blastomeres; Interpretations of the Experiments, and Conclusions. The remarkable—indeed, until recently, well-nigh incredible—experiments of Pflüger, Born, Roux, and others are described, compared, and discussed with impartiality, and the author's own experiments, observations, and conclusions are stated with becoming modesty. Of the fifty-one figures nineteen are original.

An abstract of the contents would be impracticable without the employment of unfamiliar words, some of which are to be found in only the most recent dictionaries. The following passages (from pp. 131 and 136 respectively) may serve to indicate the nature of the facts and problems involved:

"We have seen that one of the first two blastomeres of the frog's egg may develop into a half-embryo, or into a whole embryo of half-size, according to the conditions of the experiment. So long as the first two blastomeres remain in contact without any disturbance of the cell-contents, each blastomere develops its half of the body. On the other hand, if the protoplasm is disturbed by reversing the position of the egg after the first cleavage, there generally results a whole embryo from each blastomere."

"Whitman has stated his conviction that it is erroneous to think of the embryo as only the sum-total of cells interacting upon one another, but that the embryo itself is to be thought of as a whole, which regulates its parts regardless of cell-boundaries. According to this view, each portion of the embryo has its fate sealed, not because the given portion forms a member of the community of cells, but because the whole directs the fate of each special part. Driesch has pointed out that the egg seems to act like an intelligent being. If so, are the causes of differentiation and of regeneration the same in kind as physico-chemical causes, or do they belong to the category of intelligent acts, and can these latter be accounted for by the *known* principles of chemistry and physics? The plain answer is, We do not know."

As a literal "introduction," *i. e.*, as a manual for beginners and for laboratory students, this work might be improved by greater clearness in some passages, and by fuller description of certain figures. Most readers will be rather annoyed than aided by the occurrence of italicized words and phrases upon nearly every page, particularly when, as on pp. 61-62, there is an apparent lack of discrimination. The general employment of technical terms like *heterotypic*, *homœotypic*, and *metakinetic* permits considerable condensation; but whether this commendable feature was definitely aimed at might well be questioned in view of the verbal superfluity presented by p. 11: the word *spermatozoon* is, of course, required in the first line of the page and at the beginning of the explanation of the figure, but its seven repetitions might have been omitted without risk of misapprehension. Even if we concede the possibility of a deliberate choice of *pneumogastric* over *vagus*, and of *medullary* over *neural*, we fail to find excuse for the indiscriminate employment of the alternative words, as, *e. g.*, on pp. 148 and 159-164. Only two typographic errors have we noted, both in the index, viz., *retma* for retina, and *Cuvierians* for Cuvierian. The index is unpardonably incomplete. Surely, too, the references in the index should include the pages where words are first mentioned, and especially where they are defined; yet *polyspermy*, which occurs on pp. 24 and 29, is referred only to p. 30, and *yolk-plug* only to p. 140, although defined on p. 53.

Yet the above-enumerated shortcomings as to method and terminology might almost be condoned in view of the conspicuous absence of *Anlage*. Any occasion for its original importation has ceased since the revival of Aristotle's *proton*, an international word readily understood by all educated persons and naturally pronounced in but one way. Dr. Morgan is evidently free from the apparent tendency of some American biologists to endow the outlandish German vernacle with a significance akin to that of the foreign labels upon their trunks.

Applied Mechanics. By John Perry. Van Nostrand. 1898. Pp. 678.

Prof. Perry is a well-known English physicist and engineer. We reviewed, some time ago, his somewhat eccentric 'Calculus for Engineers,' a notable book in its way. The present text-book resembles that in mixing up together heterogeneous considerations linked only by the facts to which they are commonly applied, and in utterly disregarding the logical development of the science. But, unlike that, this book is, from a pedagogical point of view, unquestionably an important publication, destined to wide employment even in this country, to which it is not particularly adapted. A skilful teacher will certainly be able to make it serviceable in imparting to the ordinary student of engineering as much of that branch of his art of which it treats as that student is likely to need. Its unsystematic arrangement, far from being keenly felt, will recommend it to teacher and pupil. It will only be after the student has studied it for two years, and has put it upon his shelves as a work of reference whose value as such is enhanced by his intimate acquaintance with it, that the inconveniences of it will begin to vex him. A right method in teaching will undoubtedly bring theory and its application into the closest possible juxtaposition; but it would be better that the professor's lectures should zigzag through a logically ordered treatise

than that the text-book itself should be fragmentary and deranged.

Prof. Perry's attitude toward mathematical analysis may be characterized as one of reaction and resentment against needless complications. It is surprising, therefore, to find the author devoting so much as twenty pages to the mathematical theory of elasticity. Really to understand that theory, the student would have to double the time he devotes to mechanics in his preparation for the exercise of his profession; and, after all, he would not be able to build any ordinary structure at all the better for this extra study. Indeed, from the engineer's point of view, this theory is a typical example of just the sort of mathematical analysis that he ought to seek to avoid. From certain other points of view—as, for example, in reference to the constitution of matter—the theory is simply invaluable. But, for the engineer, mathematics, as Prof. Perry well observes, can serve only as a guide. The conditions of its problems are merely hypothetical; so that its solutions must, in any case, be tested experimentally. The theory of elasticity, applied to the ordinary problems of the engineer, only leads, by a devious and difficult path, to results far from demonstrative and of no great moment. As long as there are mathematicians who, for their own purposes, choose to work such problems out, the engineer may as well examine their conclusions to see what they can teach him; but he will not find in them any suggestions (and mathematics supplies to him nothing but suggestions) which he might not have reached more economically than through a deep study of the theory of elasticity. Prof. Perry remarks (p. 586): "There seems to be as much absence of common sense now in academic persons as there was in the time of Erasmus." This, if not polite, is a refreshingly frank expression of the engineer's side of the case. It comes to this, that "academic persons" are apt to look at physical phenomena from the point of view of pure science, very much to the ultimate advantage of civilization; while the engineer is compelled to look at them in their relation to a narrow class of practical applications.

Comparing this treatise with the classical work bearing the same title, by Rankine, who was at once an "academic person" and a great engineer, we are struck with the measureless inferiority of the later work from an intellectual point of view. But the blame does not rest on the shoulders of this particular writer. The historic season has changed since Rankine wrote, in 1858; we see it on every hand. The truth is that an age of intellect is a blossoming in its nature almost ephemeral. Nearly four hundred years have now fled since the 'De Revolutionibus' was printed, and we are being hurried into a century when feeble minds will be able to do all that will be wanted of intellectual labor. The bloom of pure intellect could not last longer. Henceforth must come a season of the ripening of the fruit. Such, at least, seems to be the prognostication that the aspects justify for the exact sciences.

An inevitable consequence of its effort to render all rough places smooth, is that this book passes unnoticed the most difficult problems in the mechanics of engineering—those which arise in reference to great suspension-bridges, ship-building, and aerial navigation. It may be feared that, however successful the method of instruction it embodies may be in turning out good ordinary engineers, it may prove less favorable towards the continuance of the body of men who make great advances in their art. A relaxation in the tension of pure intellect, of which this publication is one of a hundred symptoms, can hardly fail to be speedily followed by a falling off even in those very practical applications which are beginning to be popularly regarded as the synonym of science.

Choses et Gens d'Amérique. Par Th. Bentzon. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer. 1898.

Madame Blanc in this volume has added something to the obligations already due her from American writers, and again may claim from them the tribute "Bene meruit de re publica nostra." Mme. Blanc has for a good while held her graceful pen and her position as an esteemed contributor to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* largely in the service of American literature, by critical articles so kind in tone that at times they seem to savor of the "geniality" of an earlier day; while by her excellent translations she has brought to the knowledge of French readers many of our younger and more modern writers of prose and verse. Her visits to America, too, have been well-timed and happy. We found our guest charming, and she found in us something to respect as well as to like. Her present volume is a collection of clever and interesting magazine articles bearing for the most part upon social topics. The first of these contains some account of the late Mr. Edward Bellamy's theories as set forth in his 'Equality' and in his other writings. Of these the author takes what we suppose may be called the sensible view, holding them to be somewhat light and inconclusive. In sharp contrast with this is the next chapter, which relates minutely and in a very entertaining way the story of a visit to the Shaker colony at Alfred, Me. Many points of resemblance between the life of the Shakers and that of Catholic religious communities are more obvious to Mme. Blanc than they perhaps might be to an ordinary Protestant observer. She finds the underlying ascetic spirit, the idea of vocation, religious detachment from the world and devotion to the community, to be essentially the same in each. The differences seem to be for the most part merely ceremonial and theological. This chapter is delightful reading. So, too, is the next, even if one hesitates a little at the qualification, "An American Loti," as applied to Mr. Charles Warren Stoddard. But Mme. Blanc is very sympathetic, and seems to take as sincere a delight in Mr. Stoddard's descriptions as he himself takes in the things he describes. Besides, she is careful to point out that the savor which some find unpleasant in Loti's work is entirely absent from Mr. Stoddard's pages. Another article, "Un Musicien Poète," written with equal kindness but with perhaps less sound judgment, sings the praises and predicts the future glories of the late Mr. Sidney Lanier. The last two chapters are concerned with life in the Southwest as seen in the stories of Octave Thanet, and with family life in America. This last is an article which appeared first in English in the *Forum* for March, 1896, and which may be taken as being already known to readers.

Mme. Blanc has, in fine, given us a very clever and agreeable book, and one which may be commended with confidence to the summer reader. A few slips, mostly of slight importance, some probably misprints, were doubtless inevitable and are easily pardoned.

The American Metropolis. By Frank Moss. In three volumes. P. F. Collier.

A profusely illustrated book about New York in three volumes is likely to attract a good deal of attention. Such a publication is that, named above, by the late President of the Board of Police. It is hardly pure history or pure literature (the author calls it an "historigraph"), but is rather to be described as a farrago of information about the city, some of it drawn from histories, some from contemporary sources, and some from the author's own extensive experience. Of style there is much less than none. The first illustration is naturally a portrait of the author, the second that of Dr. Parkhurst, who writes the introduction, and assures us that the book is "the outcome of a revival of the civic spirit, as that revival has come to its experience and expression in the thoughts and activities of one particular man." The meaning of this rather dark saying is that the improvement of the city depends on our "loving it more," and "before we can love it more we need to know it more." Mr. Moss, therefore, full of civic spirit, takes us by the hand, and teaches us to know New York that we may love New York. Echoing this, the author, in his preface, says that "we are in the midst of a revival of civic pride," but these words were evidently written before the recent change in the government, and so, probably, were Dr. Parkhurst's remarks. It would be wrong to allow the reader to suppose that either of them meant that the more we knew of Tammanyized New York, the better we should love it.

We may go further and say that we doubt very much how far the increased knowledge disseminated in these pages is calculated to inspire love. The historical past of New York is not very thrilling, and the author's account of the city as it is is more calculated to produce perplexity than affection. We have found most encouragement to our civic pride in reading some of the pages devoted to the changes which have taken place in the metropolitan world as it appears to the police. Mr. Moss recalls the fact that, within the memory of those now on the stage, New York was an "awfully dangerous place." Thirty or forty years ago, he says, crime stalked through the streets, and well-known criminals plied their trade free from interference unless they were actually caught in the act. "Highway robberies were committed in daylight in the middle of Broadway, which was a regular promenade for gamblers, swindlers, and thieves." Certainly the last state of Broadway is better than this. As for the Bowery, an old thief said to the author recently: "The Bowery is stale, the town is dead. I could stand on the Bowery for hours and not see two of my friends. . . . They are not doing anything in town." The account given of "Chinatown" is also noticeable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bayles, G. J. Civil Church Law. New York: James Pott & Co.
Brush, Dr. E. F. Human and Bovine Tuberculosis. Wynkoop, Hallenbeck, Crawford Co.
Coutts, F. B. M. The Revelation of St. Love the Divine. John Lane. $1.25.
Davey, Richard. Cuba, Past and Present. Scribners. $3.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 18, 1898.

The Week.

The Philippine question was dodged, not settled, in the terms of peace submitted to Spain, but somebody in authority has got to make up his mind about it before long. Instructions will have to be given to our peace commissioners. It is no wonder, then, that the President is reported to be carefully, even anxiously, studying the expressions of public opinion on this subject. The great trouble is that we are, in a sense, already committed too far to withdraw easily. It seemed a very natural thing, really a war measure pure and simple, to order Dewey to stay in Manila Bay, and to send a military expedition to capture the city of Manila (which fell into our hands on Saturday); but in that decision, made in the first weeks of the war, lay the germ of our present difficulties. It is the first step that costs in this imperialistic rake's progress, as John Morley has called it, and it is worth while to quote his description of the other steps. He was speaking of England and Chitral, of course, but his words have an evident application, *mutatis mutandis*, to our own awkward position as respects the Philippines:

"First, you push on into territories where you have no business to be, and, in our case, where you had promised you would not go; secondly, your intrusion provokes resentment, and in these wild countries resentment means resistance; thirdly, you instantly cry out that the people are rebellious and that their act is rebellion—this in spite of your own assurance that you have no intention of setting up a permanent sovereignty over them; fourthly, you send a force to stamp out the rebellion; and fifthly, having spread bloodshed, confusion, and anarchy, you declare, with hands uplifted to the heavens, that moral reasons force you to stay, for if you were to leave, this territory would be left in a condition which no civilized Power could contemplate with equanimity or with composure. These are the five stages of the Forward Rake's Progress."

The inherent and apparently insurmountable difficulties in the way of a compromise about the Philippines are clearly perceived in Madrid if not in Washington. Spanish newspapers are pointing out the intolerable situation which would at once arise if the United States took simply the island of Luzon or a part of it. On the other side of any line of demarcation that might be drawn the natives would be in chronic revolt. Differences in administration would arouse jealousies and bickerings which would make the last state of the islands worse than the first. How could one system of taxation, one law of personal rights, or military service, be enforced upon ignorant men on one side of an imaginary line and another on the other? If we take Luzon and keep the door of trade open on it while the Spanish maintain their old monopolistic tariff on the other islands, what constant friction and clashing and upheaval would surely result. Far better, say the Spanish press, for Spain to give up everything and abolish her colonial office entirely, than to cling to fragments of the old colonial empire which it would be impossible to administer satisfactorily. Any suggested compromise either is impossible or will prove unstable. If we content ourselves with a coaling-station, well and good; but any extensive foothold and attempted government on one island or a part of it will mean endless disturbance and mischief, and our ultimately being obliged to take and rule the whole group.

All accounts agree that the maker of the treaty of peace with Spain will be, not the commission, not the President, but the Senate. In other words, the natural and constitutional order has given way to the politician's order. This is not the slander of an enemy, but the admiring comment of a friend, of Mr. McKinley's. It is the Philadelphia *Press*, inspired by its former editor, now a member of the cabinet, which said in its Washington dispatch on Tuesday:

"The President is also following his customary practice of seeking the opinions of United States Senators and statesmen who are giving the territorial policy of the United States their most earnest thought. It is believed that when the peace commission has been appointed, the President will have formulated a policy regarding the disposition of these islands that will meet with the approval of the country, just as his every step and policy with regard to the matter has been almost unanimously endorsed."

That is to say, the natural and constitutional order is completely reversed. Instead of initiative and prompting arising from the commissioners or the President and transmitted to the Senate, it is from the Senate that the whole springs; the Senate gives its orders to the President and he passes them on to his commissioners. No wonder that, under these circumstances, the correspondent quoted should be forced to add, "There seems to be some difficulty in securing satisfactory representation on the commission." Who would go to Paris, ostensibly a negotiator, but really a clerk of the Senate?

Mr. T. Estrada Palma, the agent of Cuba Libre in this city, says, in an interview, that, "It may be only a question of time when the people of Cuba will wish annexation, but at the present time there are many, especially among those who went into the field against the Spaniards, whose aim and ambition is independence. Any policy of the United States which attempted to force annexation before the people are ready for it might cause considerable internal trouble." This sentiment of Mr. Palma will find an answering echo in all parts of the United States. In the confusion of tongues regarding Porto Rico and the Philippines we perceive no demand for the annexation of Cuba, although this island, regarded as a cash possession, is worth more than all the other material objects involved in the war. It is a rich and beautiful country, and can be made as salubrious as any in the world. It is a civilized country, and it lies at our own doors. We have large interests in it, and our trade with it is large and will soon be enormous. Yet we went to war with Spain under a solemn promise not to annex the island, or to do anything with it except to restore peace and leave the inhabitants free and independent. That promise must be carried into effect, and it will be all the more gratifying if we have the coöperation of the Cuban insurgents to that end instead of their hostility. When Gen. Garcia sulked because he was not allowed to occupy Santiago with his forces, and withdrew from our lines and tendered his resignation to Gen. Gomez, we apprehended that we might possibly be compelled to put down the insurgents after expelling the Spaniards; but if Mr. Palma speaks by authority, that danger has passed away.

The promulgation of a new tariff for Cuba by the War Department is to be taken as significant of the future policy of the Administration. The measure is of course a temporary one, but it is not likely that it would have been adopted without the consent of the great protected interests. Assuming that consent, it would appear that a long step towards free trade is about to be taken, for the new tariff practically recognizes the principle of the "open door." The United States and Spain are placed on the same footing as other nations, all discriminating duties being abolished. This will of course tend to reduce the exports from Spain to Cuba by removing the preferential rates enjoyed by these exports, and to increase the exports from the United States by abolishing the exceptionally heavy duties by which they were hindered. In general, the new tariff applies to all imports the lowest duties existing under the Spanish rule, which were those on imports from Spain, but in some particulars even these rates have been reduced. The tax of one dollar on each ton of merchandise either imported or exported, in lieu of other tonnage taxes, is abolished, a much lower scale of port charges being adopted. On provisions the new duties will unquestionably encourage exports from the United States. On wheat flour

the duty will be not much more than a dollar a barrel in our money, a most merciful cheapening of food to the Cubans under the present circumstances. The schedules are full of unreasonable taxes, which must presently be modified, but under the regulations now to prevail Cuban commerce ought at once to revive.

The question of our own tariff on imports from Cuba is necessarily raised by these customs regulations. By the act of our military authorities we have secured much more favorable terms for our exporters than they obtained under the "reciprocity" arrangement that was tried some years ago, while we have granted no corresponding concessions to the Cubans. If we granted favorable rates to Cuban exporters when they were under the rule of Spain, we can certainly not refuse them now, when we have driven out the Spaniards on account of their oppressions. That would be in effect a discrimination against free Cuba as compared with Cuba enslaved.

Congressman Bland was allowed to preside over the Democratic State convention of Missouri last week, but his views were rejected by the platform committee. His conception was that the free coinage of silver should be kept in front and made the leading issue in politics. He did not favor territorial expansion. He was opposed to the present annexation of Cuba or Porto Rico or the Philippines, although he would not close the door to any accessions of territory that might come to us in an honorable way. Gov. Stone took a different view altogether. He favored the immediate annexation of Porto Rico, the independence of Cuba, to be followed by annexation if the inhabitants desire it, and the establishment of coaling-stations in the Philippines. The committee on resolutions coincided with Gov. Stone, and as to the silver question merely reiterated in a general way their adherence to the Chicago platform. A wink is as good as a nod to a blind horse. This action in Missouri will be accepted by Democrats in other parts of the country as evidence that silver is no longer the leading issue in politics. The question may be asked, What is the leading issue? It is easier to ask the question than to answer it. If the Democrats drop silver and go in for territorial expansion and a big navy, the Republicans will accuse them of stealing their thunder. Consequently there will be no issue. It is a significant fact that as the Democrats lose courage in dealing with the money question, the Republicans gain it. The Republican convention of Nebraska on the same day with the Missouri Democratic came out squarely for the present gold standard, thus marking a decided advance since their last previous deliverance.

Wyoming is a very small State, so far as population goes, but it counts for as much in the United States Senate as New York or Pennsylvania, and its attitude on the financial question is therefore of consequence. Although silver mining is of little importance in Wyoming, its people have sympathized with the free-coinage propaganda of their neighbors, and so recently as two years ago the Republican State Convention adopted a resolution that "we favor the free coinage of gold and silver into standard money, as expressed in our former platforms, under such legislation as will guarantee that all our money shall remain on an equality." Now, however, the same party holds another convention, and declares that, "the financial policy of the Republican party having brought prosperity to the entire country, and given us a place among the nations of the earth, and enabled us to conduct successfully a foreign war, we unhesitatingly reaffirm the financial plank of the platform as expressed by the national convention at St. Louis." Such a change of base is highly significant and encouraging.

Mr. Croker won the first round of his struggle with Mr. Hill for the control of the machinery of the Democratic party of this State with comparative ease. The chairman of the State committee discovered, after a brief examination of the situation, that few members of the committee were venturesome enough to antagonize Mr. Croker's personal wishes. The reasons are obvious. Mr. Croker has behind him the enormous patronage of the city of New York, and his rivals in the contest for leadership have no patronage whatever. It has been thought by some observers that Mr. Hill would develop superior strength in the committee because he represents the American sentiment of the party as opposed to the foreign sentiment which dominates Tammany Hall; but sentiment of all kinds gives way in the presence of patronage. No man can hope for a nomination for any office, Governor, Senator, Judge, or member of the Legislature, against Croker's personal wishes. His patronage makes him supreme. Senator Murphy does not venture to antagonize him, for he knows he cannot be reelected to the Senate without the aid of the Tammany members of the Legislature. Boss McLaughlin of Brooklyn invariably falls in line when Croker needs him, for a slice of patronage always quiets his doubts upon any line of party policy. If the Tammany and Brooklyn contingents of the State committee are not sufficient to give Croker control, he has no difficulty in picking up what supporters he needs in Buffalo and other cities in which the American sentiment cuts no figure in the party management.

The complications which have arisen in the attempted sale of nearly $13,000,000 of its bonds by the city of New York are discreditable, but are unfortunately what may be expected under such rulers as the city now has. For a long time the Corporation Counsel was busily employed in rendering opinions to the effect in the first place that no bonds could be legally issued, and in the second place that some bonds might be legal, but just how many no one could tell. Finally it was decided to ask for bids for bonds to the amount of between $12,000,000 and $13,000,000, and the result is what might have been expected. The city having disparaged its own credit by questioning the legality of its securities, some of the bankers very naturally made their bids conditional on the establishment of this legality. Naturally, also, these conditional bids were the highest, and very naturally the other bidders, who had made no conditions, claimed that conditional bids were not admissible. The Comptroller has awarded the bonds to an unconditional bidder, with the certainty of a resort to legal proceedings. The whole affair is characteristic of the kind of municipal government that our party organization gives us.

Russia is not saying as much as Germany and France and England about "expansion," but she is quietly doing the expanding. And her expansion is of the irresistible kind, because it is not oversea, but contiguous and continental. Behind it is the push not merely of a great and youthful people, conscious of a mighty future, but that of an astonishing industrial development. Russia's opening of the trans-Caucasus regions and of Siberia is comparable to nothing but the conquest of our own Northwest, and there is the striking difference, as Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu pointed out, that this work of colonization and civilization has been done by Russians unaided. Not by foreign immigrants but by the activity and enterprise of natives, have the railways been thrown forward and the farms opened and the mines exploited. And with it all has gone a vast enlargement of manufacturing to supply the new markets thus created. The extraordinary advance of Russia in shipbuilding is set forth by Col. Sir G. S. Clarke in his recent book on 'Russia's Sea Power.' Twenty-five years ago foreign assistance had to be freely sought by the Russian navy. Now all her sea-going battle-ships are native-built. In gun construction the Russian works on the Neva are up to the best modern standards. In this rapid growth of power to construct a modern fleet, Russia has, says Col. Clarke, "accomplished a task which might have been deemed impossible." Expanding thus along natural lines, and with every advantage in position and aptitude and purpose long cherished, it is obviously out of the question for England to check

the steady advance of Russia in North China.

The situation in which England finds herself in the Chinese controversy is very clearly described by a writer in the *Contemporary Review* for August. The cardinal fact of the whole situation in the Far East is, that if the programme that England has laid down is to be carried out and not abandoned with much humiliation, she stands committed to an immense future empire in China. As Lord Salisbury has said, the English Government does not ask for cessions of Chinese territory or seek to engage in commercial ventures. But the English Government will support its subjects when they engage in these speculations, and it is in precisely this way that the dominion of England has been enlarged: first the English trader, and then, when the natives of the countries which he penetrated turned on him, the English soldier. This has been the history of the British empire in India, and this will have to be the history of the British empire in China, if the policy which has been announced is to be carried out. The "understanding" with the Chinese amounts in effect to a British protectorate of the great Yangtse valley, comprising nearly three-sevenths of China proper, and supporting a population estimated to number 185,000,000. It is conceivable that if the Chinese Government were capable of efficient action, it might accept the protection of England, and in that event a successful resistance might be made to the aggressions of other Powers. But the Chinese Government is thoroughly rotten, the Mantchu dynasty effete, and the indications are that the English protectorate is not desired. In India, after the French were driven out, England had a free hand, and has had to meet only internal opposition. In China the case is very different. To maintain a Chinese empire is going to be much more of a task than to maintain an Indian empire, and those who have England's prosperity most at heart may well tremble at the task which the Jingoes are laying out for her.

The status of laborers in countries subject to British rule is by no means satisfactory. There are many "protected" states where slavery exists, the British authorities regarding it as a "domestic institution" with which they cannot interfere, just as the Government of the United States formerly regarded it in the States of the South. The Mohammedan religion recognizes slavery, and in India in states nominally independent, but under British protection, slavery remains, although the slave trade has been abolished. The complaints of the anti-slavery societies in England were so loud that slavery was abolished as a "legal status" about a year ago in the islands of Pemba and Zanzibar, but a similar course has not been followed in the mainland, where Lord Salisbury says the conditions "call less urgently for relief." Sir Arthur Hardinge, who represents the Foreign Office at Zanzibar, furnishes many familiar arguments to prove that emancipation is not a blessing to the slaves, but, as the London *Daily News* remarks, that is irrelevant. There is only one safe course for the British Government to pursue: an absolute and unalterable refusal to recognize the lawfulness of slavery for any purpose or in any shape. "It is the path of safety because it is the path of honor." Personal liberty is the primary test of civilized rule. As to the argument that barbarous people are better off as slaves than as freemen, the *News* effectively replies to it with the story of the English traveller who cross-examined a fugitive from the Southern States during the American war. Was his master cruel to him? Had he been beaten, starved, or otherwise ill-used? No, he had not. Then why had he run away? "Well," said the man of color, "I guess you'll find the place still vacant if you care to apply."

The appointment of Mr. Curzon as Viceroy of India must be regarded as satisfactory by the Jingoes. It can hardly be said that Mr. Curzon has attained distinction as a diplomat. He is a comparatively young man, and he has not displayed the qualities which contribute to diplomatic success in any marked degree. It may be urged that the duties of the Viceroy of India are administrative, but the position is essentially one that requires diplomacy of the highest order. The relations of the Indian Government with the home Government are far from simple, and those with the numberless states and peoples within and without the Indian empire are excessively complicated. The Jingoes, however, do not want diplomacy, but aggressive action, and Mr. Curzon suits them because he is known to favor the "forward" policy in dealing with the frontier tribes. His books on Central Asia have made him an authority on the conditions which prevail there, and it is reasonable to assume that when he takes the reins of government in India, the policy of chastising the hill tribes into submission will be continued. At least, we may expect that there will be no withdrawal of the British forces from regions which they have occupied, and the burden of military expenditure is likely to be increased at a time when it is very desirable that it should be lessened.

In this connection it is worth while to call attention to a remarkable speech recently made at Simla by Mr. Thorburn, Financial Commissioner of the Punjab, at a meeting at which the Viceroy was present. Mr. Thorburn began by saying that he had for years watched with foreboding the progressive development in the policy of expansion along the northwest frontier, which culminated in the outbreaks last year. In putting down these disturbances 2,000 lives were lost, and the bill to be paid by "pauper India" was about two and a half millions sterling. Life, said Mr. Thorburn, was cheap in India, but money, especially good money, was always dear. The constant outpouring of treasure on never-ending frontier wars meant the prolonged starvation of the civil administrations. Every war of this kind involved a wholesale impressment of men and animals in the Punjab, carried on without system or discrimination, and causing great suffering to the unfortunate population. In the recent campaign 25,000 men and 100,000 animals were impressed. Mr. Thorburn denied that the Pathans had revolted. There could be no revolt where there was no subjection, and he contended that the tribesmen were almost as free now as in the days of Alexander. The gist of Mr. Thorburn's speech was that the policy of expansion was intolerable, because there could be no end to it, and disastrous to India from its costliness. In view of the ravages of plague, pestilence, and famine from which the country is still suffering, and also of the difficulty of settling the question of the monetary standard which is now imminent, the maintenance of the "forward" policy must be regarded as ill-boding.

The value of the rupee of India is now nearly 50 per cent. greater than that of the metal of which it is composed. When the coinage of silver was discontinued in 1893, the rupee was worth 15¼d. So much silver had been lodged in the mint in anticipation of the decree that the price of the rupee followed the price of silver downward to 13d. Then the decline stopped, although silver fell somewhat lower. Next the rupee began to rise very slowly. It is now worth 16d. This was the figure at which the Government agreed to give rupees in exchange for gold. Now we are told by a letter to the London *Times* that the 50 per cent. premium which the rupee bears over the silver bullion contained in it has led to counterfeiting by means of stamping-machinery imported from Germany for the purpose, and also by native silversmiths. The counterfeit coins contain exactly the same amount of silver, and of the same fineness, as the genuine ones. How extensive this counterfeiting may be is not known. If the Government is not able to put a stop to this illicit coinage, it may be forced to take away the legal-tender quality from the rupee. This would be a rather serious step, since the counterfeit pieces would continue to circulate among the poorer and more ignorant classes, who would suffer losses accordingly.

THE TERMS OF PEACE.

Spain has accepted all of our terms of peace, subject to the ratification of the Cortes. Under the Constitution of the country, no part of the national territory can be alienated without such ratification. Similarly, any treaty made with Spain must be subject to the ratification of the Senate of the United States. There can be no doubt that the Cortes will ratify the agreement. There can be no doubt that the Senate will ratify it on our side. Not to do so would be equivalent to starting a new war to gain something over and above the objects which we set out to accomplish.

The terms require Spain to relinquish all claim of sovereignty over or title to the island of Cuba, and to evacuate the island immediately. She is also to cede to the United States Porto Rico and all the other islands under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies. The difference in phraseology indicates the purposes of the Administration. It implies that Cuba is not to be annexed to the United States. She is to be an independent republic, for the present at all events. The experiment of self-government is to be tried, and if it succeeds fairly well, there will be no disposition to make the island part of the United States. Porto Rico may or may not be incorporated with the United States. Spain cedes the island to us, and we can do what we please with it. It is for Congress to decide what disposition shall be made of it, since that body is vested with the power "to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States."

In view of the fact that we can do as we like with this island, Congress may choose to establish a protectorate over it and leave it to some form of self-government. Otherwise we shall be obliged at once to admit the tobacco and other products of the island free of duty, and this may lead to some serious complications. There is no apparent reason why we should not treat Porto Rico as England treats Barbados, Trinidad, and her other West Indian islands, leaving them free to establish their own fiscal system. In that way we shall have the use of any coaling-stations that the island can afford, and we can fortify them by agreement, just as we could have fortified Pearl Harbor in Hawaii, if we had elected to do so, before it was annexed. Another reason for not annexing Porto Rico is that if it becomes an integral part of the United States, it must have in time due representation in our Congress and in our electoral college. The population of Porto Rico is close upon one million inhabitants. That is, it exceeds in numbers any New England State except Massachusetts, and any trans-Missouri State except Kansas, Nebraska, and California. If it were made an integral part of the United States, it would be entitled to two Senators and six or seven Representatives.

The cession of the island of Guam in the Ladrones is a matter of small moment except as it puts upon us a new and distant responsibility. The question of the Philippines is left for future determination. The control, disposition, and government of those islands are referred to commissioners to be named by the United States and Spain. We regret that the President did not settle this question at once. Public opinion is now in a plastic state. It would have ratified whatever decision the executive branch of the Government might have announced. If Mr. McKinley had followed what seems to have been his original inclination—to demand a coaling-station only and then come away—there would have been substantially no opposition to that course. The Senatorial gladiators, Foraker, Chandler, *et al.*, would have been knocked out. But now they will gain their second wind, and may be counted on to make a good deal of trouble. All that can be predicted about the eventual decision is that we are not likely to have a renewal of bloodshed on account of the Philippines. After Spain has yielded all that we went to war about, and more, it would be monstrous to go to fighting again for something that we never contemplated in the beginning.

It is a source of gratification that there is no word in the negotiations about a war indemnity. The American people do not want any money from Spain. Nor can it be assumed that Porto Rico was accepted in lieu of an indemnity. Porto Rico has no cash value to us. The only object of getting Spain out of that island is to remove a possible future occasion of quarrel. If we wanted a coaling-station in those waters, the island of St. Thomas was offered to us for $2,500,000. A war indemnity, if we had been so base as to demand it, would have been at least $200,000,000.

What these changes and acquisitions will bring to us cannot now be predicted. Spain, however, is likely to be a gainer. She will no longer be under the necessity of spending $100,000,000 per year, besides pouring out her best blood in Cuba. A frightful source of corruption will be removed. Her eyes have been opened to the need of internal reforms. If she has the virtue and the wisdom to profit by the lessons of the last few months, the war may prove to be a blessing in disguise.

HAULING DOWN THE FLAG.

The advocates of annexation of the Philippines say that "where the flag has been once raised it must never be hauled down," and they impute a want of patriotism to all who do not parrot the same cry. This is one of the cheap substitutes for sound thinking. It is a catchword based upon Gen. Dix's famous dispatch to New Orleans: "If any one attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot." Yet it has no more value in determining a wise foreign policy than the phrase "dollar of the fathers" has in determining a sound financial policy.

It is put forth as though it were maintainable at all times and places, yet a little historical retrospect will show that such is not the case. The American flag was once erected in the City of Mexico by our military forces, with the sanction of our Government. It had previously waved over the cities of Vera Cruz, Matamoras, and many other Mexican towns. Yet when that war came to an end and the army was withdrawn, the flag was hauled down and brought home. It was not left flying over the halls of the Montezumas. Nobody protested against "lowering" it or "hauling it down." If anybody had raised the cry that is now so common in men's mouths, he would have been considered "a little cracked." Keeping the flag flying in Mexico after we had accomplished all that we went to war for, and more, would have committed us to an act of depredation that nobody contemplated or was prepared to sanction.

A more modern instance is the hauling down of the flag at Hawaii in 1893. The American flag had been hoisted over the Government building in Honolulu in an irregular and illegal manner. President Harrison, although he had not previously authorized the transaction, improved the occasion by proposing to the Senate a treaty of annexation, and, while it was pending, he very properly "disavowed" the raising of the American flag on the Government building there. The flag represents sovereignty. We possessed no sovereignty in Hawaii; therefore our flag was in the wrong place. It should have been hauled down. Mr. Harrison soon afterwards went out of office, and Mr. Cleveland withdrew the treaty of annexation from the Senate. Then the flag-raisers, who had not previously noticed Harrison's words about the flag, spread the report that Mr. Cleveland had hauled it down, and went into mock heroics on that subject and "kept up the racket" for about two years. Finally they found that the public were not very much interested in Hawaii, and they began to cool off. At the end of the Cleveland administration there was no sufficient desire for Hawaiian annexation in the country to warrant a plank in favor of it in the St. Louis platform. The project was absolutely dead, and not even President McKinley was able to revive it until the war with Spain broke out and Admiral Dewey won his victory at Manila. Then the feeling began to prevail that we needed a station midway in the Pacific because we had acquired one on the other side

of the Pacific. That incident, and that only, secured the annexation of Hawaii in an irregular and devious if not unconstitutional manner. The hauling down of the flag from a place where it ought not to have been erected was universally approved.

The flag has been raised over Santiago de Cuba. It is flying there now. Both Congress and the President contemplated this result as one of the consequences of the war, yet they publicly declared that the flag should be hauled down as soon as peace should be restored to Cuba. There was no division of opinion on that subject. Now the cry against hauling down the flag applies just as much to one part of the conquered territory as to another. It ought to apply to Cuba more than to any other, since we went to war on account of Cuba. All our sacrifices, all the blood spilled, all the treasure wasted has been for Cuba. Yet we stand pledged before God and man to leave that country free and independent; which means that our flag shall come down as soon as the people of Cuba form a government for themselves. There is every reason to believe that such is the present aim and intention of President McKinley and his Cabinet. Hauling down the flag will, in this case, be preserving the nation's honor and keeping the nation's faith.

But it is evident that the Philippines rather than Cuba are present in the minds of those who are clamoring about the flag and protesting against the ignominy of hauling it down at any place where it has been once raised. If the flag is to be kept flying only in the place where it has been raised, it will cover only the entrance to the harbor of Manila or at the most Manila itself. This is not what they intend. They mean that we should assume that we have acquired a territory on the other side of the globe as large as New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, and require Spain to yield it to us because we are stronger than she is. This is "the highwayman's plea that might makes right" (to quote the words of the first Republican national platform), veiled under a bogus patriotism borrowed from Gen. Dix's famous dispatch.

The difference between Gen. Dix's dispatch and the pinchbeck imitation of it is that the former represented truth, honor, union, everything that stands for love of country. The latter stands for nothing under heaven but greed of gain. No patriotic feeling, like that which Gen. Dix voiced, can be stirred for a country that never belonged to us. The only nerve of ours that the Philippines can touch is the pocket nerve. It is true, some people honestly think that we ought not to turn the Filipinos over to Spain because Spanish government is bad. These people, however, are not the ones who are worrying themselves about the flag. They see no desecration or humiliation in quietly removing it from a place where it does not properly belong —a place where it was carried in an accidental way because we happened to be engaged in a war about something else. These people would be entirely satisfied with any arrangement that would secure good government to the Philippines. With them the missionary feeling predominates, and they hastily assume that, although we totally fail to provide good government for the Indians at our own doors, and although we put ourselves under the government of Croker in our chief city, and employ Aldridge to superintend our public works, we should, nevertheless, succeed in the benevolent intention of bestowing good government on the Filipinos 10,000 miles away. This idea would be sufficiently absurd in any case, implying that we should prize them so highly as to send them better governors than we choose for ourselves; but it becomes absolutely grotesque in view of the fact that the Filipinos do not want our government at all, and that our land and naval forces stand ready to fire on them at any moment.

The plain and simple rule about the flag is that it ought not to be hauled down from any place where it ought to remain, and that it ought to be hauled down from any place where it ought not to remain. This is the application of common morality and common sense to our dealings with foreigners. Whether they be strong or weak makes no difference, except that we ought to use more circumspection and put more restraint upon ourselves in dealing with the weak.

SETTLING WITH ENGLAND.

When the arbitration treaty with England was rejected last year, the narrowness of the vote showed that the Jingoes had won a barren victory. The significant fact was that the Senate appeared by a nearly two-thirds majority to be in favor of settling all outstanding questions between the two countries peaceably. Indeed, the vote meant chiefly that those Senators who make most of foreign affairs were unwilling, not to make any settlement at all, but to surrender the control of any settlement that might be possible to judges or arbitrators or any outside body. Taking advantage of this fact, the Administration has been able without much difficulty to arrange a joint high commission, which—subject to ratification by the Senate—will shortly consider almost every outstanding Anglo-American question. The scope of its business is Canadian, because these questions are in the main Canadian. Indeed, there is only one first-class outstanding question between the United States and England which is not altogether Canadian. That is the question of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which for several reasons will very likely in the end be settled by being let alone.

The action of this commission will constitute a most important landmark in the history of our relations with England. There is hardly a question committed to it for which the old-fashioned Anglophobe would not have been ready three or four years ago, at least, to threaten war. There is, for instance, the boundary question. A boundary question is full of possibilities in the way of war. "54-40 or fight" was once considered a trumpet-call to arms, and that was over a Canadian boundary question. It is only the other day that we were ready to fight over a boundary dispute in South America, to which we were not a party. Pelagic sealing is one of the questions referred to the commission, and a few years ago the relations between the two countries on this subject were so embittered that a *modus vivendi* had to be devised by their executives lest war should actually break out, whether we wanted it or not. Now we are willing to discuss, not sinking, but buying out the pelagic sealer. Add to these the transportation question, and the alien-labor question, and (last but not least) the reciprocity question, and we have a list of subjects which have in them the promise and potency of a hundred years' war. Why have they got to be settled, when only half-a-dozen years ago little Jingoes were taught by their papas and mammas to pray to God that one or other of them might speedily involve us in carnage and slaughter? Why are we settling such questions peaceably, or at any rate trying to do so?

Whatever the reason is, and of course there is more than one, of one thing there is no doubt, that a more complete *volte-face* has never been seen in foreign affairs than the one which has been made in Washington in our dealings with England since Mr. McKinley became President. How hard it is to remember that there was a panic in Wall Street only the other day over the danger of a war with England, and that one of the bugbears of the Cuban question for a generation or more was the longing of John Bull for the Pearl of the Antilles!

Mugwumps are, of course, amused to see the Jingoes masquerading as peacemakers, and amicably discussing the settlement of the very questions which they have been refusing to settle peaceably for twenty years or so; it would not surprise them if, in the end, Morgan, and Lodge, and all the rest of the old war-hacks, had statues put up to them for having pacified the world and destroyed the hydra of Protection by Reciprocity. Sir Robert Peel did away with the corn laws; why should not Dingley and McKinley establish reciprocity with Canada, while Morgan "opens the door"

in Hawaii? What we chiefly wish to call attention to is the extraordinary rapidity of the political change, coincident with the seemingly irrelevant incident of the war with Spain. Our war with Spain might give the English a wholesome idea of our prowess; but why should our great victory make us any easier on England? Instead of settling with her, we ought to be now browbeating and hectoring her more than ever.

There is only one way to explain the change, and that is by resort to the theory which we have always maintained, that there is between the United States and England an identity of interest and a similarity of institutions, and consequently of thought, and feeling, and aims, that makes them necessary friends, and will draw them nearer and nearer together as time goes on, provided they deal with one another as reasonable human beings do in their private affairs, and not on the principle that what either gains must be at the expense of the other. The case is so plain that the Jingoes' attempt to obscure it has at last made it plain even to them.

For our part, we fully expect the settlement which has now fairly begun to go on until it embraces and disposes of the only outstanding question as to which the two nations can now be fairly said to be at loggerheads. The Nicaragua Canal question is the only one as to which, if we looked at the diplomatic action of the two countries, we should be inclined to say that an irreconcilable difference had been developed. It is true that England has refused absolutely to entertain the idea of a canal which we should be at liberty to close, while we have repeatedly insisted that any canal to be satisfactory to us must be a sort of fortified private toll-gate between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, which we could open or shut as we pleased. But the present Administration is silent on this head, and even the great publicist of the canal, Morgan, only says that we must "own" it—a demand to which no one has ever objected. Fortunately, too, the present war has shown the Jingoes an interoceanic canal on the other side of the world, actually open to the use of both belligerents, like the high sea, and, consequently, we shall no doubt soon hear that this country will guarantee the neutralization of the canal across the Isthmus, and Lodge and Morgan and Foraker and Davis & Co. will kindly explain that they have vindicated our claim to make a canal which shall be part of our "coast line," and at the same time part of the free ocean highway of the world in war and peace, and have thus disposed once more of the silly Mugwumps and bad Americans who spend their time in libelling our great men, and canting and snuffling about peace and commerce.

OPEN MARKETS AND FOREIGN POLICY.

New converts are apt to be zealous without discriminating, and it is not surprising that the adherents of the rising school of "Anglomania" should err in directing their admiration. Like the fashionable people, they have singled out external features for imitation, ignoring the fact that these features may not be typical and may even be abortive. They are impressed with the idea that the wealth of England is derived from her colonies, and that her colonies are held only by means of "sea-power," and they infer that the future wealth of the United States ought to arise from colonial possessions, and that this country should, therefore, develop a powerful navy. This inference, however, is derived from a faulty induction, and the ideas which suggest it are themselves at variance with reality. The true causes of wealth and greatness are moral, and the empire of England has been created not by the speed of her ships or the weight of her guns, but by the character of her statesmen.

As Mr. Lecky has observed, the foundation of national prosperity is laid in pure domestic life, in commercial integrity, in a high standard of moral worth and public spirit. To form a wise judgment of the future of a nation, he continues, it is necessary to observe especially what qualities count for most in public life. "Is character becoming of greater or of less importance? Are the men who obtain the highest posts in the nation men of whom, in private life, and irrespective of party, competent judges speak with genuine respect?" The greatness of England is to be explained by the answer which is given to such inquiries as these, and not by the magnitude of her armaments. The great extension of her commerce is due to the application of the principles of free trade at home and abroad. The removal of the shackles of protective taxes and restrictions gave Englishmen such advantages in industrial development as no hostile tariffs availed to overcome, and in the growth of her foreign commerce her military power had no part. Free trade is not essentially a commercial idea, but a moral idea. It means the abolition of privilege, of favor, and of injustice. It requires peace and peaceful methods, and the military spirit is its deadly foe. The triumph of free trade in England meant the triumph of the idea of right as against the idea of might, and the rule of men of high character rather than the rule of military heroes.

These truths are emphasized by Mr. J. A. Hobson in an article in the August number of the *Contemporary Review*, entitled "Free Trade and Foreign Policy." He points out that the present Government in England is in spirit protectionist. The Tory party has never pretended to accept the principles of free trade, and it has passed a number of acts during the last three years intended for the advantage of special social and commercial classes. Moreover, in its foreign policy it has abandoned the fundamental doctrine of free trade:

> "The working principle it avowedly involves is the supposition that England must be prepared to 'fight for markets,' not only for the retention of our colonial possesssions, but for new markets and for the acquisition of fresh territory, or, at any rate, for the exercise of such influence over weaker foreign nations as shall prevent them from giving to other nations trading advantages denied to us. This is misnamed the policy of 'the open door.' In truth, it is the policy of forcing doors open and forcibly keeping them open. Now, this use of the instruments of force in order to win foreign trade is a violation of the primary principles of free trade."

This position Mr. Hobson establishes as historically accurate by appealing to the authority of Cobden, who maintained that free trade and coercion were incompatible.

> "Do you suppose," said Cobden in 1850, "that I advocated free trade merely because it would give us a little more occupation in this or that pursuit? No; I believed free trade would have the tendency to unite mankind in the bonds of peace, and it was that, more than any pecuniary consideration, which sustained and actuated me, as my friends know, in that struggle. And it is because I want to see free trade, in its noblest and most humane aspect, have full scope in this world, that I wish to absolve myself from all responsibility for the miseries caused by violence and aggression, and too often perpetrated under the plea of benefiting trade. I might say, when I hear those who advocate warlike establishments or large armaments for the purpose of encouraging our trade in distant parts of the world, that I have no sympathy with them. We have nothing to hope from measures of violence in aid of the promotion of commerce with other nations."

Mr. Hobson, however, is not content to rest his case on the authority of Cobden, or even on the authority of moral sanctions. He attacks the assumption that the foreign trade of England must be expanded by increased armaments and extension of the area of empire, and produces facts that dispose of this assumption completely. No nation can keep to itself the benefit of any exclusive market. Every nation in the past has had a "colonial policy" of this kind, which was found invariably unprofitable, and so it would be if other nations attempted to monopolize trade within certain "spheres of influence." The protection policy is adopted by every government except that of England, and the result is that the carrying trade is almost monopolized by English ships.

The maxim that trade follows the flag is shown by Mr. Hobson to have no foundation in fact. As was just observed, all foreign governments are protectionist, and yet the commerce of England with these countries increases more than it does with her colonies. The annual average of the value of imports from foreign countries from 1855 to 1859, as compared with that from British possessions, was as 76.5 to 23.5. With some fluctuations this average has gradually

risen so far as foreign communities are concerned, and in 1895-'97 the figures were as 78.4 to 21.6. The exports of British produce have varied correspondingly, the proportions for the first period being as 68.5 to 31.5, and for the latter as 70.1 to 29.9. In fact, the aggressive policy of recent years has been demonstrably unprofitable. The total value of the colonial trade was in 1875 about £161,000,000, and in 1895 but £171,600,000. But during this time the area of the British Empire has increased enormously. It has grown since 1883 from about 7,000,000 square miles to 11,300,000 square miles, and the number of inhabitants has risen from 305,000,000 to 433,000,000. Nevertheless, in 1883, the value of the trade with British possessions was £189,000,000 and in 1896 it was £183,000,000. In 1848, when Cobden first attacked the policy of increased expenditure on armaments, the total foreign commerce of England was £170,000,000, and it more than tripled its value in the next twenty years. During the last twenty-five years the policy of increasing military expenditure has prevailed, the cost rising from £24,065,000 in 1873 to £41,238,000 in 1897, while the value of trade has increased only from £682,292,000 to £745,422,000. In other words, while trade has increased 15 per cent., the "insurance premium" of military armaments has risen about five times as much. If progress continues at this rate, the burden of supporting the navy will crush the commerce which the navy is fondly believed to support.

THE CHINESE RAILWAY SQUABBLE.

Thursday's dispatches asserting that the Russian Ambassador in China had effectively blocked the English railway concession caused much uneasiness and even excitement in England, the London *Times* leading off with appeals to the Foreign Office to be up and doing at last, or be for ever fallen. What may result in the way of party differences and possibly international difficulties it is impossible to say; but a short account of the matters in controversy and the position of the British Government may at least serve to show what the quarrel is about.

Lord Salisbury, on August 1, and Mr. Curzon, on the day following, made elaborate statements in Parliament, reviewing the whole situation. The Prime Minister gave a succinct narrative of the facts and a somewhat longer explanation of the attitude and intentions of the Government. His speech was in accord with the best English traditions. He denied that it was the duty of her Majesty's Government "to trace out plans for railways in foreign countries, to construct railways in all directions, to find capital and capitalists, and so forth." There was a general impression, he admitted, that this was one of the new obligations of Government, but there was no authority for it; Parliament had never sanctioned that doctrine, and, for his part, until the people through Parliament gave different orders, he proposed to adhere to the old established view that "the duty of the Government in foreign countries is to give protection and, so far as in their power lies, assistance to British subjects who have commercial or other enterprises to conduct, and to take care that they are not treated with injustice or illegality."

What else would the country have the Government do? Was it to drag British capitalists forward by the scruff of the neck and make them invest in Chinese railways whether they wanted to or not? Lord Salisbury said he had not been able to discover the crush of British investors demanding an opening for their funds in China. In fact, he had found British subjects decidedly averse to venturing money there. Several concessions had gone begging for lack of British capital to take them up. The reason was that English business men were exceedingly shrewd, and knew their own advantage better than the Government did. The money they had put into railways in Turkey and in South America they had invested under a guarantee of the local government. They could get no such guarantee from China. In the first place, the Chinese Government did not want the railways. In the second place, if a guarantee was forced out of China, it would be worthless, for there would be no money to pay it with. Under these circumstances, Lord Salisbury said, he did not blame British capitalists for being cautious about going into Chinese rails. If other governments wanted to build railways in China with their own money, let them do it. The British Government had never done such a thing, and was not prepared to do it now. It stood for the open door of trade, and would stand for it; but it had no authority, and did not propose to ask it, to use public funds to build or guarantee a railway in a foreign country.

As for the New-Chang railway extension, for which a British syndicate had a concession nearly completed, the Prime Minister said he was prepared to defend to the utmost every contractual right that English subjects might acquire. Then he informed the Lords of the now famous dispatch to Sir Claude MacDonald in Pekin, asserting the readiness of the British Government to support the Chinese "in resisting any Power which commits an act of aggression on China on account of China having granted permission to make or support any railway or public work to a British subject." This was regarded as very firm and satisfactory, and it is difficult to see what more could have been asked. What Salisbury had in mind was the interference of the Russian Ambassador with this English railway scheme. The latter had insisted that China should not allow the railway to be mortgaged as security—that is, had undertaken to prevent the English syndicate from floating bonds to get money to build the road at all. "Don't give in," was the substance of Salisbury's dispatch, "and we will stand by you in fighting Russia, if necessary." But China has preferred to give in. It does not want to fight Russia, with or without England's aid. M. Pavloff has apparently carried every point, has killed the English railway concession, and probably also got his hands upon the still more important Belgian concession (from Pekin to Hankow); and Russia is in a fair way to fulfil the prophecy gloomily made by Mr. Colquhoun in his recent book, 'China in Transformation':

> "A few years hence European Russia will be linked to the Pacific. Her Siberian and Mantchurian provinces will be joined through Southern Mantchuria with the Liaotung peninsula. The hinterland of that peninsula will be traversed by railways, its great mineral wealth will have entered upon the initial stage of development. The strategic positions—Port Arthur, Talienwan, Kinchau—held by Russia, guarding this hinterland and commanding the inland Chinese waters, and dominating Pekin and northern China absolutely, will have been completed. Corea will be held in a vise, to be dealt with later, Japan being meanwhile placated by an illusory free hand there, and being pushed southward on the 'room-for-two' theory. Germany will develop her hinterland from Kiao-Chau, and, by reason of her position in Europe and in China, will be a hostage to fortune in that place. . . . France, in the south, the junior partner in the Franco-Russian alliance, will continue her political programme, which is to drive in a wedge—not necessarily a territorial one—between Burmah and the Upper Yangtsze. She will also endeavor to hinder our connections, through the western and northern hinterlands of Hong Kong, with Yunnan on the west and the Central Yangtsze on the north. Japan, having come to an arrangement with Russia regarding Corea, has acquired a hold upon the Fukien province, with aspirations to a hinterland for that province, encouraged always by Russia. The next stage will be the Russian domination of Mongolia and, unless arrested by Britain, of Thibet also; and, should this come to pass, nothing can save northwestern China down to the Yangstze basin."

Whether this onward movement of Russia can be checked by Great Britain is more than doubtful; whether it is the interest of Great Britain to try to check it is at least open to question. If the trade of China is enormously developed, as it undoubtedly will be, England will get her share of the increase, though it is idle to hope, as Mr. Balfour confessed the other day, that she will retain her relatively preponderant portion of China's foreign trade. Great Britain now carries 82 per cent. of the total foreign commerce of China, and pays 76 per cent. of the dues and duties collected from it. That proportion will not be kept up. But if Russian trade in China enlarges, English trade in Russia will enlarge. At present, for example, 95 per cent. of the machinery used in Russia is made in England; and if Russia's manufactures are multiplied, her demands will also be multiplied. It is doubtful, however, if

these considerations will have the weight in England which they deserve to have. There is a strong section of the Conservative party most impatient for Government patronage of all sorts of foreign enterprises. If England could make a loan to China, they ask, why not a loan to an English railway in China? If the Government can own the Suez Canal, why not a railway from Burmah to Canton? The unfairness of the analogy is apparent, but many Englishmen are captivated by it. Even the *Times* tells Salisbury that his idea of the function of Government is antiquated. Mr. Chamberlain is the darling of this forward, meddling school. Lord Charles Beresford is its bluff spokesman. He declares that Lord Salisbury's open door is only a brick wall, and makes it clear that he would like to batter it down with 13-inch shells. But what he and Chamberlain and the forward Tories are more likely to do is to butt their heads against this brick wall; and the proverbial dangers of that collision are well known.

FRUITS OF MILITARISM.

The Dreyfus case has had the curious effect of directing the attention of the whole civilized world to the fact that there is no judicial system, outside that of England and the United States, under which a political or military prisoner, or indeed any one charged with a criminal offence, can be sure of a fair trial. So far as we know, there was nothing in the Dreyfus procedure for which a parallel might not be found in criminal trials in Germany, Italy, Spain, or a dozen other countries whose law is more or less Roman in origin. In Russia we may be pretty sure that Zola would not have had even the measure of success that has in Paris attended his efforts to reopen the "chose jugée." In Spain people are believed to be frequently shot without trial, and, among the causes of complaint which led to our making war against that country, by no means the least was the charge of a tyrannical system of criminal procedure (based on such cases as that of Dr. Ruiz) from which American citizens suffered. Gen. Lee, whom we sent to Havana to report on the state of Cuba, seems to have been much impressed with the atrocities of the "incomunicado" system, which leaves a prisoner to languish in solitary confinement, for weeks or months, without any trial at all. This, however, is an almost essential part of the system of all other countries than the United States and England. In them what we call the preliminary examination—with us a mere form, leading to the prisoner's declaring himself innocent and being bailed to await trial—still embodies the primitive struggle to make the prisoner confess, which is represented by torture in China, and by imprisonment and private examination falling little short of torture in countries like Spain and France. These countries cling to their system as we do to ours. The utmost relaxation that we could ever get Spain to make in favor of American citizens in Cuba was the shortening of the *incomunicado* term to a period of nearly three days and nights, a stipulation, according to Gen. Lee, by no means faithfully observed.

It is a consequence of this fundamental difference between Anglo-Saxon countries and the rest of the world that, in our diplomatic intercourse with them, we have to be constantly vigilant lest our citizens suffer from the injustice of their criminal procedure. It is one of the constant heads of diplomatic correspondence and a common subject of negotiation and convention. We are perpetually being called upon to rescue American citizens from the clutches of foreign governments which have perfectly just causes of complaint against them, but whom we suspect of an intention to deny them a "fair trial."

By a fair trial we mean neither necessarily a trial by jury nor one protected by our system of evidence; but simply that a prisoner accused of crime shall be brought to trial speedily, that he shall be allowed to know the charge and the evidence against him, and meet it with his own, and that the court which tries him shall be free to acquit or convict, and shall be governed in its decisions by the evidence, and not by fear or favor. In all Oriental countries, hitherto, we have assumed a fair trial by native tribunals to be impossible, and have insisted on special courts more or less under our control. In Europe, except when Turkey is concerned, we rely on the local tribunals to do justice, but there is always behind this reliance an implied threat that we will not permit any American citizen to be punished by the courts of any foreign country except after a fair determination of his guilt or innocence.

This principle is also a principle of English diplomacy, and it sometimes leads the diplomatic intercourse between England and the United States to rather grotesque consequences, as in the case of Mrs. Maybrick, where there was a perfectly fair trial, but where some Americans thought the charge of the judge harsher than that of an American judge under similar circumstances would have probably been. But even in such cases our right to make representations and inquiry is not denied. The right to be protected is so sacred that it is better that it should be occasionally vindicated with an excess of zeal than not at all.

But when we say that Zola cases and Dreyfus cases are impossible nowhere but in the United States and in England, we have not got to the bottom of the matter. The necessity of a "fair trial" has been recognized in actual practice in Anglo-Saxondom for only two hundred years. Go back to the times of Henry VIII. or James II., and we find that the idea of a fair trial had not attained its present importance. Judicial murders and denial of proper opportunity to defend were every-day occurrences. Why is it that the idea has made such headway with us, while in the rest of the world it has made so much less? Fifty years ago there was an attempt on the Continent to copy the Anglo-Saxon judicial system by the introduction of trial by jury. This showed at least that they were on the scent of a better criminal system. What has happened since to put them back, or at any rate to prevent their continuing their progress?

We can think of no cause but the recrudescence of militarism. Certainly there can be no dispute that whenever the state has been in the past essentially military, the Anglo-Saxon notion of a fair trial has never obtained a foothold, and in England itself the idea was little more than a germ until the military was succeeded by the free modern commercial régime. The Dreyfus case makes it extraordinarily plain exactly how a thoroughly military community must view criticism of a trial which raises a doubt about the procedure adopted by the state. What they have in their minds is the ideal, not of justice, but of discipline. We have in France a perfect specimen of what we might call an attempt at a de-civilized state—that is, a state in which military are taking the place of civil ideals. By making every one a soldier, they have confirmed Frenchmen in the notion, which their whole history had made it difficult for them to throw off, that a trial is not machinery for the ascertainment of truth so much as a mode of discipline, and that consequently an acquittal is defeat for the state, and tends to promote breaches of discipline, even if none in the case itself has been committed.

In the Dreyfus case those who defend the action of the Government fall back in the last resort on the plea that a board of distinguished and honorable officers could not convict an innocent man knowingly. The difficulty with this defence is that it precludes the necessity of judicial inquiry. A trial in which anything but proof is produced as proof is an unfair trial. If Dreyfus were an American citizen, we should see this in a moment. "What!" we should say, "torture an American citizen in a pestilential tropical prison, when all you can tell us about it is that half-a-dozen generals, on evidence which they don't produce and won't produce, and which he has never seen or had an opportunity of answering, say that 'on their honor' he is guilty? And this you have the impudence to call *res adjudicata?* No, no. Reopen the case, or you will hear from us further." The peculiarity of

the Dreyfus case is that it is the very type and exemplar of the unfair trial of subject by despot, which the old militarism fastened on half the world, and the new militarism dangles before our eyes as proof that an age of blood and iron and wrong has again dawned.

THE HILL MEN OF THE PHILIPPINES.

LONDON, August 2, 1898.

Few island groups are peopled by so many diverse races as the Philippines, and seldom within such narrow limits are to be found so many various types as in their chief island, Luzon. Ethnologists appear to be agreed that the aborigines of this group were the Negritos, or Aetas, as they are locally called, who are now found in the mountain regions throughout the archipelago. The highlands of North Luzon are also peopled by a number of races forming independent tribes, the more important of these being the Gaddanes, Itavis, and Igorrotes, subsequent settlers, who were in their turn dispossessed and driven to the highlands by later immigrants of Malay origin, the Tagals and Ilocans. These lowland tribes of Luzon and the related Bisayans of the southern islands form the only section of the Philippine population conquered, domesticated, and converted to Christianity by the Spaniards; and at the present day, after more than three centuries of Spanish domination, one-fifth of the native inhabitants of Luzon and one-fourth of those of the southern islands are practically independent, while in the large island of Mindanao only small portions here and there along the coast are occupied by Spain. It is, indeed, computed that in Luzon alone the "country of the infidels" extends over some four hundred and fifty square miles of territory. Within these limits very little agriculture is carried on, the inhabitants subsisting chiefly by the chase, and wearing little clothing beyond that furnished by the leaves, fibre, and bark of trees.

The Negritos are a dwarfish race with skins almost as dark as African negroes, and curly, matted hair. Their features are of a low and exceedingly unprepossessing type, and their clothing consists merely of a waistcloth for the men and an exceedingly short and scanty petticoat for the women. Report brands the Negritos as a spiritless and cowardly race, never daring to face a white man in fair fight, but ever ready to discharge a quiverful of poisoned arrows at him from behind cover. The husbandry practised by them is of the most primitive description, the chase furnishing their chief food supply. Light-footed and agile, they climb the forest trees like monkeys, outrun the deer, and bring down their quarry with such simple weapons as a bamboo spear, palm-tree bow, and bamboo arrows. The Negritos are said to have been for a considerable period the sole masters of Luzon, exercising seigniorial rights over the earlier immigrants belonging to other races. Their number has, however, greatly decreased, and is said to be now rapidly diminishing.

These diminutive people live in communities of from fifty to sixty families. Like the domesticated natives, they treat the elders of their tribe with great respect and their dead with reverence. What religion they have appears to be a kind of cosmolatry, any natural object which chances to impress their imagination becoming an object of worship. Extremely low in the intellectual scale, the Negritos seem to be hardly capable of civilization; and when, in individual cases, to a certain extent domesticated by European settlers in their vicinity, they can never be trusted to perform the simplest task without supervision. A longing for his old free mountain life may also at any moment take possession of a Negrito, and he suddenly disappears, never again to return. The repeated attempts made by the Roman Catholic missionaries to Christianize these tribes as the first step towards subduing and domesticating them, have been invariably unsuccessful, the cessation of the food suplies which temporarily attracted a few to the mission-stations always being the signal for their return to their own people and their ancestral cult.

The ancient and widespread custom of bride-purchase appears to be common to all the races and tribes of the Philippines, and, among the Negritos, simulated capture also forms part of the marriage ceremony. When the preliminaries have been settled between the parents of the contracting parties, and the wedding guests are assembled, the bride runs off into the woods, and is pursued and brought back by the youth. A second time she escapes, and is again captured. Her father now seizes the bridegroom by the arm and hauls him up the bamboo ladder into the hut, the mother following with the bride. Here the first part of the ceremony is performed by the paterfamilias, who souses the youth and maiden alternately with water from a cocoanut shell. On again emerging from the hut, the couple kneel down side by side before their parents, and the father, pressing their heads together, declares them to be man and wife. A feast is, of course, held, after which the newly wedded pair disappear to spend their honeymoon of five days in the seclusion of the mountain forests.

The Gaddanes and Itavis, who are found in the northwest provinces of Luzon, are hardly less barbarous than the Negritos, and very little effort appears to have been made by the Spaniards either to convert or to subdue them. The Gaddanes are a fine, dark-skinned race, with long straight hair falling over their shoulders, fierce and aggressive in disposition and nomadic in habit. The youths of this tribe, when desirous of marrying, vie with each other in presenting to the father of the maiden of their choice the skulls of his enemies, the most valiant attaining the prize. These head-hunts take place chiefly during the season of the blossoming of the "fire-tree"—one of the many magnificent flowering forest trees of the island, the blossoms of which are of a brilliant flame color; the bursting of its buds being the signal for the warriors of this race to set out on their marauding expeditions, which are inaugurated with special religious rites. The weapons of the Gaddanes, though primitive, are somewhat formidable. A fully armed warrior carries a long lance with tridented tips, arrows fitted with two rows of teeth made of flint or sea shells, and a hatchet of peculiar shape. His shield, which is narrow and rectangular in shape, has at either end two handles or projections, between which he catches a flying enemy by the neck and hurls him to the ground. Roots, mountain rice, fruit, game, and fish, which they spear with the tridented lance above described, form the staple food of these highlanders, who, in this fertile land, find their simple wants supplied with little exertion on their part. The neighboring tribes of Itavis greatly resemble the Gaddanes in most of their characteristics, but are of lighter complexion and less fierce and bloodthirsty in disposition.

The Igorrote tribesmen are spread over a considerable portion of the northern half of Luzon. They are a tall and muscular race, large-limbed and broad-shouldered, but somewhat clumsily made, with flat noses, wide nostrils, thick lips, high cheek-bones, and copper-colored skins. Some of them are slightly bearded, and they wear their thick hair cut short across the forehead and long behind, where it is decorated with a curious cylindrical ornament from the extremity of which hangs a kind of tasselled fringe. Their full dress consists of a waistcloth, short sleeveless jacket, and cape made of palm-leaves. Civilization possesses no greater attractions for them than for the Philippine hillmen generally. Their dwellings are queer, beehive-shaped huts. They are indolent in their habits and practise but little husbandry. Polygamy is permitted among them, but is not indulged in to any considerable extent. Adultery is infrequent, and when a woman is convicted of it, the dowry paid to her parents by the husband is restored and she is divorced. Murder is, however, extremely common within the tribe, and family vendettas are maintained. In the province of La Isabela, on the east coast, a regular debtor and creditor account in heads is said to be kept; also between the Igorrotes and the neighboring Negrito tribes.

Incursions of the Igorrote hillmen into the lowlands and coast settlements have for centuries past been of frequent occurrence. Issuing from their mountain fastnesses, these Eastern caterans swoop down on the villages, carrying off to their own ranches the cattle and other possessions of the domesticated natives. The first important military expedition against them was organized in 1754 by Captain-General Arandia, who sent into the mountains of north Luzon a force of over a thousand men. During this and the following year their country was overrun by the troops, their ranches were destroyed, their crops laid waste, and many of the hillmen taken prisoners. But notwithstanding these reverses, the spirit of the tribes remained unbroken, and all hope of securing the permanent allegiance of the Igorrotes was for the time abandoned by the Spanish authorities. In 1881, however, Gen. Primo de Rivera placed himself at the head of a considerable body of troops, with which he invaded the lands of the Igorrotes with the intention of reducing them to submission and opening up their country. But this expedition failed ignominiously. The force employed was not large enough to carry on the war *à outrance*, and the feeble efforts made by the invaders excited the contempt of the tribesmen and gave them courage to defend their threatened liberties, while at the same time the license indulged in by the Spaniards at the expense of the mountaineers, whenever an opportunity offered, showed them the value of the invaders' protestations as to the benefits to be derived from Spanish rule. Since this abortive campaign the Igorrotes have been even less approachable by, and more distrustful of, their European neighbors than before, though its originator and leader, a court fa-

vorite, was rewarded for his endeavors by being created "Count de la Union."

The tribe of apparently mixed breed known as the Igorrote-Chinese are believed to be descended from the followers of the famous corsair Li-ma-hong, who, on the defeat of their leader in 1574 by Juan de Saluda, took refuge in the hills. Intermarriage with women of the Igorrote tribes has generated a species presenting quite unique and by no means amiable characteristics; the fierceness of these Luzon mountaineers being blended with Mongol astuteness and cunning.

The Tinguianes, who occupy the northwest inland province of El Abra, though nominally subject to the Spanish Government, are practically semi-independent. The villagers and rancheros elect their own headmen, who occasionally, and very much at their own convenience, pay their respects to the nearest Spanish governor and receive his instructions. These, however, they carry out in accordance with the traditional usages of their respective tribes, and, as a rule, apply their own customary laws in preference to those of the Spanish code.

Though these Tinguiane tribes have become nominally subject to Spain, they have as a body resolutely refused to be Christianized, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts made by the friars for their conversion. When any of their number have allowed themselves to be baptized, the motive has been traceable to convenience rather than to conviction, and in the seclusion of their ranches and villages they continue to follow the cult of their forefathers. They have no temples, their gods being enshrined in mountain caves. They believe in the efficacy of prayer to these deities for the supply of their natural wants; and if the rains have been too heavy or not sufficiently so to suit them, the *Anitos* are approached and exhorted like the saints of the Roman Calendar. When a child is to be named, a priest carries it into the forest, and, placing it against the trunk of a tree, strikes a knife into the bark over the infant's head, uttering at the same time a name. Should the sap flow, the name is considered good; but if not, the ceremony is repeated until the oozing sap announces the approval of the sylvan deity.

The Tinguianes are monogamists, and their espousals take place before the couples have attained the age of puberty, the parents of the bridegroom purchasing the bride at a price mutually agreed upon. By their laws adultery is punishable with a fine of $30 and divorce; but if there has been adultery on both sides, the parties are divorced without the imposition of a fine on either side. In the neighborhoods exposed to the attacks of the Guinuanis, their hereditary foes, the dwellings of the Tinguianes are built in high trees, or raised on posts, from which they hurl down heavy stones on their assailants. Where life and property are more secure, their huts resemble those of the Tagals, with the addition of buffaloes' and horses' skulls hung with other charms over the doors and other apertures, to scare away all things harmful. These tribesmen are tall, well built, and not unhandsome, having good features and slightly aquiline noses. In intelligence and general capacity they are not inferior to the general run of the domesticated natives. Some can read and write a little, and, like the Tagals, they are exceedingly fond of music. They delight in ornament, tattoo their bodies in elaborate patterns, blacken their teeth, and dress their hair, Japanese fashion, into a tuft on the crown of the head.

Little information is obtainable as to the present attitude of these various races and tribes of hillmen. Forming, however, as they do, no inconsiderable proportion of the population of Luzon, they will hardly be found to prove a negligible quantity in the settlement of the Philippine question now imminent. The opening up of the country must naturally follow the occupation of the island by any Power less effete than Spain. This will at once bring its pioneers into contact with the denizens of its almost unexplored mountain regions, and the question must inevitably sooner or later arise as to the submission or continued independence of the hillmen. In the event, however, of any such coöperation between the British and the Americans as has been suggested, in the form of joint protectorate or otherwise, these hillmen might prove of the greatest service in the pacification of the island, for many of the tribes are, as has been seen, fine fighting men, taller and more muscular than the Tagals. Treated as similar hill tribes have been in India by British officers, they might be induced to enlist in regiments in which their services would probably be as valuable as have been those of the enlisted hillmen of India. Of course, were there any chance of the Tagals being able to form a civilized government capable of dealing justly both with the native hillmen and with the European merchants and others, one could only wish it all success. But I believe that no one really acquainted with these Filipinos believes that there is any possibility of a native government being successfully established for many years to come, if ever.

Correspondence.

COALING-STATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The plea of a necessity for having coaling-stations is made a pretext for demanding the permanent occupation of ports in the Ladrones and Philippines. It is a specious cover to justify the extension of our dominion over the sea, and is Beaconfield's policy (in spirit) of extending the boundaries of the empire to secure "a scientific frontier" that always recedes before the advance of the British army. The argument is as plausible as that which persuaded the Donna Julia to permit "a Platonic squeeze" —the first step that led to her fall.

In time of peace every foreign port is open as a coaling-station; in war, coaling-stations, to be available, must be held by a superior force; otherwise the enemy takes possession, as we have done of Manila and Santiago. These were Spanish coaling-stations when the war began. Of what military value have they been to Spain? Simply to get two fleets destroyed that were employed in defending them. It cost us less to capture them than it did Spain to hold them for us in peace and lose them in war. When the Spanish fleets were defending these ports, they could not be engaged in destroying our commerce elsewhere.

The holding of coaling-stations is therefore a source of weakness in war, like guarding the base of supply and its line of communication with an army. The force detached for this purpose is so much deducted from the offensive power of a nation. Dewey captured the Spanish fleet; but Manila has captured Dewey and the army of 20,000 men we have sent there to hold it. Spain would rather see our squadrons cruising around Cuba and the Philippines than blockading Cadiz and Barcelona. It would be more economical to buy our coal in foreign ports in time of peace, and to capture them in war, or compel an enemy to guard them strongly and save us the expense and trouble of governing them. The same squadron cannot hold one port and at the same time attack another. Spain's experience with colonies and ours without them prove that in war they are a weak point in a political system.

The supremacy of Spain was broken in Cuba and the Philippines by the destruction of her fleets; there was no military reason for keeping our naval squadrons there or sending armies to hold them. The Spanish soldiers, like Napoleon's army in Egypt after Nelson's victory of the Nile, were virtually prisoners, although they had not gone through the form of surrendering. All the operations at Manila, beyond destroying the naval forces of Spain, were directed to a political, not a military purpose—to gain military occupation in order to extend political authority as a prelude to annexation. *Beati possidentes*—happy are those in possession. There can certainly be no strategic reason for sending an army seven or eight thousand miles to conquer a country over which Spain has lost control, or for Dewey's squadron remaining there after the Spanish fleet was at the bottom of the sea.

Jno: S. Mosby.

San Francisco, August 6, 1898.

THE COTTON CROP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "In a dry year they underestimate the cotton crop, in a wet year they overestimate it." This saying is a truism, and the present season will furnish another exemplification of it. Predictions have in former wet years been made of a ten-million crop that turned out one of seven million bales. The present cotton year is what is termed a wet one. The rains have been abundant, and the cotton plant is very large, with stalk and leaf of a gorgeous green color. The prophets all predict a twelve-million-bale crop—a yield greater than that of the past year, which was the greatest in the history of the country.

The large stalk and abundant leaf are unquestionably at the expense of fruit. The plant is fruited not nearly so heavily as at the present time last summer. This fact, taken in connection with this crop's decrease in acreage, makes obvious the falsity of such enormous estimates.

The two past crop years were "dry ones." These same prophets vehemently declared that not half a crop would be made, that the drought was burning the plant up. They forgot that cotton is essentially a dry-weather plant, and that while the stalk was not so large, nor the leaf so gorgeous, the fruit was "making." Extraordinary crops resulted.

The present cotton crop promises to be a good one of about ten and one-half million

bales. This will insure not a high price, but a fair one, and one that will be remunerative to the grower. W. COLLIER ESTES.

MEMPHIS, TENN., August 13, 1898.

Notes.

"Then build a new, or act it in a plain," was the old advice of playhouse "critics of less judgment than caprice." But the accumulation of books and the fresh production of them make similar counsel mere common sense to librarians and cataloguers. The British analogue of our 'Publishers' Trade List Annual'—namely, the combined catalogues of the chief houses engaged in the manufacture of books—known as 'The Reference Catalogue of Current Literature' (London: J. Whitaker & Sons; New York: The Publishers' Weekly), has at last perforce split itself into two volumes, each still huge enough in all conscience, being six inches in thickness. To say that this work has again appeared would be sufficient for those who appreciate the enormous value and convenience of such collections; but it is proper to remark on the subject- and author-index which is prefixed to the 'Reference Catalogue.' In view of the large number of English houses which have branches on this side of the water, such an index supplements usefully our 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual,' which dispenses with one in default of time or money for its production. The 576 pages of this laborious index demand the gratitude of all who seek a clue to the maze of intellectual output in the mother country.

A partial list of D. Appleton & Co.'s autumn publications embraces the late Charles A. Dana's 'Recollections of the Civil War'; 'Admiral Porter,' by Prof. James Russell Soley; 'Our Country's Flag,' by Edward S. Holden, with illustrations; 'The Earth and Sky,' by the same author; 'The Scientific Memoirs of Thomas Henry Huxley,' edited in four volumes by Prof. Michael Foster and Prof. E. Ray Lankester; 'The Story of the Railroad,' by Cy Warman; 'Philip's Experiments, or Physical Science at Home,' by Prof. John Trowbridge of Harvard; and 'Spanish Literature,' by J. Fitzmaurice-Kelly.

Doubleday & McClure Co. will publish during the autumn 'Flashlights on Nature,' life histories of familiar insects and plants, by Grant Allen; 'Birds that Hunt and are Hunted,' by "Neltje Blanchan"; 'The Butterfly Book,' by W. J. Holland, LL.D., with hundreds of examples in color photography; 'The Business Girl,' by Ruth Ashmore; 'What Shall Our Boys Do for a Living?' by Charles F. Wingate; 'Memoirs of 1812-13,' by Sergeant Bourgoyne, from the French; 'Life and Character of Gen. U. S. Grant,' by Hamlin Garland; 'Life Masks of Great Americans,' by Charles Henry Hart, in limited editions; 'Our Navy in the Philippines,' by John T. McCutcheon; 'The Life of Henry Drummond,' by George Adam Smith, D.D.; 'The Day's Work,' by Rudyard Kipling; and, in connection with J. M. Dent & Co., London, a Temple edition of Dickens's novels in forty volumes.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly issue 'A Concise Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities,' edited by F. Warre Cornish, Vice-Provost of Eton College, with 1,100 illustrations.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press 'American Indians,' by Dr. Frederick Starr, Professor of Anthropology in the University of Chicago, an illustrated work calculated for schools.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, announces for the fall 'Heinrich Heine's Last Days,' from the French of "Camille Selden"; 'The Last Days of Percy Bysshe Shelley,' by Dr. Guido Biagi; 'Leo Tolstoy; or, The Making of a Prophet in the Nineteenth Century,' by G. H. Perris; 'The Autobiography of a Veteran [Gen. Enrico della Rocca],' translated and abridged by Mrs. Janet Ross; 'Travels and Politics in the Near East [the Balkans],' by William Miller; 'Through New Guinea and the Cannibal Countries,' by H. Cayley-Webster, with many photographic illustrations; 'Life of Man on the High Alps,' from the Italian of Angelo Mosso; 'The Annals of Mont Blanc: A Monograph,' by C. E. Mathews; 'The Early Mountaineers,' by Francis Gribble; 'The Welsh People,' by Prof. John Rhys and David Brynmor Jones; and 'The Correspondence of Princess Elizabeth of England, Landgravine of Hesse-Homburg,' edited by Philip C. Yorke.

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, has brought out, in two pretty volumes, a reprint of Hazlitt's translation of Huc's 'Travels in Tartary, Thibet, China, 1844-6.' The fifty engravings on wood have been reproduced in facsimile, and are curious memorials of the art half a century ago. The Abbé's lively narrative has in the meantime lost nothing of its power to entertain. The work is indexed in an early fashion.

Prof. Moses Coit Tyler has put together in a little volume, bearing the title 'Glimpses of England' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), a selection from sketches of men and things which he contributed to this and other journals during his residence in England in the years from 1863 to 1866. They are pleasant reading; and the subject of England's knowledge of America and America's knowledge of England is so perennially interesting that Porf. Tyler has done well to rescue these impressions of his from the oblivion which threatens all periodical writing. His observations remain rather on the surface, perhaps; and we do not find it difficult to imagine the sort of ardent young democrat he must have been thirty years ago, or the sort of company he must have kept in England. Even Mr. Morley would hardly speak nowadays of John Bright's "towering intellect." Mr. Tyler, like many other good Americans, was pulled in two directions—now quivering with enthusiasm for the rights of the people, now rolling "baronial halls" under his tongue like a sweet morsel. But it is just this transparent simplicity, this absence of any straining after profundity, which will make his observations valuable to the historian of the period.

P. Blakiston & Son, Philadelphia, publish a timely monograph by W. C. Hollopeter upon not only 'Hay Fever,' the growing plague, but upon "Its Successful Treatment," a claim which many would be happy to believe justified. Notwithstanding a sensational golden-rod on the cover, a sectional illustration of the nasal cavities facing the title-page, and more confidence in methods than legitimate medicine is apt to proclaim publicly—which are matters of taste—the essay appears laid down on reasonable lines. It maintains that this distressing and substantially modern disease is a vaso-motor paresis, localized at the lower turbinated bones, and generally associated with constitutional conditions. The treatment that ten years' experience leads the author to regard as substantially infallible is complete local sterilization of the damaged region, with reasonable general measures. The advantage it offers is relief from exile, and intelligent care, if not certain cure. Its essence is the complete and constant sterilization of the sensitive area.

There is no good reason for the army of trigonometry text-books which volunteer their services. None of them are excellent either from the point of view of the theory of functions (to which, and not to geometry, trigonometry belongs), or from that of the art of computing. J. W. Nicholson's 'Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry' (Macmillan) has some petty yet distinctive merits—mnemonic devices—which induces us to mention it. It is prettily manufactured, too. The five-place tables do not even give differences, far less proportional parts. Of course, the book is not comparable to the completer treatise of Chauvenet.

Daniel Alexander Murray, in his 'Elementary Course in the Integral Calculus' (American Book Co.), "panders" a little to the new methods. If a book confined to the integral calculus and which yet hardly notices imaginary variables can be recommended, this may be said to be a good book.

The cosmopolitan character of our cities is nowhere so evident as in the public library. Nearly one-half of the August Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is taken up with a list of recent accessions of popular books in the Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish languages.

Volume xi. of the *Publicationen* of the Astrophysical Observatory of Potsdam is noteworthy on account of two papers, "Measurement of the Nebula of Orion by the Application of Photography," by Prof. J. Scheiner, and "Investigations of the Parallax and Proper Motion of 61 Cygni by Means of Photography," by J. Wilsing. The editor, Dr. H. C. Vogel, in a preface, admits that these subjects do not, strictly considered, fall within the scope of an astrophysical observatory. He holds, however, that as German astronomers show so little interest in this application of photography, which has become of such great importance to astrophysicists, "an encroachment upon the domain of pure astronomy on our side seems not only permissible, but to be demanded." Other papers are on the appearance of the south polar-region of Mars in 1892-94, by O. Lohse, and observations of variable stars in 1881-85, by J. Wilsing. The concluding memoir, "Researches on the Absorption of Star Light by the Earth's Atmosphere," by G. Müller and P. Kempf, embodies the results of investigations made at Etna and in Catania.

The opening article of the *Annales de Géographie* for July is upon the world's cotton culture. It makes no pretence of being more than a commentary on the maps which accompany it. These show not only the extent of cultivation, but the relative amount of cultivable land used, and other facts. There is also the first of a series of articles upon the development of that historical enigma, London, and one upon the scientific work done by the Russians in northern Asia. In a scholarly treatise on Megara, M. V. Bérard brings forward cogent reasons for believing it to be the site of the Homeric island of Calypso. In the field of

pure science are articles upon the configuration of the land in the department of the Basses-Alpes, illustrated by photographs, and upon the hypsometry of northern Madagascar.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 6, opens with an account of an exploration in the northwestern part of German East Africa, which is interesting from its testimony to the civilizing influence of the Germans upon the natives. A powerful Zulu tribe which has for thirty years laid waste, by its continual raids, an extensive region, has given up warfare for agriculture, and peaceful villages in the midst of fields of corn and sorghum are to be seen in every direction. Baron E. von Toll describes his proposed Arctic expedition to Sannikoff Land, an unvisited island or archipelago lying to the north of New Siberia. He starts next summer accompanied by three assistants, an astronomer, meteorologist, and topographer, and provided with dogs, reindeer, and ponies, and hopes to make a complete topographical and geographical survey of the archipelago and to return in 1901. Among the minor articles is a statistical account of Tomsk, which shows the intellectual and industrial activity of the Russians in Siberia. With a population of 52,430, Tomsk has twenty-three churches, including a mosque and three synagogues; a university, with a large and valuable library; and forty-four technical, girls', grammar, and primary schools, and a free public library. In the city and its suburbs are 281 workshops and factories, employing 3,042 workmen, and with an annual production valued at 7,590,643 rubles. The most important industry is brickmaking. In May, 1896, local self-government was instituted.

The Parisian æsthetic poster appears to have been the inspiration of a new French industry, whose organ is the magazine called the *Home-Décor* (Paris, 172 Quai de Jemmapes). The lithographic firm of Camis has conceived the idea of furnishing colored wall-panels for home decoration. Reductions of these (copies of notable paintings) are given every month in the magazine in question, and are themselves capable of being applied as wall-paper if desired. Four of them accompany the first number before us, with suggestions as to harmonious surroundings, possible docking, etc. The color process is apparently not lithographic, but the half-tone three-plate scheme, well known in this country.

A happy thought has inspired the founding of a central medium for scholarly discussion of the enormous mass of Greek papyri discovered of recent years in Egypt. Ulrich Wilcken of Breslau is to conduct the new *Archiv für Papyrusforschung und Verwandte Gebiete*, with the aid of many German, English, French, and Italian specialists, who, as well as occasional contributors, may write in any of the languages just named, or in Latin. The prospectus, which comes to us from B. G. Teubner, Leipzig, lays stress on the sub-title, the "allied domains" of learning, which are not to be neglected for exclusive consideration of papyri finds. The *Archiv* will begin with the new year.

An address on the development of the *Lehrfreiheit* in German universities, delivered by Prof. G. Kaufmann (Breslau) at the meeting of German historians at Nürnberg, has appeared in print (Leipzig: Hirzel), and will be a surprise to those who have been under the impression that that famous privilege was an inheritance of earlier and better times. The author shows that *Lehrfreiheit* was unknown in mediæval universities, and down to the eighteenth century, as long as the universities were independent corporations. It was through the authority of the state, and the will of individual rulers, that the baneful tradition of Church and corporations was broken. That governments and princes have at times arbitrarily interfered with the freedom granted by them is well known.

As a number of Americans have pursued the study of Herbartian pedagogy at Jena—formerly under Prof. Stoy, and, since his death in 1885, under his successor, Prof. Kein—it may be worth while to bring to their notice a contribution to the history of Stoy's beneficent and self-sacrificing activity, viz., Dr. A. Wollberg's 'Bilder aus dem Leben einer Volksschule' (Jena: Frommann). Moreover, this account, by Stoy's last *Oberlehrer*, of some of the truly admirable features of school life under the management of that eminent educator, cannot fail to be of interest to all students of educational affairs. No other single instance, perhaps, is more characteristic of the earnest spirit prevailing in the Johann-Friedrich-Schule than the annual celebration, among memorial days, for educational purposes, of the 14th of October, "on which day, in 1806, German men shed their blood on the hills of Jena without saving their fatherland from degradation and shame."

The university-extension movement (*Volkshochschulbewegung*) in the larger cities of Germany seems to hold its own and even to grow in scope and importance. In Berlin, where the plan of organizing courses under the lead of the University was last winter frustrated by the action of the University Senate, a committee of University professors has perfected arrangements for the coming winter which will soon be announced to the public. Aside from this, the Humboldt Academy has for some years been active in a similar direction. The Volkshochschulverein of Munich has just made its report, from which it appears that from October 25 to March 31 sixteen courses were given by members of the faculties of the University and the Technische Hochschule. Each course consisted of from four to twelve lectures, the total amounting to ninety-nine. The number of hearers had risen from 1,440 in the preceding year to 1,870 for 1897-98, of whom 513 were women. It is significant that the proportion of mechanics and laborers among the hearers fell during the period mentioned from about 30 per cent. to 12½ per cent.

In the matter of the higher education for women, it is to be reported that the city of Hanover will in the near future have a gymnasium for girls; while the institution having the same character at Karlsruhe will pass from the hands of a private organization into those of the magistrate.

We have already mentioned the fellowships for 1899-1900 to be awarded by the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, to wit, one for $600, given by the Archæological Institute of America; one for $600, by the Managing Committee; and one for $500, for the study of Christian Archæology, by friends of the School. The applications of candidates must be made in writing not later than February 1, 1899, to Prof. Minton Warren of Johns Hopkins University, who will supply circulars in which the conditions are fully set forth.

From F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, we are more accustomed to receive photographic memorials of the dead than of the living, but he now sends us, in his admirable "imperial panel" series, a faithful portrait of Edward Everett Hale which may be recommended to all that author's friends and admirers.

—Mr. H. C. Russell, Government Astronomer of New South Wales, has made some interesting observations upon icebergs in the southern oceans, an account of which he gave recently to the Royal Society of that country. He compiles his information from certain nautical publications and from the logs sent him by the commanders of sixty-two vessels trading to Sydney. He gives a table wherein the drifting in and out of ice across the tracks of ships shows such remarkable variations as led him, years ago, to look for the causes of the movement. During six years, twenty ships in January reported ice, twelve in February, seven in March. The five months following had not a single such record. One cause for this he believes to be the prevailing northwest winds, which forced the bottles containing the reports away from the southern Australian coast, where a large number of these floating messengers find a resting-place. Another is probably the effect of these winds upon the icebergs themselves. With strong south winds ice seems forced northward into the tracks of vessels, while with constant northwest winds in the first four months of 1896, not one report of ice was received. It would be very helpful if ships would report the number of bergs seen—whether a few large ones or innumerable small ones. For instance, 4,500 icebergs were reported by one vessel, 376 by another, while one vessel passed through 1,600 miles of ice; but it would have been well to know if there were a berg in every square mile or in every ten miles square. If ships sighting icebergs on a fine day, with strong north or south winds, would heave to and watch them for three or four hours to see if they move with the wind, much additional and valuable data would be secured, and in time it might be possible to forecast the position of bergs between Africa and Australia with some approach to precision.

—New South Wales has nearly 1,500 stations for rain, river, and evaporation observations. The year 1896, for which very full reports are given, was unfortunately one of such severe drought all over the colony, except through two very small areas, that it was productive of great loss. The average rainfall for the whole colony was 22.26, or 12 per cent. below the average; but that means conditions far more severe than might appear from the figures. Many districts, notably those in the extreme west, suffered intensely, with an average rainfall from 20 to 63 per cent. below normal. The recording stations are scattered all over the country, though not uniformly. The heaviest average rainfall, 64 inches, is found on the Tweed River, just at the foot of a mountain range about 5,000 feet elevation, the proximity of high peaks aiding the deposit of moisture, since ordinarily greater distance from the sea decreases the amount of rainfall. During 1896, too, there was much less wind than usual—less, indeed, at Dubbo and Hay than during any other of the eleven years since the anemometers were set up.

Tabular statements are also given from the river gauges, with dates and heights of floods; the Darling, Murray, and Hunter Rivers being included. Experiments on evaporation have been conducted at Lake George, Dubbo, Nepean Tunnel, and other points, from which the general principle is evolved that the heavier the rainfall the less the evaporation. A new tide-table has been given, from which it may be seen that there are slight variations of mean sea-level from year to year. Difference in the pressure of the atmosphere occasions most of these changes, sea-level falling with a rise of barometer.

—The recent sale in Paris of the Tyszkiewicz collection was hardly less interesting on account of the personality of the collector than for the intrinsic value of the objects dispersed because of his death. Count Michael Tyszkiewicz was a Polish nobleman who for forty years was well known among all collectors of and dealers in Greek and Roman antiquities, as a man who wanted nothing but the best of the class of objects in which he was interested, who knew the best when he saw it, and was willing and able to pay such prices as would attract to him the objects he desired. Collectors knew him as a formidable rival, and dealers as one to whom they could most confidently offer a really fine thing if they were lucky enough to get possession of it. Having made Rome his headquarters since 1865, no one was more thoroughly familiar with the tortuous methods which must be followed in Italy and the Orient by those seeking to acquire antiquities of first-rate importance. His 'Notes et Souvenirs d'un vieux Collectionneur,' which has been lately reprinted by Leroux from the *Revue Archéologique*, forms a fascinating collection of anecdotes, revealing ways that are dark and tricks that are vain enough to put the "heathen Chinee" to the blush, though the suspicious will note that these stories have reference more to objects which the author did not keep than to those which he did, and suggest that his memoirs might have been made even more interesting, as well as more complete, had he chosen to tell all he remembered. Gifted with exceptional taste, a remarkably keen eye, a large fortune, and an aptitude for *finesse* in dealing which was rarely surpassed by any of those with whom he came in contact, he had all the qualities which go to make up the successful collector; and had he kept all the objects which came into his possession during his long career, it is probably safe to say that he would have left a collection which, within its range, would have been equalled by few public museums at the present day. But, having had the excitement of acquiring a rare specimen, and the satisfaction of studying it at leisure, he was not infrequently ready to part with it, and more than one museum has been made richer in consequence. Napoleon III. was among those who profited by his willingness to dispose of his treasures, and the museums of Paris, London, and Berlin have been benefited by it. Boston, also, has been a gainer, in the new and interesting development of its classical collections, having acquired last year the splendid Greek krater which was one of his most valuable possessions. As is frequently the case with collectors, his interest varied from time to time, though it seems to have been always in the direction of small antiquities of one kind or another, rather than large sculptures. Coins, medals, vases, small bronzes, glass, gold jewelry, and silverware all appealed to him, and a glance through the plates of Froehner's 'La Collection Tyszkiewicz' will show the exquisiteness of his taste in selecting these as well as his success in getting them. During the last years of his life, he turned his attention to the most archaic forms of art, and a number of grotesquely primitive objects appeared at the sale as a result. But the possession for which he was probably most envied by other collectors was his gems. His collection of these was not large compared with others, even of private individuals, but it included some of the most beautiful and remarkable specimens of the Greek gem-cutter's art known, both cameos and intagli. That this fact was appreciated at the sale is shown by the price they brought, the seventy-five specimens there offered having been sold in one lot, according to the *Chronique des Arts*, for 106,000 francs—nearly one-third of the amount brought by the entire collection during a three days' sale.

—Some of the other prices are interesting as showing what keen competition there is nowadays for good examples of even the smaller arts of classical antiquity. An archaic bronze statuette of Artemis, inscribed, went for 20,500 francs; an extremely archaic bronze statuette of Apollo, bearing an inscription in hexameter, 5,200; a bronze statuette of Aphrodite untying her sandal, 14,000; a terracotta vase, of the hydria shape, with figures painted in colors, 20,500, at which price (as we have already noted) it was bought for the Museum of Lyons. It is said, by the way, that the late owner placed a still higher valuation upon this specimen, the design upon it being of exceptional beauty and remarkably well preserved. As a whole, however, the vases were fewer in number and less important than those of the Van Branteghem sale in Paris a few years ago, the prices quoted ranging from 500 to 2,600 francs, except for the hydria just mentioned. The gold jewels brought fair prices, a few of the more notable being a ring of Mycenean style, 1,390 francs; an Egyptian pendant, representing the god Noum, 5,900; an Etruscan parure, gold and garnets, 3,800; a pair of earrings, from Egypt, 3,800; a ring with the design of Hermes fastening his sandals, 4,100, and a diadem in enamelled gold, 6,100. The silver was no less successful, a Phœnician patera bringing 7,200 francs; the handle of an amphora, of Sassanian work, in the form of a winged ibex, 29,500, and so on. Altogether, the 312 pieces offered in the sale, including the gems, brought 358,866 francs. More interesting than the prices, however, would be the knowledge of the destination of the respective objects, about which we regret that we are not informed, because this would contain the more important lesson for the museums and collectors of our country. Whatever has been secured for public museums is, of course, lost to the market for ever—at least, within reasonable limits. Such things as have gone into private hands may be offered again for sale here and there at some future date, but the lesson of experience is that the prices will increase steadily as the opportunities for acquisition diminish. Of the permanency of the demand there can be no question as long as Greek art continues to occupy a place in the artistic education of the modern world. The soil of Greece and Italy is by no means inexhaustible, and just in proportion as the works of Greek, Roman, and Etruscan artists taken from it become rarer, the restrictions governing the removal of them from those countries grow more severe. It is to private collections more than to excavations that collectors now look for increase of their possessions, and the treasures of private collections are being rapidly absorbed into public museums, by purchase, gift, and bequest. The acquisition of valuable works of classic art for this country is becoming every year both a more difficult and a more expensive matter. When will our museums be in a condition to take full advantage of such a rare opportunity as that which has just been offered in the Tyszkiewicz sale?

—The rise of journalism in China is one of the most hopeful signs of the awakening of the empire from its century-long lethargic sleep. "Young China" has seized upon this Western mode of giving expression to its discontent with the present system, of denouncing the ignorance and corruption of the official class and of advocating civil-service reform. It is divided, according to a correspondent of the London *Times*, into two distinct classes, the "classical" and the "modern." The former is composed of the rising generation of the literati, men educated on the old conservative lines, but who now urge the introduction of mathematics and political economy into the curriculum of provincial graduates' examinations. The "modern" is "chiefly a product of America, Hong Kong, and the treaty ports," and has acquired the rudiments of an English education and a smattering of general information. Sprung from the lower middle classes, it detests the literati, and "freely advocates the collapse of the dynasty and the introduction of foreign rulers and foreign methods." Crude and selfish as are these efforts for reform in both these types of Young China, it is evident that the native press is slowly developing a public opinion which may exert a powerful regenerating influence in public matters. It is even now asserted that an imperial edict has been issued ordering that the official degrees which constitute the indispensable qualifications for office "are to be conferred in future upon examinations in modern subjects." Journalism is not yet a paying profession in China. So poor is the quality of paper used and so cheap is the labor employed, both literary and mechanical, that the price of the ordinary Shanghai journal is four cash (900 cash to the dollar), or, at the present rate of exchange, one-twentieth of a cent. A journal of higher rank, published only three times a month and in book form, costs about three cents.

TWO NEW EDITIONS OF BYRON.

The Works of Lord Byron. Edited by William Ernest Henley. [Vol. I.] Letters, 1804-1813. The Macmillan Co. 1897.

The Works of Lord Byron. A new, revised, and enlarged edition, with illustrations. Poetry. Vol. I. Edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge.—Letters and Journals. Vol. I. Edited by Rowland E. Prothero. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

There is certainly a revival of interest in Byron, both in England and in this country. There even seem to be signs that his fame, after some decades of obscuration, may soon become clear and steady, though it can never

regain its former meteoric brilliancy. We refer, of course, to his fame among men of his own race and language. On the continent of Europe there can be no Byronic revival, for the reason that there has never been a decline. English critics might do what they would to "bear" the market—our readers will perhaps remember Mr. Saintsbury's exploit in this line—Byron stock has always stood well in the literary and academic bourses of Germany and France. His poetry is very seriously studied at the universities; dissertations on Byron and Shakspere, treatises on "Byron der Uebermensch," and the like, have abounded. A Breslau professor, long dedicated to these pursuits, is giving to the world, from time to time, editions of single poems, with a commentary which must make even the beatified shades of Ruhnken and his school grow green with envy. All this is highly significant. It was to be supposed that a writer who had once carried all before him throughout the civilized world, and who still continued, despite neglect at home, to be rated by Continental readers as the greatest of English poets next to Shakspere, must have had some quality of permanence in his genius. It was even safe to predict that he would soon find native champions who would not hesitate to assert and defend his claim to all but the highest position. We might go on to express these phenomena—the continuity of Byron's reputation on the Continent and the incipient Byronic revival in England—in the usual and undeniably handy formulas "Romanticism," "reaction," "revolt," and so on, and we confess to the temptation. But this would lead us too far away from our present business, which is to examine an interesting concrete symptom of the revival in question. We refer to the opening volumes of two elaborate editions of Byron's Complete Works.

Of Mr. Henley's edition but one volume has appeared, containing the Letters from 1804 to 1813. It was published about a year ago, and we have been waiting, with some impatience, for the second, which is delayed in a manner so unaccountable as to suggest discouragement on the part either of the editor or the publishers. The Murray edition has begun more auspiciously. Two volumes have been issued—vol. i. of the Poems, edited by Mr. R. E. Prothero, and vol. i. of the Letters and Journals (to August 22, 1811), edited by Mr. E. H. Coleridge. There is reason to hope that the enterprise will proceed with some regularity to a not too distant conclusion. Comparison between the two editions, to be fair, must confine itself to the work of Mr. Henley and Mr. Prothero.

To begin with, Mr. Henley has an unbounded admiration for his author. Hero-worship is not too strong a term for it. His preface is defiant, almost vociferous, in asserting Byron's claims upon our attention. He is "the sole English poet bred since Milton to live a master-influence in the world at large." His "character and his achievement" are both "extraordinary," and "neither can be explained, or shouted, or sniffed away." And so on. There is no great harm in these dicta, which are immoderate rather in manner than in substance; but they disclose a posture of mind which makes the judicious reader apprehensive; and with reason. It is not merely that Mr. Henley's prepossession sometimes makes him unjust to his hero's contemporaries; the continual exaggeration of his style, the hectoring air which he adopts, and his fondness for making a point are often offensive, and still oftener fatal to nicety of discrimination and even to accuracy. It is not pretty, though it may be true, to say, apropos of Leigh Hunt's assault on Byron, "If you lie down with dogs, you get up with fleas" (p. 438). It is bad taste, indifferent criticism, and "a foolish figure" to call Moore's Anacreon "a translation as it were into scented soap" (p. 378). It is ridiculous to speak of Byron's relations with William Gifford as an "alliance between leviathan and a blindworm" (p. 326). In a letter to Hodgson (September 25, 1811), Byron, speaking of his forthcoming quarto, remarks: "It would not answer for me to give way now; as I was forced into bitterness at the beginning, I will go through to the last. *Væ victis.* If I fall, I shall fall gloriously, fighting against a host." The last sentence affects the editor deeply. "In the beginning, as to the end, that is," he comments, somewhat hysterically, "he was 'the passionate and dauntless soldier of a forlorn hope,' revealed in Matthew Arnold's Essay" (p. 377). It is hard to persuade one's self that such a comment is serious, but we believe that it is seriously meant.

And, indeed, with all his flippancy and exaggeration, Mr. Henley has a distinct and serious plan in his volume. "The years whose voice-in-chief was Byron" are, he thinks, " the worst understood in the national existence. . . . They gave to history a generation at once dandified and truculent, bigoted yet dissolute, magnificent but vulgar, artistic, very sumptuous, and yet capable of astonishing effort and superb self-sacrifice. It was a generation bent above all upon living its life to the utmost of its capacity." To know Byron one must know Byron's world. Hence it is the editor's purpose "to form," in his notes, "a collection of facts and portraitures which, by making for a juster apprehension of the quality and temper of Byron's environment, will make for a more intimate understanding of Byron's character and Byron's achievement." There result about 175 pages of commentary, in very fine type, on not quite 300 pages of text. All the usual canons of annotation are violated. The editor passes over in silence point after point which needs elucidation, and he dwells at great length on anything that strikes his fancy. Thus, in Letter 36 there are no less than two such points which he neglects, besides one other, easy of settlement, on which he confesses ignorance. In Letter 74 there are two or three more, and it would be easy to multiply examples. *Per contra:* in Letter 121 Byron casually mentions Pole, who "is to marry Miss Long, and will be a very miserable dog for all that." Whereupon Mr. Henley notes that Pole's story "is so full of insolence, adultery, thriftlessness, and the right Regency feeling for blackguardism and the Establishment, that I cannot choose but tell it with a certain particularity"—and this he accordingly does at a length of three pages and a half. Again, he devotes two pages to Gentleman Jackson, "sole prop and ornament of pugilism," and three more to Bob Gregson, the prize-fighter, and to the general subject of the manly art. Besides, many eminent persons appear in this volume, and it is Mr. Henley's method to write a combined anecdotical biography and character sketch of each, usually on his first appearance. At this rate it is not surprising that the space available for notes runs out, and that the editor is obliged to "refer forward."

An odd instance of the fitfulness of Mr. Henley's annotation is his account of Robert Adair. Here nearly a page is given to a quotation from the 'Anti-Jacobin,' detailing a queer rhetorical blunder of Adair's. It is a diverting story, but it has nothing whatever to do with Byron, nor does it illustrate Byron's environment—the excuse which may be alleged for most of these gossiping excursions. But fitfulness and misplaced profusion do not exhaust the catalogue of Mr. Henley's editorial shortcomings. He is constantly guilty of the unforgivable offence of omitting his references. "Here is Byron on the event" (page 302); "Thus, too, Mme. Guiccioli, of a second encounter" (p. 303); "This was Leigh Hunt's first glimpse of Byron. He . . . . noticed" (p. 307); "is trounced in a letter by Charles Lamb" (p. 315); "See English Bards: 'Then let Ansonia, skilled in every art, etc.' " (p. 332); "Sheridan's Life of Swift"; "We shall find Byron begging Hodgson to ask Drury to kick him" (p. 345); "In Gray" (p. 423); "Byron told Medwin" (p. 453). These are the references of an essayist, not an annotator. They cannot be defended, even on the touch-and-go principle; for Mr. Henley in many other places, where he is equally touching and going, gives chapter and verse with great punctilio. And, besides, he does his best in this volume to be a dryasdust, often accumulating useless titles and dates (from the British Museum Catalogue?) and putting himself through other paces of the indiscriminate editorial compiler.

Blunders, also, are not wanting. We refer not to inaccuracies in trifles, unavoidable in so minute a commentary, but to examples of pure carelessness. Such are the printing of the same letter twice—once in the text as No. 9 (p. 10), and again in the notes to No. 8 (p. 301); the printing of certain notes under the heading of the wrong letter (pp. 300, 307); the misquotation by which "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers" is spoken of as "a poem of 250 lines" (p. 308); the insertion of Boatswain's epitaph at p. 305 instead of p. 326, where it belongs; the heedless repetition of Redding's story that Beckford's 'Vathek' was the work of "three days and two nights" (p. 334); the confused and incomplete account of Beckford's literary production *(ibid.)*; the note on "Duck-puddle," unintelligible except to an English public-school boy (p. 358). Most surprising of all, however, is a note at p. 372. In a letter to Dallas (August 25, 1811) Byron writes: "I have also written to Mr. Murray my objection to sending the MS. to Juvenal, but allowing him to show it to any others of the calling" (p. 139). "*Juvenal*, that is, Hodgdon," explains our editor, "who had published a translation of the Roman four years before." Now the letter immediately preceding is this very letter to Murray, and makes it perfectly clear that it was Gifford, not Hodgdon, to whom Byron refers. The two passages, indeed, face each other as Mr. Henley's edition lies open before us! This exploit is to be matched only by Mr. Gosse's unblushing note on Keysler's 'Travels' in his edition of Gray.

In a word, Mr. Henley is not a good editor. He has not the talent, humble, perhaps, but pretty rare, of enlightening the reader unobtrusively. He is too nearly a genius for that lowlier function. Self-abnegation, self-effacement—at least in outward show—is the primal editorial virtue; and nobody has yet

counted this among Mr. Henley's qualities, nor is it an article of his creed. Indeed, his sympathy with the age of Byron is, we suspect, due to its boisterous assertiveness of individuality. As he himself says, in a passage already quoted, "it was . . . bent above all things upon living its life to the utmost of its capacity." Mr. Henley, then, is too much bent upon being himself to be a satisfactory cicerone in another man's gallery. The interest of the volume is divided between Byron and Henley. The line that should separate the author from the editor is frequently crossed. As an edition of Byron's letters Mr. Henley's book is something very like a failure.

Yet, by a curious freak of fortune, it is precisely the qualities that make Mr. Henley a bad editor that will secure his volume a place on the shelves of all who buy books. If he had been a careful, judicious, and finished commentator, he would have produced a volume which, in less than a year after its appearance, would have been made obsolete by the appearance of a more complete—and consequently a better—edition; for Mr. Prothero has had access to a vast deal of material which Mr. Henley could not use. As it is, however, what makes the incomplete Henley edition valuable is not the text, so immediately superseded, or the ordinary parts of the commentary, which Mr. Prothero is a better hand at, but the lively pictures of Regency life and manners which make up so large a part of the notes. Some of these are little masterpieces. They are the best reading in the world: full of variety and spirit, incomparably vivid, and, in places, almost distractingly clever. They ought to be read for themselves, not in connection with a text, and they will be so read, whatever may be the fate of Mr. Henley's edition as a whole.

We have said that the new Murray edition quite supersedes Mr. Henley's on account of its new material. A merely arithmetical computation makes this obvious. Mr. Prothero's first volume comes down to August 22, 1811, and contains 168 letters; for the same period Mr. Henley furnishes but 88. Mr. Prothero's manner towards his predecessor is perfect. "No one," he writes, "can regret more sincerely than myself . . . . the circumstances which placed this wealth of new material in my hands rather than in those of the true poet and brilliant critic who, to enthusiasm for Byron and wide acquaintance with the literature and social life of the day, adds the rarer gift of giving life and significance to bygone events or trivial details by unconsciously interesting his readers in his own living personality." This was written under the spell of the superb bits of character-sketching for which we have already expressed our admiration, and it is, on the whole, a just and fine tribute. But we cannot share the regret which it evinces, for Mr. Prothero is a remarkably good editor. His information is completer and more accurate than Mr. Henley's; his care is as remarkable as the other's heedlessness; and he knows how to give his work the proportion and the unobtrusive finish which mark the last elegance of artistic annotation. It is indeed fortunate that this final and authoritative edition of Byron's Letters was intrusted to so steady and competent a scholar.

The first volume, as we have seen, contains eighty new letters. More than half of these are addressed either to Byron's half-sister Augusta or to Mr. John Hanson, the family solicitor. There are about thirty letters to the latter and more than twenty-five to the former. Few of them have any literary value, but their biographical importance is considerable. The letters to Augusta Byron are particularly interesting. Most of them fall in the years 1804 and 1805, so that they throw light on Byron's early relations with his family. In particular they illustrate, in painful detail, what he had to endure from his mother. The letters to Hanson are mostly brief notes, and all of a business nature, but most of them were decidedly worth printing. Of the other letters, several to Mrs. Byron add little to what we already know. Two, to one of Byron's Harrow friends, Charles Gordon, are interesting schoolboy effusions. Two to Hobhouse are of more consequence. All are pervaded with the strong personality of the writer. Besides this new matter in the text, the notes are enriched by more or less unpublished material from the Murray archives. The effect of the whole is certainly not unfavorable to Byron.

In one respect Mr. Prothero and Mr. Henley have both erred, and that is in not stating, definitely, the sources of their texts and the whereabouts of the MSS. at the present day. In at least three cases Mr. Henley has a fuller text than Mr. Prothero. One is in the famous Lisbon letter about Beckford (to Hudson, July 16, 1809), in which a starred passage is filled out from the original. Mr. Prothero's text is still adorned with the stars. In the other two (Henley, pp. 61, 125; Prothero, pp. 226, 318) there is nothing in the new Murray to mark the excision. The "cuts" are of no moment except in the Beckford letter. Happily, even Mr. Andrew Lang cannot ascribe them to "American squeamishness."

Vol. I. of the Poems contains "Hours of Idleness" and other juvenilia; "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," "Hints from Horace," "The Curse of Minerva," and "The Waltz." The text has been determined with a care never before attempted. Manuscripts, early editions, old proof-sheets, and marginalia in Byron's hand have been diligently collated. There are two sets of foot-notes, one recording textual variants—why does Mr. Coleridge call them "*variorum* readings"?—the other containing the commentary, which is enriched with many hitherto unpublished remarks of Byron's own making. Mr. Coleridge's explanatory notes are, like Mr. Prothero's in the 'Letters,' admirably full and clear. In one important case, however, the problem of an *apparatus criticus* appears to have been too much for him. A comparison of the "Bibliographical Note" appended to the Preface (pp. xiv-xvi) with the Introduction to the "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," and with the textual foot-notes to that poem, reveals something very like an imbroglio. The inconsistencies are certainly glaring, and the reference (p. xvi) to the forthcoming Bibliography in vol. vi. for "a complete collation of the five editions of 'English Bards and Scotch Reviewers,'" looks like a confession of temporary defeat. The "Bibliographical Note" is, however, luminous and complete, and we can look forward to vol. vi. with confidence. This volume, which is to complete the 'Poetical Works,' will also furnish a much-needed index.

Vol. I. contains eleven unpublished poems—slight, unmeritable things, the suppressed residuum of early scribblings. We have the promise of at least nineteen more, among them fifteen stanzas of the seventeenth canto of "Don Juan" and a fragment of the third part of "The Deformed Transformed." The silly stanzas "To Mary," on account of which the Rev. Dr. Becher induced Byron to withdraw his first collection, are, we observe, omitted. Mr. Henley apparently intends to print them.

In mechanical execution the new Murray edition is all that the most fastidious could desire. The only fault one can find with the typographical style is that in vol. i. of the Poems there is not quite difference enough between the type of the text and that of the foot-notes. In vol. i. of the Letters this detail has been attended to. The illustrations are pertinent and well done. In closing, we cannot refrain from remarking, with pleasure, on the imprint, "London: John Murray." This denotes an uninterrupted relation between Byron's Works and Byron's publishers, which began in 1812, with the appearance of the first and second cantos of "Childe Harold," and to which this new edition assures an honorable continuance.

Sir Thomas Maitland. The Mastery of the Mediterranean. By Walter Frewen Lord. With photogravure frontispiece and maps. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

"The Builders of Great Britain" series has taken for its motto the following devout and patriotic sentiment of Milton: "Thou who of thy free grace didst build up this Brittanick Empire to a glorious and enviable heighth, with all her daughter ilands about her, stay us in this felicitie." To add another solemn strain, Mr. Lord finds in the prayer-book a phrase which gives the keynote of Sir Thomas Maitland's life. It is, "the safety, honor, and welfare of his Majesty and his dominions." While we have no design of reverting to first principles for the sake of analyzing either the growth or present character of the British Empire, we may observe that many agencies outside Milton and the prayer-book have been at work in the course of its erection. Mr. Hume's account of Ralegh revealed the play of obviously human forces, and in Maitland we meet a man whose private faults were only in some degree atoned for by the merit of his public service. Indeed, when one's notice is restricted to purely official actions, he is open to some censure. The fact that he was widely and sincerely hated in his own profession and among civilians by those whose loyalty equalled his own, proves that he fell short of the highest success even as a servant of the crown. Maitland was more than a "brutal tyrant"; but so coarse an element entered into his composition that he was unfitted by nature for becoming an ideal administrator. Mr. Lord dwells upon the nature of his ancestry. He came from a border stock inured to lawlessness through many generations. However softened this fiery strain might be by the burgher blood of a Norwich heiress, it was persistent. Fortunately, the work which he was given to do required toughness of fibre rather than humanity or conciliation.

The frontispiece, after a portrait by Hoppner, is of great value, both because Maitland's face is unfamiliar and because his features are an admirable illustration of the text. Allowance made for the artist's usual manner (and Hoppner is always feeling after strength), there yet remains a bulldog ex-

pression which suits well with a cannon in the background, and recalls Miss Earle's recent picture, "What we have, we'll hold." The left hand fingers the hilt of a sword; the right rests easily upon the cannon's mouth. Four decorations show that their owner has something to defend, and the visage is of one who may be most feared when he begins to be polite. Such a cast of countenance will explain any amount of enmity, but it bears promise of deeds like the fight of the *Revenge*. Looking at it dispassionately, we feel that the instinct of self-preservation is enough to justify Mr. Lord's concluding phrase: "May England never want for Maitlands at a pinch."

The paradox of Maitland's career is his singular parliamentary action during 1791-'94. After getting a taste of war in India and reaching the rank of major, he came home and was elected for the Haddington Burghs. During the critical years of the early French Revolution, he gave no hint of what his eventful course was to be. With a view to gaining prominence, he attacked the Government violently and unfairly. He talked what he knew to be nonsense about India and Tippoo Sahib, he opposed vigorous measures in the Mediterranean, and he ranted on the subject of Magna Charta. He discovered the use of parliamentary obstruction, and "did not hesitate to take any step, however absurd and undignified, which brought him into notice." He had in his favor several of the resources which cause a free lance to be feared—facility of speech, courage, and a family connection. We may assume that he was fighting for his own hand because, having agitated some six years, he came to terms and abandoned his radical friends. Considering that Maitland was above thirty years of age when he took his seat, it is impossible to reckon his factious conduct at a time of danger among youthful vagaries. He was ambitious, and took a shorter cut to promotion than a consistent patriot would have done. Once enlisted on the side of the executive by an appointment to the San Domingo command, he threw his full ardor into a cause which was both his country's and his own. Successive posts of honor and confidence sobered and exalted him till, towards the end of his career, he was devoured with true zeal for the imperial cause.

Passing over Maitland's West Indian and American experiences, and the part which, without fault of his own, he played in the Belle Isle fiasco, we come to his first very notable task, the control and reform of Ceylon. He was then, in 1805, at his prime, and the obstacles in his path were of the kind to bring out his best qualities. He followed Frederick North, a Governor whose activity had been ill directed and whose amiable disposition failed to atone for a mistaken policy. Mr. Lord looks on Maitland's rule of Ceylon as the most agreeable part of his life. Later on, he grew "fiercely cynical," but at forty-six he was still full of zest and eager to justify the good opinion of the Colonial Office. We cannot enter upon an examination of his methods or of their specific results. Sir James Mackintosh's verdict, after travelling in the island, must suffice: "It is impossible for me to do justice to Gen. Maitland's most excellent administration, which I am convinced never had an equal in India."

While running on about Maitland's character and activities in general, we seem to be losing sight of the matters which give him a place in this series. If his labors in Ceylon wear an imperial aspect, they were less closely connected with national greatness than was his management of British interests at Malta and Corfu. In the Mediterranean he was "King Tom." He had to do with plague, the Barbary States, the Holy See, and endless local aggravations, besides the standing difficulties attached to British sway in such an historic and complicated quarter of the globe. The chances of failure were many, and success could at the best be partial. The Ionian Islands were Maitland's crux. The ignorance, stupidity, and malice of the natives combined to make government trying, and to shape a constitution for such people would have taxed the adroitness of Sieyès. Recent Greek historians bear witness to the benefit which this part of the Mediterranean gained from Maitland's presence. On the other hand, the De Bosset case exhibits the Lord High Commissioner in a bad light. Perhaps Mr. Lord is right in saying that Maitland often fell to quarrelling out of sheer *ennui*. What would now be thought of an official in the highest rank who should so openly and gratuitously insult an officer that his Excellency's Secretary must try to explain the affront away by stating that his chief was drunk? And this for no other reason than that the said officer happened to be of foreign extraction.

Maitland issues from a sketch confined, like Mr. Lord's, to the events of his public service, more creditably than he would from a complete biography. Considered with reference to pure power, he was a force worth having on one's side. Were he the only kind of imperial agent England has had, the tradition of her rise to power would be less worthy than it is. If we except a little special pleading here and there, we can give Mr. Lord's essay hearty praise.

Faith and Doubt in the Century's Poets. By Richard A. Armstrong, B.A. New York: Thomas Whittaker. 1898.

The author of this little book is known to his Unitarian coreligionists in America as one of the most distinguished of their English preachers, the minister of a Liverpool parish, the limits of which, for purposes of social reform, are as wide as the city's. For anti-slavery people with long memories, he is the son of a father who, with the Carpenters and Gregs, was in the van of that goodly company to whom our abolitionists never looked in vain for sympathy and co-operation. The six chapters of his book comprise, with some modifications and additions, a series of lectures delivered to an evening congregation. There is not the least attempt to extort from the several poets treated a confession of the writer's special creed, and there is little said of their relation to the particular theological opinions of any church or sect. Only in the concluding paragraph we are reminded that Shelley alone found it worth his while to fling himself scornfully upon the traditional theology. The others simply passed it by. Nothing is made in the lectures of Byron's "clarion of disdain," but in the preface there is an apology for this omission; while that of Coleridge is excused on the ground that his religious influence was through the medium of his prose. The arrangement of the lectures is independent of the chronological relation of the six poets who are discussed. It corresponds to the swing from denial to affirmation which gives us the alternation of Shelley and Wordsworth, Clough and Tennyson, Arnold and Browning.

In Shelley we have preëminently, says Mr. Armstrong, "the spirit of Revolt," and this spirit he illustrates mainly by the earlier and cruder outburst in "Queen Mab," and its more chastened and ethereal expression in "Prometheus Unbound." At the same time he is at one with Dowden, Symonds, and other devout admirers of Shelley in his insistence that Shelley was essentially more religious than the theology which was generally acceptable to the British mind in Shelley's day. Incidentally, in the lecture on Wordsworth, we have Mr. Armstrong countenancing the myth that Keats was snuffed out by a reviewer. We have an admirable interpretation of Wordsworth's doctrine of Nature as the sphere in which God and man are both reflected, and, being so, attain a ground of mutual comprehension and communion. It is in the "Ode to Duty" rather than in the "Intimations of Immortality" that he finds Wordsworth at his best. He is wholly unable to accept the philosophy of the latter, and clearly the supposed intimations were reflections from Wordsworth's maturer mind upon his "thoughtless youth." Clough is treated with genuine sympathy, but we can hardly understand how Arnold, who has a lecture to himself, should appear the braver spirit. We seem to have encountered elsewhere—in R. H. Hutton?—the suggestion that Arnold carried his sadness with a kind of gayety. In the lecture on Tennyson, "In Memoriam" is perhaps too completely identified with Tennsyon's total experience. New sources of doubt were opened after the completion of that great monody in 1849, and Tennyson apparently drank deep at them, but ended on the note of faith. In one respect he had less faith than either Clough or Arnold: he distrusted more than they the immediate present, resting his heart on some "far-off divine event." Mr. Armstrong finds the faith of Browning more robust than Tennyson's; but he had less faith than Tennyson in man's ability to know the secret of the world. Intellectually agnostic, he had "the will to believe" to a remarkable degree, and let it have full swing. Where Browning had more faith than Tennyson was in his confidence that evil, as something to be triumphed over, is equally essential to man and to God.

La Musique à Paris. 1896-1897. Par Gustave Robert. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.

For the third time the French critic Gustave Robert has issued a volume entitled 'La Musique à Paris.' It is a sort of yearbook of the Paris musical season, consisting of articles probably reprinted from newspapers, together with some elaborate analyses of symphonic works. The appendix gives the complete programmes of the Chatelet, Opéra, and Cirque des Champs-Élysées concerts, together with a critical bibliography of last year's books on music, and an index of names, to which an index of subjects might have been profitably added. In this index it is pleasant to notice that Schumann, so long neglected in France, has seventeen entries—one more than Saint-Saëns. Bach is referred to fifteen times, while Wagner and Beethoven are disposed of with the complimentary "passim." The Viennese Schubert has only two entries—he is evidently

too *gemüthlich* for the Parisians, who are probably also annoyed by his interminableness. Yet M. Robert is enthusiastic over his chamber-music. Brahms also is referred to only three times, and not in terms of enthusiasm. For very different reasons than Schubert, he certainly will never become a Parisian favorite.

What nation has done the best symphonic work since the death of Beethoven and Schumann? M. Robert claims that France has, in the persons of Saint-Saëns and César Franck, whose symphonies he declares superior to those of Brahms and Goldmark. As a matter of fact, the Russians deserve the palm here. Tchaikovsky and Rubinstein have together written four or five symphonies which neither contemporary Germany nor France can match, while Bohemia comes in for second place with Dvorák. Oddly enough, our author has very little appreciation for the Russians. He does not admire Rimsky-Korsakoff or Balakiref, though the public applauded them, and he sneers at Rubinstein's exquisite ballet music, "Danse des Bayadères." Nay, he even abuses that masterpiece of inspiration, pathos, and passion, Tchaikovsky's "Symphonie Pathétique," which, he declares, has nothing symphonic about it but its name. He pronounces its motives to be "assez banals"; while the second movement suggested to him pieces by Massenet and Godard! But M. Robert will surely change his mind after hearing this great work again, if possible under a different conductor.

That M. Robert has so much more admiration for the Germans than for the Russians shows, at any rate, that he does not allow chauvinism to influence his critical faculty. Indeed, in expressing the opinion that France now leads the world in symphonic music, he avows that his sole object is to assist his countrymen to a more just appreciation of French composers. He pays particular attention to César Franck, who has no fewer than twenty-seven entries in the index. The past season, indeed, was "a Franck year," just as there have been Berlioz and Wagner years. César Franck, after being cruelly neglected and snubbed during his lifetime, at last had justice done to him, the concert-givers vying in their eagerness to bring forward his compositions, few of which he himself was privileged to hear. Our critic, indeed, admits that the movement went too far, a clique having arisen which lavished the same indiscriminate enthusiasm on "all of their new idol's works, the bad as well as the good." M. Robert steers clear of this shoal; his chapter on Franck's symphony in D minor (with copious musical illustrations) is an excellent example of critical analysis and appreciation. He notes that Franck has modernized his symphony by using a typical theme which reappears in all the movements, by uniting the andante with the scherzo so that there are only two stops, and by abolishing repetitions. The superabundance of motives interferes somewhat, he thinks, with the development.

The most striking and suggestive phenomenon in the musical world at present is the displacement of the soprano by the conductor. Some years ago, at a Western festival, Mr. Theodore Thomas had a quarrel with Mme. Patti regarding the interpretation of a certain piece. Mme. Patti insisted that she ought to have her own way, as she was the prima donna. "I beg your pardon," replied Mr. Thomas, "but here I am the prima donna!" Strictly speaking, the soprano is still the first *donna*, but there is now also a first *uomo*, and he is the conductor. Orchestral leaders travel now as a few years ago only singers did. London has nearly every eminent German conductor during its musical season, and at home these conductors travel about like mediæval minstrels. Paris, too, has now adopted the new fashion. Last season it sent Colonne to Odessa, and Lamoureux to London, while in turn it was visited by the Russian Winodgradsky and the German Mottl and Nikisch. The last even had the audacity to bring over the Philharmonic orchestra from Prussian Berlin. Some fears were entertained of "manifestations germanophobes," but, on the contrary, the venture gave proof that in the musical world, at any rate, French chauvinism is now at an end. One solitary man ventured to hiss, but he was indignantly silenced, and the Berlin concerts were received with enthusiasm. Some of M. Robert's remarks on Nikisch indicate, however, that the critic has not yet learned the reason why conductors now play such an important rôle in the musical world. They are no longer mere time-beaters, but they interpret orchestral works as pianists interpret their music, to the great delight of true music-lovers and the disgust of the critics, few of whom have as yet learned that not one-half of the expression that music calls for can be indicated in the printed notation which they pedantically insist should be exclusively followed by pianists and conductors.

The Laborer and the Capitalist. By Freeman Otis Willey. New York: Equitable Publishing Co.

Mr. Willey's book is so full of good sense and good feeling as to make it easy to pardon its literary defects. It is essentially an argument against the feasibility of schemes for promoting justice by depriving very rich people of their property; and, being the work of a business man, familiar with the causes of business success and employing illustrations taken from the course of business, it is well adapted for the average reader. Good evidence of the earnestness with which the author has devoted himself to his work is furnished by his having made a personal examination of the assessment rolls of the city of New York for the purpose of testing the truth of the current complaints of the excessive concentration of wealth. His investigation developed the remarkable fact that in 1840 the real property in New York was in fewer hands, proportionally, than at present. In that year, twenty-five individuals and estates appear to have owned the same proportion of the land as the 183 millionaires whose enormous holdings have so disturbed our modern agitators. But the modern millionaire is, compared with the small holder, less wealthy than his predecessor of fifty years ago. While the investigation is not exhaustive, it is sufficient to prove that the concentration of wealth has not resulted in such inequality as is commonly believed. If Washington had an estate worth a million dollars in 1792, as he is said to have had, he was probably a richer man, comparatively, than any American now living.

Mr. Willey subjects the figures presented by Mr. T. G. Shearman and Mr. C. B. Spahr to a critical examination. These writers have labored to show that the rich are growing richer at an appalling rate. Mr. Shearman figures that three-tenths of one per cent. of our population own 70 per cent. of the property, and Mr. Spahr, in a book adapted to arouse very bitter class feeling, maintains that two-thirds of the families in the city of New York are, "in a strict sense of the word, propertyless." Mr. Willey points out that Mr. Spahr assumes that people under twenty-five years of age have no accounts with the savings banks, that he disregards women's accounts, ignores the existence of out-of-town depositors in the city banks, and takes it for granted that practically all depositors' estates pass through the surrogate's court. Mr. Willey calculates that 83 per cent. of these accounts do not pass through this court at all, and that the inclusion of females would materially change Mr. Spahr's conclusions. If death causes the wealth of a community to change hands every thirty-three years, it would follow that, in Massachusetts, for instance, the value of decedents' estates should be about $84,000,000 per annum. But the records of the probate courts show that this value is about $52,000,000 per annum. Evidently the records of these courts are not altogether conclusive as to the value of decedents' estates. Mr. Willey computes that 38 per cent. of such property is otherwise administered.

It is also to be considered, as Mr. Willey suggests, that in the great cities the number of recent immigrants, who are generally very poor, is enormous, and that their advent cannot fairly be regarded as proving the concentration of wealth, although it of course on the surface indicates such a tendency. Mr. Shearman computed that in 1888 the nine richest people in Boston owned 3.75 per cent. of the assessed property, and that 56 people owned 10.08 per cent. Mr. Willey shows that in 1821 the nine richest citizens owned 8.52 per cent. of the property, and that 56 of them owned nearly 20 per cent. He concludes that in 1845 there were 333 people in Boston who owned a larger proportion of the wealth of the city than was owned by 1,254 of her richest citizens in 1888. He gives figures showing that the *Tribune's* table of 4,047 millionaires should be corrected so as to read 2,585. Mr. Spahr calculates that the 6,000 richest families in Boston are worth $1,614,000,000; which Mr. Willey remarks is about 90 per cent. more than the total valuation of the city. Altogether, Mr. Willey's figures deserve attention, and his book ought to be widely circulated. It states the claims of our communistic agitators fully and fairly, and refutes them in a temperate tone and in a scientific manner.

The Application of Psychology to the Science of Education. By Johann Friedrich Herbart. Translated and Edited by Beatrice C. Mulliner, B.A. With a preface by Dorothea Beale. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898. 8vo, pp. 231.

Psychologic Foundations of Education. By W. T. Harris. [International Education Series. Vol. 37.] D. Appleton & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 400.

One of these works is by the philosopher Herbart, the other by probably the most thorough-going Hegelian that is still active. The majority of recent treatises upon education belong to one or other of those schools. Now it is almost superfluous to say that no two philosophies conflict more fundamentally

than those of Herbart and of Hegel. Both cannot be even approximately true, though both may very well be utterly false. Both are creations of the early years of this century; and the accepted scientific methods of our age are as foreign to them as to phlogistic chemistry or to Aristotelian physics. That philosophers find them worth perusal is nothing to the present purpose. Under the circumstances, to base a practical undertaking so important as education upon either of these two systems would seem to be injudicious, to say the least.

If Herbart were alive to-day, it is probable that he would repudiate, with no little emphasis, much of the pedagogy founded on his writings, because, in the light of modern science, it is seen to be contrary to his deepest convictions. For his philosophy—the exact philosophy, as it was called—was founded upon mathematics and logic, although the state of those sciences when he wrote did not permit him to produce anything which can please a mathematical logician of the present day. As for Hegel, it may be doubted whether he ever himself regarded his own philosophy as so infallible as his disciples have done. He probably thought it ought to be tried and judged by its fruits. It has had a trial much more than fair. It has been weighed in the balance and found wanting. If Herbartianism is the "exact philosophy," it would hardly be unfair to Hegelianism, in view of the logical legerdemain with which it abounds, to call it the *inexact* philosophy, *par excellence*.

Commissioner Harris's book seems to be prompted by a wish to propagate Hegelian ideas in education. A teacher who is influenced by it will, at least, not entertain, nor let his scholars entertain, any grovelling or vulgar conception of life. Herbart's letters on education form an interesting historical document, as showing how he conceived his curious psychology was to be applied. The editorial matter in the volume is not free from the petty pedantic formalism which we associate with Herbartian treatises on education.

Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times. By Sydney George Fisher. Illustrated with photogravures, and with decorations by Edward Stratton Holloway. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1898.

"We are rediscovering," as Mr. Fisher says in his preface, "the debt we owe to the colonies," and learning how to picture to ourselves the history of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries as it unrolled itself in the American provinces. Fifty years ago this period seemed so inferior to the period in which we lived and moved and had our being that little thought was paid to the study of it. Now we have gone to the other extreme, and cultivate the study of the colonial period with a spirit partly historical and partly patriotic. The result is that we have rediscovered the fact, which it seems strange that we should have forgotten, that the period of the early settlement and development of this country was one of romantic adventure and picturesque life, such as cannot ordinarily be found in highly civilized countries. Since it passed away, we have become civilized and assimilated in many ways with the rest of the world, in a very short space of time. A hundred years lie between us and the colonies, and yet we look back at them as across a great gulf—no doubt because the interval measures changes which in former times, before steam and electricity, would have required centuries for their accomplishment. Hendrik Hudson and Pocahontas and Powhatan and the Puritans and Oglethorpe and even Bishop Berkeley and Lord Bellamont, to say nothing of Ponce de Leon or Raleigh, seem almost as far away from us as Quintus Curtius or Horatius Cocles must have appeared to the Romans of the Augustan age, while we have the advantage of being able to reclaim our history from myth, and of being quite confident that future researches cannot dim the lustre nor diminish the substantial accuracy of the tradition.

The merit of Mr. Fisher's book—we cannot put it in the same class with those of Parkman or Fiske—is that he gives in a small compass a picture of the whole system of colonial life, and, except for a certain boyishness of style, gives it, in the case of the more important colonies, very well. It may be safely assumed that it is easier to do this sort of work for Virginia, Massachusetts, and New York than for the others, because the materials here are at their fullest, or, at any rate, are here most full of interest. We would not for the world maintain that New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut, and the rest, are not entirely justified in a high opinion of themselves, or that Charles Carroll of Carrollton was not an important historical character; or that the "Episcopalian rice nobility" of South Carolina and their ancestors were not a fine set in their day; but, for several reasons, the historical interest of the times is most visible in Massachusetts, Virginia, and New York—a list which some Massachusetts authorities would reduce by leaving out New York.

In a chapter called "Cavaliers and Tobacco" Mr. Fisher gives a good account of the life in Virginia on the large estates, and shows how the community was really an assemblage of land-holders, who copied as closely as they could the customs and manners of the English classes they came from. With great plantations, and slaves, and a church, and men at the head of these who, in many instances, would have had authority and consideration in England, the Virginian gentlemen and their families *were* the State. Virginia was the "Mother of Presidents," because Virginia was a community where the young were early trained in the political art at home. To be concerned in the management of a Virginia estate in "Old" Virginia was to be a political man. A Virginia gentleman belonged to a *classe dirigeante*. In the same way, in Massachusetts, every householder belonged to a small governing class, and whether we call Puritanism theocratic or democratic, it was a system in which government of men by men was the first and last human interest. It brought the natural leaders to the front, with the same certainty that our present system brings "bosses" and corruptionists and middlemen. Hence, when the Revolution broke out, Virginia and Massachusetts led in it, and when the Constitution was to be adopted, they, mainly, had produced the great Federalists who were to draw it up and to apply its principles. When we remember Hamilton, Jay, Schuyler, and Kent, we recall the equality of New York with her sister colonies in the men she produced or brought forward, but New York's great men were not always natives, nor products of a system. In the end we go back to Virginia and Massachusetts, and feel that in them we find the tap-root of the umbrageous Federal tree of to-day.

Alas that the author should have to put down both the Virginian and the Massachusetts systems as of the dead past. But so it is. Not only are the plantations and the slaves and the landed gentry gone, but leaders of the old type are produced no more, and in the stern commonwealth which once seemed to recognize duty only, to the exclusion of rights, the godly Puritan is as shadowy as the personages in the legends of the Province House. Read the Life of John Quincy Adams, the latest great product of the old régime, and wonder that such a man lived and flourished a little more than half a century since! The author brings forward reasons for thinking that the literature of Massachusetts is also a thing of the past, having died with Longfellow, Lowell, and Holmes, and he speculates on the causes which produced the literary generation to which they belonged; but so we might say that there was a time when athletic sports flourished in Massachusetts, and insist that Harvard formerly won rowing races from Yale. It will not do to pursue this vein of thought too far. But no doubt, in the forcing house of modern civilization, states must rise, grow great, flourish, and sink into unimportance again, much more rapidly than in the primitive world as it existed before Massachusetts and Virginia were. From the ashes of the provinces has arisen the Nation of to-day.

Benjamin Franklin, Printer, Statesman, Philosopher, and Practical Citizen. By Edward Robins. [American Men of Energy.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898. Pp. ix, 354.

A new consideration of the character of Franklin ought, in good conscience, to show cause for existing. If it were not for the Autobiography, there might be no challenge to innumerable appreciations and depreciations, since Franklin's fame can endure even the most undiscriminating praise. Whether it is good or bad in matter, there will always be something entertaining to rehearse concerning him, but a resentment confronts all fresh attempts to supplant, howsoever unconsciously, Franklin's immortal *ipse fecit*. From the Autobiography itself must be drawn the chief substance of all studies; and in so far as these tend to divert attention from the greatest, perhaps, of American classics, there is cause for regret. Indeed, there is reason to fear that the Autobiography, left to its own simplicity, is not so acceptable to youth (for it is youth to whom such a career naturally most appeals), as are these doctored admixtures. Of this seducing type is the above work by Mr. Robins, who has availed himself as frankly as another of the one main source. The familiar story is told in an intimate and warm manner, with use of the phraseology and even slang of to-day. One may well be cordial in his style, but to say that Franklin was an "exploiter," or that "he put on a front," is to place a reader close down to a rating at which you may next call him "my good man." The later pages are better done, for in them Mr. Robins invades no field held by the immortals of literature. Once free of his obligations to the Autobiography, he tells vividly of Franklin's services in England, France, and of the honors of the closing years. Though signing the preface from the city itself, Mr. Robins does

not reflect the Philadelphia view of Franklin, but is commendatory, and always apologetic when it is needful to make admissions. He holds Franklin's wife to have been a "home body" of the exacting type, but he does not give due credit to her business skill, which proved so helpful to her unmethodical and careless husband, who later excited the wrath of the tidy Adams and Lee.

It is often not desirable, and it is never agreeable, to call attention to blemishes which at worst bear small proportion to the bulk, but in a book ostensibly addressed to younger minds errors of fact and speech become serious. It is proper to incriminate the proof-reader as well as the author for printing "Shays" as "Shay" (p. 332), or for passing such a phrase as, "It was to Paul Jones whom Franklin wrote" (p. 288). Unusual expressions, such as the "Cockpit," need explanation in a popular work. Too much credit seems to be given to Franklin's support of the bicameral system, especially since to the end his heart, if not his political wisdom, went with the single chamber. Something more of accuracy and less familiarity of style are commended, in a fair spirit, to Mr. Robins.

Physiology, Experimental and Descriptive. By B. P. Colton. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. xx+423, 103 figs., some colored.

In conceding to this work the rare quality implied in the relative position of the words "experimental and descriptive," we pay a high compliment to author and publisher. The initial chapter (after an introduction) leads the pupil to observe and interpret the movements of his own arm, and there is throughout a genuine and for the most part successful effort to indicate ways in which teacher and scholars may coöperate in performing simple experiments and in examining easily procured specimens as a basis for the comprehension and appreciation of the purely descriptive portions. It is, indeed, almost startling to find the bones, which usually constitute at the outset an osseous barrier to interest, briefly yet sufficiently presented in the concluding chapter.

What seem to be defects in the execution of an admirable plan we point out for the benefit of future editions. As in most of its predecessors, the least satisfactory portion is that on the central nervous system. Perhaps an adequate account within the prescribed limits is impossible so long as the pupils have little or no preparation; but it has been recently maintained by an experienced teacher that considerable real and accurate knowledge of the brain might be gained even in primary schools. On p. 67 are directions for killing a cat or rabbit in a tight box with a teaspoonful of chloroform or ether; the quantity should be three times as great, even of chloroform, and ether does not easily kill, although in time the animal would die of suffocation. However, it is encouraging to find the stand taken that animals may be rightfully killed for educational purposes. The entire subject of development of the individual is restricted to a diagram and brief account of the temporary teeth, and the fascinating and instructive phenomena of prenatal transformation are wholly ignored; hence the mention (p. 229) of a "Tokology" as a very valuable work, especially for all mothers, is, to say the least, unexpected; surely, the list of laxative and constipating foods quoted therefrom might have been compiled from other sources. Praiseworthy evidences of a desire to avoid ambiguities are the consistent use of dorsal and ventral, proximal and distal; of thoracic for the rib-bearing vertebrae; and of precaval and postcaval for the great veins. The retention of convolution for gyre and of pneumogastric for vagus was hardly to be looked for in so progressive a work; why, too, should the unobjectionable malleus, incus, stapes, sternum, and cochlea be replaced by the vernacular hammer, anvil, stirrup, breast-bone, and snail-shell? The metric system is unrepresented by even a table of equivalents. The index is fairly complete; and such entries as *fishing*, *shooting*, and *dentist* might well have been omitted. The frog described on p. 259 as having been deprived of his cerebrum is designated in the index as "brainless." Although the proof was read by at least a dozen other teachers, the following typographic errors are noted: Opposite p. 19, "glutœus" and "Achilles" for glutæus and Achillis; fig. 79, "cerebeilum"; fig. 83, "Silvius" for Sylvius; fig. 85, "Lawlois" for Landois.

The Science of Law and Law Making. By R. Floyd Clarke. Macmillan. 1898.

This work is intended as an introduction to the study of law. It contains "a general view of its forms and substance, and a discussion of the question of codification." The author, who is a member of the New York bar, has a theory with regard to the proper province of statute and case law, which involves a distinction first drawn, he says, by Mr. James C. Carter, in his well-known pamphlet on the proposed codification of our common law. This is, that statute law ought to be confined to matters involving "indifferent conduct," while "the rules governing matters of ethical importance should be left to slow and careful elaboration by the courts" (p. 437). To keep the two provinces separate, he would have a statutory rule of construction adopted, which the courts should apply to each case as it arose. But we have no reason for believing that such a division, assuming it to be enforceable, would be satisfactory to any one. One of the earliest instances of statute law, which has lasted down to our day, is "Thou shalt do no murder." This certainly relates to a matter of ethical importance, and yet the invariable practice of nations is and has been from the time of Moses to make it part of their criminal code. Much of the author's account of law contains valuable information, but he seems to us to have misconceived the point of Mr. Carter's argument, which was substantially that, enact and codify as you will, you will never cover the whole field of jurisprudence, because, after your code is finished, the original *jus* from which the whole has been evolved will still be there to suggest to judges, in the decision of cases, the principles of common right which must be resorted to in the work of interpretation and application. No rule of construction will affect this fact, which for ever makes codification under our system a temporary device.

Where we find ourselves at one with the author is in believing that some subjects lend themselves better to statutory, others to common-law regulation. The definition and prescription of the punishment not merely of murder, but of all crimes, is conceded to be a matter eminently well adapted for legislative regulation, but this is certainly not because the field covered is non-ethical. On the other hand, even in this field, as pointed out at p. 324, the discretion of the judge is generally resorted to where the precise limits of the punishment are to be fixed. Why? Because no legislator nor codifier can possibly foresee all the circumstances which may mitigate or aggravate the prisoner's guilt. Here, too, having to apply a *lex*, we fall back upon *jus* in order to enable us to do it. *Jus*, *virtus*, and *leges* were, if we remember right, what the goddess Egeria taught Numa to establish in Rome.

A French Volunteer of the War of Independence. Translated and edited by Robert B. Douglas. D. Appleton & Co. 1898.

It is curious that this amiable narrative, which first appeared in 1828, has not before now found a translator. Its author, the Chevalier de Pontgibaud, was a friend of Lafayette and on terms almost of intimacy with Washington. He lived long enough, but not too long, after the events in which he played an honorable part to write pleasantly and without garrulity. His earlier years were spent so gayly and so vainly that the displeasure of his family, and particularly of his aunt (not his mother-in-law, as Balch, in his 'Les Français en Amérique,' says), at last expressed itself through a *lettre de cachet* and an imprisonment of this hot youth in the Castle of Pierre-en-Cize. Escaping by means of the dulness, or perhaps the urbanity, of the prison guard, he soon found his way to America, where he served with modesty and bravery. The Chevalier viewed everything with the greatest good humor, and was especially lenient to his own early peccadilloes (for such, in the Gallic manner, did he consider bad debts and licentious company). More creditable than his self-complacency was his generous attitude toward the Americans and their cause, and this is in pleasing contrast to the sour dissatisfaction shown by some French officers who served us in the Revolution. He was among the first to receive one of the eagles sent to Lafayette from the Society of the Cincinnati, and soon after was given a handsome sum of money from the United States.

His third voyage, for he had made a second during the war, to receive his father's forgiveness and a Deputy-Captain's commission, pleased him no less than the first two. He was astonished to find Philadelphia transformed into "a new Thebes, a new Sidon." Talleyrand was then in America, and the Chevalier lost no chance to pay his lack of respect to the good Bishop of Autun. A version of the X Y Z affair is very lively and quite the author's own. In fact, there are herein some excellent stories which, if not new, have still a good flavor.

Pontgibaud's brother, who was a steadier head, had, as an *émigré*, established himself in Trieste, where he was building an honorable commercial name and doing many a friendly service to bankrupt kings and other notabilities. The Chevalier, who at last rejoins this brother, closes his recollections with the Restoration.

The general mirthfulness of the style has not escaped the translator, but it would be easy to indicate some faults from which a sympathetic typewriter ought to have saved

the book. Mr. Douglas, in his notes, attributes the sentence of D'Estaing to execution to the fact that the Count was a Mugwump! The Chevalier de Pontgibaud would not have been so severe as that.

The Building of the British Empire: The Story of England's Growth from Elizabeth to Victoria. With upwards of one hundred portraits and illustrations from contemporary prints. [The Story of the Nations.] By Alfred Thomas Story. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

Mr. Story takes the ascent of Elizabeth to the throne of England as the initial point of his sketch because, "with the severance of our last hold on any portion of French soil, the real and solid fortunes of England had their beginning." The author sketches in an entertaining way the rise and progress of the British Empire from that date down to the present age, making his book a collection of brilliant episodes and stirring events. In his last chapter he deals with the future, and points out that England's career of annexation may be considered at an end, and that her mission now is to spread good government over the very large portion of the globe which she rules. A "sense of justice" seems to be, in his mind, her most marked characteristic, but we doubt if the way to enforce this lesson is to dwell on the military and naval or the early colonial side of the history. If the world is to be either Anglo-Saxon or Cossack, those who must reconcile themselves to our or to English rule, will not be impressed with the important fact that they have become part of an empire built up by a sense of justice, if we content ourselves with repeating to them the exploits of Drake or Hawkins. There have been, indeed, in the building of the British Empire two distinct sets of forces, one of which has been merely that of aggression, while the other has been the longing for improvement, and it was not till the second got the better of the first that the empire was created. The empire begun in America, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, by discovery and fighting, was entirely lost because the old imperial ideas prevented the sense of justice from growing up, and the Indian Empire led to nothing till comparatively recent times. Down to the year 1832, there was little to make any foreign observer believe that England would attain her present surpassing greatness, and for our part we can see almost nothing in common between such expansion as took in Egypt and placed England at the gateway of the Suez Canal, and the raids of Drake or the foreign policy of the last century. Echoes of the past may be heard, no doubt, in such proceedings as the Jameson raid, but they do not appeal to our sense of justice.

England's empire has been really built up through her having discovered, if it may be so described, the secret of good government in what we should call the modern scientific sense; that is, of putting at the head of the work the fit man to do it, and of providing a career so attractive to him that he is sure to enter it—the uncorrupt man to judge and to administer, the capable man to represent, and the efficient man to execute. There is plenty of material in English biography to exhibit this side of the picture, and of course it is partly to be found in such narratives as Mr. Story's. He, however, goes out of his way to insist that "the splendor of British achievement in the past" was "not the work of men of exceptional gifts and high place" so much as of "the common sons of common mothers," who simply did the task they found to their hands. This is true enough, also, if we understand what is meant by it; but the reader must remember that there is more in the building of an empire than "meets the eye."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bedard, J. E. Code Municipal de la Province de Québec. Textes Français et Anglais. Montreal: C. Theoret.
Beers, Prof. H. A. From Chaucer to Tennyson. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Cornill, Prof. C. H. History of the People of Israel. Written for Lay Readers. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.50.
Eliot, G. E. Dryden's Palamon and Arcite. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Fitzmaurice-Kelly, Jaime, and Ormsby, Juan. Don Quixote de la Mancha. Primera Edición del Texto. Vol. I. London: Nutt; New York: Putnams.
George, Lyman F. Falling Prices and the Remedy. Boston: George Book Publishing Co.
Hale, Miss Susan. Men and Manners of the Eighteenth Century. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Inman, Col. Henry. Tales of the Trail. Topeka: Crane & Co. $1.
Joy, J. R. Twenty Centuries of English History. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Judson, H. P. Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Lyte, E. O. Elements of Grammar and Composition. American Book Co. 50c.
Pearce, J. H. Ezekiel's Sin. A Cornish Romance. G. H. Richmond & Son.
Pellissier, G. Pages Choisies des Grands Ecrivains. Diderot. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Riley, J. W. Armazindy. [Homestead Edition.] Scribners.
Upward, Allen. God Save the Queen! Traduit de l'Anglais par George Elwall. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Van Noppen, L. C. Vondel's Lucifer. Translated from the Dutch. Continental Publishing Co.
Winchell, Alexander. Walks and Talks in the Geological Field. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Zola, Emile. Letters to France. [The Dreyfus Case.] John Lane. 35c.

Plant Life.

By Prof. Charles R. Barnes

of the University of Chicago. 428 pp., 12mo, $1.12 *net*.

JOHN GARDINER, *Professor in the University of Colorado:* "It is one of the most interesting books that I ever read. . . . The strong points seem to me, apart from the general character of the book, the large number of good illustrations new to elementary text-books; the insistence on correct notions of reproduction, and the alternation of generations, which will save college teachers much trouble when students come to them having used this book; and the section on ecology."

V. M. SPALDING, *Professor in the University of Michigan:* "I am impressed with its comprehensiveness, trustworthiness, clearness, and simplicity of statement, combined with scientific accuracy and a common sense adaptation to the needs of students for whom it was prepared. Such a book has been greatly needed, and it has at last been written in such a way as to leave nothing to be desired except teachers who know how to use it. It can hardly fail to materially promote the development of the right kind of biological work in the secondary schools. The author seems to me to have attained his own ideal, and greater praise it would be hardly possible to give."

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THE ART OF WAR.

A History of the Art of War

The Middle Ages from the Fourth to the Fourteenth Century. By CHARLES W. OMAN, M.A., Fellow of All Souls, Oxford. 8vo, pp. 667. With 24 plates of Maps, Plans, and Illustrations. $4.50.

The above volume forms the second of a series of four, of which the author intends to present a general sketch of the history of the art of war from the Greek and Roman times down to the beginning of the 19th century. The first volume in chronological order, which will cover the classical division of the subject, will be issued shortly. The third volume will be devoted to the 15th, 16th, and 17th centuries, while the fourth volume will treat of the military history of the 18th century and the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars down to Waterloo.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 25, 1898.

The Week.

The fact that Manila was captured by our forces in fight after it had been surrendered to us by the terms of the protocol with Spain, has given a new impetus to the demand for occupation and retention of the whole Philippine group. There is no logic in this kind of reasoning. We cannot be more in possession of Manila after the battle than we were before, because Spain had already handed it to us. Moreover, as we are dealing with a conquered enemy in any case—one who has no navy and no means of creating one—it rests with us to say whether we shall take the Philippines or not, quite irrespective of the fighting that took place after the protocol was signed. So the question of retention or non-retention of the islands is not affected in any way whatever by the battle of Manila. That was a regrettable circumstance. All the maiming and killing and wasting of property were a dead loss to the United States and to the world, due to the want of cable communication between the hostile forces and their respective governments. If the element of generosity is allowed to enter into transactions of this nature we might well consider that we are dealing with a fallen foe, with one far inferior to us in strength, and with a country that discovered America, and in one sense gave us the home that we now enjoy. It may be, and probably is, true that Spain will be better off without the Philippines than with them, but that is equally true of ourselves.

The Cuban insurgent leaders say they must wait to get orders from their own provisional Government before deciding what to do. If anybody can find their President and Cabinet and receive instructions to "cease firing" (the order which the valiant Irish colonel gave when informed that the ammunition was exhausted), the war will be over. But our Government, meanwhile, has issued orders to Gen. Lawton declaring that the war is over, and that the Cuban insurgents and everybody else must recognize "the cessation of hostilities." Interference from any quarter, say Gen. Lawton's instructions from Washington, "will not be permitted." "Any quarter" means, of course, the Cuban insurgents. So if they propose to do any more fighting, it will have to be with the United States.

Archbishop Ireland, who has been talking with Mr. McKinley, says that there will be no religious difficulty whatever in connection with "the Church question in our new possessions." The American principles of church and state independent of each other will be applied, and everything will be lovely. But there was never any thought of difficulty on the score of "principles"; it is in practice that the rub comes, and the Archbishop himself shows in one sentence just where it will come. "Certain people," he says, "who talk of those territories as fields for missionary efforts from the United States, do not know what they are talking about." You might as well send missionaries to Washington, says the Archbishop, as to Santiago or San Juan (he discreetly says nothing about Manila). This will give food for thought to such Protestant missionary societies as have already met to parcel out "our new possessions." It will be a surprise to them that they did not know what they were talking about.

The actual raising of our flag over the Hawaiian Islands was not, writes the Honolulu correspondent of the *Sun*, "as joyous an occasion as far-off America may imagine." The natives disappeared from the streets, not being able to bear the sight of their own flag hauled down and their "nationality snuffed out like a spent candle." There was no music, for the native band had thrown away their instruments and would not play. There was as little speech-making as possible, and only dismal attempts at cheering. Admiral Miller, in charge of the ceremonies, perceived that the whole thing was intensely distasteful to the natives, and had the good sense to cut it short. "It was but another roll of the Juggernaut car in which the lordly Anglo-Saxon rides to his dream of universal empire." "When it was over, women who wore the American emblem wiped their eyes, and men who have been strong for annexation said, with a throb in the throat, 'How sad it was!'" We are content to take this account of accomplished Hawaiian annexation from its most flamboyant and fleering advocate. The *Sun* has all along laughed in its sleeve at the way the *Independent* and other religious papers have been taken in by its pretences of humanity and missionary zeal in this Hawaiian business, and now very properly turns on them to show that what they have been helping on is the roll of our Juggernaut car over a helpless race.

Two Republican State conventions were held on Wednesday week—one in the North and the other in the South; and the student of public sentiment looks to the platforms adopted in Wisconsin and Tennessee for indications as to the drift of popular feeling on the new issue of outside possessions for the United States. So far as the Western State is concerned, no light whatever is cast upon this question by the resolutions framed in Milwaukee, because they are entirely silent regarding the whole subject of annexation, undoubtedly out of deference to Senator Spooner, who opposed the acquisition of Hawaii and is understood to doubt the wisdom of taking the Philippines. The Tennessee Republicans were not restrained by any such consideration, and adopted this deliverance:

> "We believe in an extension of trade and commerce with foreign countries. Believing that trade follows the flag, we declare in favor of the annexation of Porto Rico and all the West India Islands, the ultimate annexation of Cuba by the free consent of the people of the island, and such control of the Philippines and other islands as shall secure to the United States the trade and commerce of those islands and good government of their people."

The resolutions adopted by the Saratoga conference on foreign policy yield a notable sign of the times. When the conference was called, it was thought to be intended as a protest against colonial acquisitions, but this appears to have been a mistake. Free discussion on both sides was invited. The speeches against "imperialism" were more numerous and, we think, weightier than those in favor of it, yet the resolutions, which were unanimously adopted, practically surrender the whole case to the expansionists. We say this because when you affirm that "we should not be justified in returning the conquered islands to the misrule and oppression from which we have relieved them," and that "the rescued and liberated people . . . are in a sense temporarily the wards of the conquering nation," you practically invite and endorse the whole colonial policy. Not to return the islands is to keep them, down to the smallest and most distant, and to treat their inhabitants as "wards" is to govern them according to *our* idea, not their own, of what is for their own best good. And colonial wards are a fearful time coming of age. The Filipinos have been three hundred years at it, and are still only infants in arms. It is certain they will not reach full age in the lifetime of any of the gentlemen who drafted the Saratoga resolutions. So we say that these resolves are most eloquent of the way the nation is tending. It is already late to ask if we shall have colonies; we have them already, and the only thing to discuss is how best to govern them.

Sir Charles Dilke has a brief article in the *Pall Mall Magazine* on "An Anglo-

American Alliance," in which he makes one or two very sensible remarks. He says it is still necessary to point out, as it has been any time since 1867, that "fair relations with Ireland" on the part of England are essential to any possible alliance with the United States. Sir Charles doubts very much if the present good feeling for England in this country is proof against "political temptation," and he sees clearly that any fresh Irish outbreak would present that temptation in its most acute form. On the other hand, the establishment of a protective tariff in our colonies that are to be, would turn British complacency into British irritation. Yet he thinks that neither of these dangers will be fallen into, and that while there will be no permanent alliance (of which he justly says there is no sign), there will probably be "common action" in securing certain ends of human and commercial liberty; and this is far better than a formal alliance for military purposes.

Attention is now drawn to the negotiations with Canada respecting the Bering Sea question, the Alaskan boundary, the transportation - in - bond question, and other matters that have been left in a ragged state for several years. There is every reason to believe that an agreement will be reached upon all the matters in dispute. There is some reason to think that steps may be taken to relax the tariff on both sides of the line. This ought not to be difficult. Canada is anxious to secure the free entry of certain agricultural products which really do not compete with our own farmers. Of what use, for example, is a tariff on Canadian wheat when the price of both Canadian and American wheat is fixed in foreign markets? The competition takes place in Liverpool and is unaffected by the United States tariff. It would, however, be a convenience to the Canadian producer to have the choice of the American or the English market to sell in. What is the use of a duty on Canadian barley, in the production of which Canada has so great advantage of soil and climate that our brewers must buy it at any cost? What advantage is it to us to put taxes on hay, fresh milk, and fresh eggs? Then there is the matter of lumber. Why should we offer a premium for the destruction of our few remaining forests of white pine, and put an unnecessary tax on the Western farmer and the Eastern mechanic for the houses they live in? On the other hand, have we not an interest in preventing the imposition of a surtax of 25 per cent. on our manufactured goods in the Canadian market?

These are not the only questions in issue. The Boards of Trade of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have petitioned the Canadian members of the conference to offer access to their inshore fisheries in exchange for equal access to the markets of Cuba and Porto Rico. This is something that our Commissioners ought to agree to forthwith. It is so much clear gain. Unless we are going to follow the example of Spain by taxing our new colonies for the benefit of our own treasury or our own producers, of which we have heard no hint in any quarter, we shall grant this request, not only to Canada, but to every other country. But since Canada does not wish to take any risk in the premises, she offers a valuable concession to our fishermen. Under existing law our fishermen are not allowed to fish within the territorial waters, *i. e.*, within three miles of the shore, nor can they enter the ports of Canada except for shelter or to obtain wood and water. It is said that the fishermen of Canada will oppose the granting of this privilege, but if it is really insisted upon by the mercantile class their opposition will be ineffectual.

One consequence of the severe examination to which the volunteers were subjected before enlistment should be the future relief of the pension rolls. It is satisfactory to see that the Government proposes to supplement this entrance examination with a final one, and to keep an official record of the physical condition of every soldier at the time of his discharge from the service. According to a statement made by Gen. Corbin, this examination "will reveal whether they were wounded, sprained, hearing impaired, or sight injured, and if they have suffered any disability that they know of or the physicians can find. This is to be put down in black and white, and the soldier is to sign it if he knows of no objections to it." Such a regulation as this is obviously for the advantage of honest soldiers, as it will enable them to establish their claims to relief if they have any valid ones, and it should afford some protection to the people of the country against frauds on the pension list. Unfortunately, the chief danger of the country comes from Congress, and the ordinary Congressman in search of supporters will be sure to favor liberal pensions to every soldier who enlisted in this war, whether his military service impaired his health or not.

The first man to reap political profit from the war is Gen. "Joe" Wheeler of Alabama. He has represented his district in Congress so long that other politicians have for some time been inclined to think that he has "had enough," and as long ago as last February one of them, Samuel Blackwell, announced his candidacy for the Democratic nomination. After the war broke out and Gen. Wheeler entered the army, Mr. Blackwell held that military duties would keep the veteran out of Congress, and so he continued his own candidacy. But the war is already over, and Gen. Wheeler has made it known that he wants to return to the House. The people of his district are so ready to grant his request that all his rivals see the folly of making any contest. Mr. Blackwell has retired from the race in a letter to the Democrats of the district, in which he says: "I think I know the sentiment of the people, and since Gen. Wheeler's announcement, asking reëlection, I feel sure that no man can defeat this hero of two wars." He accordingly moves that his rival's nomination "be made unanimous." Both the Republicans and the Populists of the district are represented to be very ready to second this motion, and the prospect is that Gen. Wheeler will be the only candidate next November. There are also indications that Gen. Wheeler will be a strong candidate for the United States Senate, to succeed Morgan when the latter's term expires.

Mr. Jenks, the Democratic candidate for Governor in Pennsylvania, is trying to make his campaign on State issues, but he cannot succeed, for two reasons. In the first place, there is too general and strong a suspicion that he is really a Democratic ally of the Quay machine for him to overcome by any disclaimer. In the second place, as one Democrat of prominence and ability who championed the cause of free silver on the stump during the Bryan campaign, he is fatally handicapped in a sound-money State. No independent voter can support a silverite for Governor of Pennsylvania, and it was for this reason that the Quay machine used all its influence to secure the nomination of Jenks, instead of a Democrat like Judge Gordon, whose candidacy would not have involved the issue of free coinage. As things now stand, there is but one course for the independent voter—to support Dr. Swallow, the "Thou shalt not steal" candidate. As regards the Legislature, the Independents should throw their strength everywhere against the Quay candidates in whatever may seem the most effective manner in any district. The Business Men's League has decided to prosecute an aggressive campaign for the control of the Legislature against Quayism, and it is announced that Mr. Wanamaker will take the stump in every district in support of an intelligent, honest, economical General Assembly. The Legislature is really more important than the governorship this time, because it is the former which will decide whether Quay shall remain boss of the State through reëlection to the Senate. There should be a hearty union of the decent forces against the machine throughout the State. With such a union Quay can be beaten.

While the excess in the value of exports from the United States over that of imports was in July less than in some previous months, it was larger for the month of July than ever before. The result was caused by the continued decline in the value of imports and the continued advance in that of exports. The value of imports was scarcely over $50,000,000, the smallest for the calendar year. It is to be borne in mind that these figures do not include the movements of the precious metals, which amount for the seven months past to a net export of $13,558,000 of silver and a net import of $87,487,000 of gold. Allowing for these items, there still remains a balance for the seven months in favor of the United States of $243,000,000. If we go back six months into 1897, making the same allowances, the favorable balance for the last thirteen months would be $557,000,000. During the coming months our great staples will swell our exports enormously, so that even if our imports should increase largely, the balance would be likely to continue to be heavily in our favor. By next August this balance for two years may amount to $1,000,000,000, and at the same time both our production and our importation of gold will have been very great. There has never been an opportunity so favorable for reforming the currency, and if it should be neglected, it would be unreasonable to hope for a similar one. Nothing is more certain than that after a period of prosperity there will come a time of adversity, and, with the enlarged expenses of our imperial policy and the consequent increased taxation, we must be prepared for the demand that the Government shall issue more money to relieve the hard times. If we can get the Government out of the business of issuing money altogether, it will make it a good deal easier to resist inflation than it has been in the past.

The address delivered by Mr. Hendrix before the American Bankers' Association at its meeting at Denver is a very striking review of the progress of the nation. Denver was a good place for this meeting. Two years ago it was almost as much as a man's life was worth in Colorado to question the dogma that the only salvation of the State was to be found in the free coinage of silver. Free coinage of silver has been overwhelmingly defeated, and now Denver finds itself enjoying the greatest degree of prosperity which it has ever known. Its inhabitants ought to be disposed, under these circumstances, to admit that their dogma is erroneous and to listen to Mr. Hendrix with receptive minds. He tells them that during the first six months of 1898 the bank clearings were larger than ever before, the deposits greater, and prices advancing. The Government had ceased to issue paper money, but somehow the total money circulation increased almost $200,000,000, and the per-capita circulation was more than two dollars greater for 75,000,000 people. At the same time the amount of freight carried by the railroads was larger than ever before, and whereas 20 per cent. of the railroad mileage was in receivers' hands in 1894, only 5 per cent. is now so held. What should particularly impress the people of Colorado is the fact that their State now produces more gold than any other, and that its gold product this year will probably exceed in value the silver produced in 1890, the year when the Sherman law was passed. In fact, the annual yield of the gold mines of the earth is now greater than that of the gold and silver mines together ten years ago.

Taking up the business of banking, Mr. Hendrix mentions a number of facts that should modify the hostility to bankers that has been so loudly declared in some parts of the West and South. For one thing the profits of banks are declining. Their net earnings, on capital and surplus, are not more than 6 per cent. The national banks earned in the year 1896-'97 only 5.4 per cent. Their average earnings for twenty-eight years have been only 7.8 per cent., and out of the 5,000 banks organized under the national banking act over a thousand have withdrawn because their profits were insufficient. Moreover, the "money power" of the banks is not the power of a few, but of a multitude. The number of depositors runs into the millions, and the national banks alone are owned by 281,000 stockholders, of whom about 102,000 are women, while over 60 per cent. of them own ten shares or less. As Mr. Hendrix shows, the banking business is so interwoven with all the business of the country that it is impossible for it to prosper except with general prosperity, and the importance of reforming the currency is forcibly stated.

As if to emphasize the failure of the conference for the abolition of sugar bounties, the French Government has decreed that after September 1 of the present year the law of 1897 shall be enforced. Under this law a bounty will be granted on exports of refined sugars, both French and colonial, ranging from 2.42 to 3.11 francs per 100 kilograms. With this additional bounty given to his competitors, the West Indian planter will hardly be consoled by Mr. Chamberlain's state-aided sugar works, and the British Government will find that in a war of bounties there is no stopping-place. It is just as easy for the French Government to increase its bounty as it is for the British; or, rather, it is a good deal easier, because it is more consistent. In this connection we may notice the figures presented by the French Ministry of Agriculture in a bulletin entitled "Sur le régime des Sucres," which contains much interesting information concerning the sugar industry, as well as an account of the proceedings at the recent congress and a summary of the sugar legislation of the principal governments. An examination of these figures shows how directly and how extensively British consumers have been benefited by the export bounties laid by foreign countries. The annual imports of raw cane-sugar into the United Kingdom have fallen from about 12,000,000 cwt. in 1883 to less than 8,000,000 in 1897, and those of refined cane-sugar have practically ceased. The imports of raw beet-sugar have remained nearly stationary, but those of the refined article have risen from 3,144,000 to about 15,000,000 cwt. Thus the imports of beet-sugar, raw and refined, which may be regarded as identical with "bounty-fed" sugar, from being thirteen years ago equal in amount to those of cane-sugar, have become three times as large. But in spite of bounties, the exports of sugar refined in the United Kingdom have been maintained at about the same figure for the last dozen years. During this period the consumption of refined sugar has increased five fold, while the price has fallen more than one-half. The prospects of still cheaper sugar under the influence of French export bounties may be faced with equanimity by some 40,000,000 of people in the British Islands, even if some planters in Jamaica and Barbados are driven out of business.

Things have come to such a pass in France that if anybody says "justice," he is suspected of a desire to subvert the Government. The *Siècle* reports an extraordinary occurrence in connection with the recent official celebration of the Michelet centenary. An ode written for the occasion by M. Maurice Bouchor was objected to by the Minister of Public Instruction because the poet had been imprudent enough to put into it the word justice. In one of the stanzas he had invoked the shades of Michelet, Hugo, and Quinet to recall to the minds of Frenchmen and to the world that "France is the champion of right." M. Brisson saw at once that this would never do. The poet might as well have said outright that he thought Dreyfus illegally convicted, and what would become of society then? So he sent for M. Bouchor and labored with him for an hour in the attempt to get him to withdraw two of his stanzas. But the poet concluded to withdraw the whole of his poem. "I see," he said, "that I am not made to sing at official ceremonies." And he declared that, under the circumstances, he was not sorry to have no part in a glorification of Michelet by the existing Government of France. "The irony of it was too cruel."

THE OPPORTUNITY OF OUR POLITICIANS.

There is no doubt a general feeling that, for good or ill, the country is committed to some kind of colonial policy. A correspondent maintains in effect that the government which this country is to give the islands taken from Spain is, like the quality of mercy, twice blessed. It is not only to bless the Cubans and the Filipinos, but also the people of the United States. In fact, it is because it is to promote the welfare of our own country that our correspondent favors it, and the benefit to subject peoples is a subordinate consideration.

We are compelled to say, however, that our correspondent begs the question. He says that "we, as an organized community," are capable of governing colonies as well as or better than any other nation. To hold any other opinion is, in his view, to reflect in a perfectly unjustifiable way on the moral and intellectual character of Americans. But the fact that our correspondent entertains strong convictions of this character is not an argument in favor of their truth or wisdom that will be generally admitted to be conclusive. It may be significant of the extent to which such convictions prevail, and of the class of people who hold them, but it is not a valid argument as to the existence of the capacity in question. The only valid arguments on such a point are of an historical nature, and none are produced.

It may be observed that it is in itself irrelevant whether our Government can administer colonies better than other governments do. It would be hard to administer them worse than Spain, or Italy, or perhaps even than France. It might be possible to administer them very well, and yet with injurious results to our own interests. But it is of the utmost importance to remember that it is the "organized community" that will carry on the administration. In other words, it will be the President and Congress, or the members of the dominant party in Congress. When people talk of the capabilities and achievements of the American people, what they really have in mind is the results attained by private enterprise and individual talent. "Practical things," says our correspondent, "are precisely what Americans have hitherto accomplished more easily and more ably than the people of any other nation," and it is enough for him to revert to the record of what our people have done in the past to convince him of their certain success in the future. But if he will revert to the record of what Congress has done in the past and is doing now, he will find it very difficult to make out a case for the distinguished ability of that body to do anything practical at all. He must be acquainted with the history of our currency legislation, and can hardly fail to recognize that the practical men of the country have pleaded and struggled with the politicians in Congress to allow the country a chance to prosper, and have pleaded and struggled in vain. He should be familiar with the dealings of our Government with its Indian wards, to which we have several times referred, but we cannot believe that he either admires or defends these dealings. He reads daily of the lynching of negroes in the Southern States without interference on the part of the "organized community," and why should he expect a better state of affairs in such a country as Cuba, the vile character of whose inhabitants our newspapers are now denouncing? And what has he to say about the way we manage our municipal affairs?

It is said that the war has had one benefit, in throwing into the background several noxious questions of domestic policy. The war was openly advocated on that ground by some Republican politicians at the outset, but they were quickly advised that it was not expedient to dwell on that result, but to accept it with silent gratitude. No doubt it is a relief to have the tiresome silver clamor cease, but it would have been better to fight the battle through and end it finally by reforming the currency system. It is not only "noxious questions of domestic policy" that are thrown into the background by war, but reforms of every kind. The notion that we are about to place in public office men of superior character can hardly be described otherwise than as childish. "The right men are ready to come to the front when the people call upon them." They have been ready before, but the people have not called upon them, and what sign is there of such a call? Is it to be observed in Pennsylvania, or in Ohio, or in New York? Was it observable in Washington when the positions in our new army were filled?

The question whether our correspondent and those who agree with him are to enroll themselves among the advocates of imperialism is not an important one. The result will be the same by whatever name it is called—the establishment of something resembling the Roman proconsular government over subject races. To hold such government compatible with the principles laid down in the Declaration of Independence is a contradiction in terms. That Declaration is the foundation of popular government; the proconsular system is the development of aristocratic government. It may be a very good system, and when it is administered by a trained and singularly enlightened aristocracy, like that of England, it may be as good for the governors as for the governed, although we doubt it. Mr. John Morley, we believe, has pointed out that, as England grows democratic, her policy of holding other peoples in subjection must be abandoned. But such a system administered by our Senate could not be a good system for anybody except the proconsuls and their favorites. Our Senate would follow the Roman precedent, and give the lucrative commissions that will immediately spring into existence to ex-Senators and ex-Representatives and other people having political influence. If any patriotic American feels his blood boil at having such things said of his country, let him sit down calmly and think what Senator Quay and Senator Platt will do when the new colonial offices are to be filled.

WARNINGS OF EXPERIENCE.

The Galveston *News*, which is an enthusiastic advocate of the policy of imperialism, takes issue with the contention that we have not dealt with inferior races in a magnanimous way. It maintains in the first place that it is not wrong to assume responsibilities which our Government, judging from its past, is not fitted to discharge. It holds that we should have faith in the American Government, even if it is likely to fail. Unless we have this faith, it argues, we shall "put a limit on our struggling and expanding natural energies and resources," and create "self-imposed obstacles in taking our proper place in the evolution of civilization and the world's destined advancement." No doubt confidence is important to success. It is seldom wise for any one to undertake an enterprise in which he expects to fail. But what is far more important to success is that this confidence should rest on rational grounds, that our faith should be a reasoned faith. And in attaining such faith in whatever concerns human action, we know of no guide but experience. We can predict the conduct of men in the future only by observing what their conduct has been in the past. This is the fundamental principle of political science because it is the fundamental principle of all science. Unless we assume the course of nature to be uniform, we can attain no certain knowledge; and unless we assumed that human beings would act in the future as they have acted under similar conditions in the past, we could not frame a single measure of legislation.

As if not willing to rest the cause of imperialism on unreasoning faith alone, the Galveston *News* boldly asserts that our Government has been so successful in dealing with inferior races as to make it probable that it will succeed in further attempts in this direction. We are very glad to have this position so plainly stated, because it greatly simplifies the issue. It does away with a great deal of cant, which has prevailed during this war to such an extent as to make some of our "religious" papers very sad reading to many people who would like to keep the Christian religion pure and undefiled. The Galveston *News* flatly as-

serts as an historical fact that our Government has dealt about as well with the Indians "as they could be dealt with without giving up the country to them and their savage propensities. They have been crushed and eliminated only so far as they have irreconcilably opposed the march of civilization." Somewhat to our surprise, the Galveston *News* refers to the "negro problem" as an historic fact of the same character, and claims that it has neither been shirked nor allowed to get past solution. And we may fairly presume that our treatment of the Chinese would also meet with the approval of this journal.

We are, therefore, justified in assuming that the "higher civilizing force" of our Government in carrying out a colonial policy will satisfy the imperialists if it takes the same course as it has taken in this country. We regard this as probable, and we should be very glad to have the imperial party in general take this position. But it is precisely because we anticipate such a policy that we strenuously oppose it. We should consider it very deplorable to have the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands treated as our Indians have been treated, to have the people of Cuba ruled as the negroes in the Southern States are ruled, and to have Asiatic peoples forbidden to emigrate to the islands which we annex in the Pacific Ocean. One of our missionaries to Japan pleaded most earnestly for the annexation of Hawaii to the United States, because if it were not annexed the Japanese would emigrate to it in large numbers. It is scarcely pretended that American laborers will emigrate thither, and it might be thought a humane proceeding to allow the crowded Japanese to go where they could find room, since we did not need the room ourselves. But if they are allowed to go to Hawaii now, it is safe to say that they will not be allowed the right of self-government.

As to the "historical facts" of the Galveston *News*, we need hardly say that we cannot admit their existence. The evidence is conclusive that our treatment of the Indians has been marked with corruption, with treachery, and with cruelty. We cannot summarize this evidence, but we should like to see our imperialists take up the cases of the Cherokees and the Seminoles, for instance, and defend the treatment which they have received. It is tolerably well known that the Quakers managed to get along with the Indians without bloodshed, and it requires much hardihood to deny that most of the outbreaks by the Indians have been occasioned by the unbearable oppression of the whites. It may be added that no department of the federal Government has been so corrupt as that which has been charged with the care of our Indian wards. If this department has done about as well as it could with the Indians, what will be the probable purity of a department of the Philippines?

Concerning the negro problem, the word "shirked" describes the situation accurately. The Constitution of the United States provides that negroes shall have the same rights as white citizens. The Constitutions of a number of the Southern States provide, in effect, that they shall not have the same rights. Where the State Constitutions do not accomplish this result, it is accomplished in many cases by fraud. in many cases by violence. What the right of trial by jury amounts to for negroes may be learned by taking up a daily paper. It must be a rare day which does not record the putting to death of one or more negroes by mob violence—violence for which the law seems to provide no redress. We do not regard this kind of civilization as admirable, and as something that we ought to extend to other communities. But it is this boon that our imperialists propose to grant to Cuba, or else to impose a military despotism. We cannot believe it to be our divine mission to engage in such work as this. On the contrary, it appears to us the plain call of duty to remedy our own scandalous abuses rather than to extend the system under which they have arisen to other peoples.

A CAMPAIGN WITHOUT NATIONAL ISSUES.

We are now within a few weeks of the election of a new Congress midway in the term of a President. Under ordinary circumstances such a campaign is full of popular interest. One need only recall the contests of 1890 and 1894 to realize how deeply the country has often been stirred on such occasions. By contrast the present state of things seems most extraordinary, and at first thought almost incomprehensible; for hardly anybody outside the candidates seems to take any interest in the proceedings. The explanation, however, is very simple. The campaign upon which we have entered is a campaign without national issues, and it is quite impossible to get the voters excited over such a contest.

The Republican managers, and particularly such bosses as Platt and Quay, wanted to make support of the Government during the war the chief issue in the election of a new House of Representatives and the choice of United States Senators. But the war is over, and no such question remains. The proper policy of the United States after the war would naturally be the next issue, but it is too early—or too late—to raise it. So far as Cuba and Porto Rico are concerned, there is practically unanimous support of the position assumed by our Government in the peace protocol. So far as regards the Philippines, the military developments in that quarter have not yet ceased, and the taking of Manila is regarded by many as changing the situation and outlook from what they would have been if the news of the armistice had been received by Dewey and Merritt on the night before. Moreover, there is nothing like a division along party lines on the general question of a large permanent extension of our power in the far East. There are many Republicans of standing who oppose it; there are many influential Democrats who favor it; there are still more in each party who want to "dodge" the issue for the present. Under these circumstances the people are not going to vote for Republican or Democratic candidates for Congress because of the questions growing out of the war.

On the other hand, the war has obscured the old issue on which the last national campaign turned. Democratic conventions endorse the Chicago platform of 1896 in a perfunctory way, and Republican conventions reassert opposition to free coinage, but the people are weary of the whole "16 to 1" business. There will be a general cry of "Give us a rest!" if Col. Bryan shall return from camp to repeat that tiresome old speech of his. The Populistic element which has got control of the Democratic organization has nothing to substitute for free coinage. The strength of this element has always been in hard times and general depression. When the farmers are prosperous and business is booming, it is hard to stir up the people against the party in power. As things are now drifting, therefore, a campaign without national issues promises to result in the election of another Republican House and the increase of Republican strength in the Senate, simply because, on the whole, the Republican party, with all its faults and weaknesses, is a more efficient and trustworthy political organization than the Democratic-Populist "combine." There was nothing in the doings of this combine during the last session to commend it to the country, or to make independent voters regard its control of the next Congress with anything but apprehension.

These remarks find confirmation in the utterances of representatives of the respective congressional campaign committees. For the Democrats, Secretary Kerr boldly says there are great and pressing issues; but the only issues he names are dead issues. What can be deader than the question whether the Dingley bill raised or would have raised revenue enough? The Dingley bill itself is dead; there is no such a Mrs. Harris. Our existing revenue law is the Dingley law patched out of recognition. As for silver, and the issue of "real prosperity," those are simply the funeral baked meats of 1896. The Democrats have no issues, as they prove to demonstration when they attempt to explain what their issues are. Chairman Hull of the Re-

publican committee frankly says, "There are no issues."

But while all this is true, the fact remains that an imperative obligation rests upon the country to elect Congressmen of a certain kind. Whatever else they are, they must be "wise." Never before were so many and such vexing problems committed to "the wisdom of Congress." From high and low, from newspapers and orators and political conventions, comes the swelling demand for a wise Congress. Our greatest and ablest public men, even our most omniscient editors, confess that the problems of government in Hawaii and Cuba and Porto Rico and the Philippines are too much for them. Heaven forbid that they, with their human fallibility, should undertake to say what is our true policy. But they have implicit faith in the wisdom of Congress. As both Harrison and McKinley dodged the details of Hawaiian government, solemnly turning them over to a Congress wiser than they, so all our accumulated problems of colonial administration are now to be laid, with beautiful trust, before a supernaturally wise Congress. The only objectors to this course are here and there Congressmen themselves who prefer the phrase, "the wisdom of the American people." The American people are out for wisdom in this campaign, and they must have it. Phrenological bumps will count for more than party records. Gnomic sayings will be the best campaign cries, and a reputation for sagacity is what will make a candidate run like wild-fire. When the next Congress meets, the air will be thick with wisdom. Solons from Indiana will be cheek by jowl with Aristotles from Texas, and Justinians from Idaho will rub shoulders with Charlemagnes from Rhode Island. The Speaker will be a very Alfonso the Wise. The obscure saying of the Book of Proverbs about wisdom crying in the "high places" will at last be explained as a prophecy of the wisdom of the Fifty-sixth Congress.

How do we know that these things will be so? Because the American people always gets what it wants. Just now it is in desperate need of a wise Congress; ergo, a wise Congress it will have. As Capt. Mahan writes to Sir G. S. Clarke about our capacity to govern colonies, "Where there is a will the Americans can find a way." That is to say, where there is ignorance there will be knowledge, where there is inexperience there will be skill, where there is narrow partisanship there will be broad statesmen, where there is folly there will be wisdom. It is well known that wisdom develops *pari passu* with the problems which it requires wisdom to solve. This country has now on its hands the greatest collection of problems the world ever saw. Problems beyond the dreams of avarice are pressing upon it. Therefore, it is going to have the greatest collection of wise men the world ever saw. That is the reasoning, and we see no flaw in it. We are a little troubled, however, by seeing so many of the old Congressmen renominated. Many of them have never before set up for wise men; wisdom would turn pale and flee at the sight of many of them. Little country lawyers and errand-boys of bosses and creatures kept by corporations—these are the manner of men we have known them to be, but now that they are renominated, in a year when the country is choosing only its wisest, it looks as if we had been mistaken. These petti-foggers and hirelings must have had a sudden access of wisdom—or else all the newspapers and conventions which talk so grandiloquently about "the wisdom of Congress" must have had a sudden access of folly.

DISEASE IN CUBA.

Surgeon-General Sternberg has asked for a court of inquiry to investigate the whole question of medical administration in connection with the Santiago campaign. There certainly should be some thorough-going inquiry, and a military inquiry would be the most satisfactory. We imagine that the result would be to convict the whole army system, more than any individual officer, of incompetence and responsibility for the lamentable results with which the public has been shocked. The Surgeon-General stoutly maintains, and with apparent reason, that the fault lay not with his department, but with blundering and inexperienced attachés of the Quartermaster-General, working at cross-purposes. This would ultimately bring the responsibility home to the Secretary of War and the President for consenting to those unfit appointments. The reports from the military hospitals are said to be the most complete and detailed ever made in a war, and to show an astonishing proportion of recovery among those under treatment for gunshot wounds. But it was yellow fever and malarial diseases under which our brave men were going down when the urgent cry reached Washington that the army must be moved or perish, and, though the death-rate has been and still is small, every day claims its victims.

The great risk run in sending troops to Cuba in the hot season was, of course, perfectly well known in advance. It was nature more than man, disease more than rifle-balls, that our military authorities feared; and it was their knowledge of this danger which led them to give up all idea of moving against Havana before the autumn. But the danger had to be faced at Santiago, in the supreme necessity of putting Cervera's fleet out of the reckoning, and the complete success attained would have justified even greater losses than we have suffered. Officers and men knew, however, the perils of disease which they would have to encounter, and their alacrity in offering themselves for the service put their patriotism in a bright light.

If there were any doubt of the deadly effect of the Cuban climate, in the rainy season, on soldiers in the field, the figures of the terrible losses suffered by the Spanish army would dispel it for ever. The statistics for two years, from March, 1895, to March, 1897, have been published. In that time Spain sent to Cuba 187,000 officers and men, who, with the garrisons already in the island, brought the total force up to something more than 200,000. The losses in what would strictly be called war were insignificant in the course of the two years' operations. There were killed in battle 61 officers and 1,314 privates, and 62 officers and 704 privates died of wounds. Here is a loss inflicted by the enemy on the total effective which is trifling enough. But it was disease which swelled the death-list to frightful figures. Yellow fever claimed as victims 313 officers and 13,000 privates, and of other diseases, mostly malarial, 127 officers and 40,000 privates died. Reckoning in those sent back to Spain sick or wounded, we get the following as the result of two years' campaigning in Cuba: out of every 1,000 men in the army, 10 were killed in battle or died of wounds, 66 were carried off by yellow fever, 201 died of other diseases, and 143 were sent home invalided—a total loss of 420 to the 1,000. It is easy to believe from these official figures that, adding in the losses of the year 1897-'98, fully 100,000 Spaniards have lost their lives in Cuba since 1895—probably 75,000 from disease.

Other military experiences in Cuba have shown similar results. The Spanish losses in the ten years' war, 1868-1878, were not as great, because no such force was then engaged, but then, too, it was the yellow fever and swamp fever that wrought more havoc than the insurgents. We have recently had the statistics given us for the British expedition against Havana in 1762. A force of about 16,000 men operated against the city from the 7th of June till the 14th of August. The campaign was successful, but in the course of it, while but 560 men were killed or died of wounds, no less than 4,708 died of sickness. As Col. Adye of the British army remarks: "Cuba may be the Pearl of the Antilles, but it is a jewel for which an uncommonly high price must be paid, and it has ever proved the grave of many a brave man not inured to its deadly climate at the worst season of the year."

We may certainly thank our stars that we came out of the Santiago campaign as well as we did. If there was a military irregularity in the famous "round robin" of our generals, it may well be pardoned in view of the great saving of life which resulted from it. Our soldiers, weakened by exposure and hardships al-

most unexampled, would have fallen as the Spanish and the British did before insidious disease, if they had not been promptly removed. It is the shortness of the campaign which has saved us. If military operations had been continued as long as they were in the Crimean war, we not only should have shown, as the British did then, the inefficiency of our system of army administration, but should have been in a fair way to lose as many men by disease as they did.

"CONCESSIONS" IN CHINA.

The discussion in the English newspapers and elsewhere about concessions in the East tends to obscure the principle of international law with which it is connected. Among civilized governments the question of concessionaires' rights is one purely between the concessionaires and the government granting the concession. A concession is only a foreign name for a franchise or a charter. As a rule, a government gives precisely what charters or concessions it pleases, and it gives them to whom it pleases. An American State may give a charter, for instance, for building a railroad or supplying water-power; or the federal Government may do the same thing. It may give it to Bostonians, or to Frenchmen, or to any one it pleases; or it may refuse to grant charters at all, and may, through its own agencies, as by a board of works and taxation, do what private capital would otherwise be given the privilege of doing. The whole thing, that is, is a matter of privilege and not of right. More than this, after the privilege is granted, the granting Government alone can be appealed to to protect the rights of the concessionaire or grantee. He may go into the courts, if they are open to him in such cases, or he may appeal to the Legislature or the Executive, but the one principle which is recognized among all nations treating each other as equals (that is, among those from which we get our rules of international law) is that to his own Government he has no appeal.

It may be easily demonstrated, too, that this rule is not a mere custom, which may be modified or abandoned with the progress of civilization, but is a rule of necessity. For, if the concessionaire, or grantee, or franchise-holder were to have the right of appeal to his own Government, to make the right of any avail he must be able to invoke the power of his own Government to change, modify, repeal, or enforce the supervision by the other Government of its ordinary property law and law of contracts. If German investors, for instance, in Union Pacific securities were to maintain that they were being defrauded by the Government action in foreclosing, and were to have the right to invoke the aid of the German Government to settle the dispute, the latter could not possibly change the terms of the settlement in any way without itself administering the domestic laws of the United States, thus impairing its sovereignty and its independence. Indeed, it is not too much to say that the independent sovereignty of any country consists in great part in its sole and exclusive control of the ordinary rules affecting common private right—that is, life, liberty, and property—within its borders. The rule, therefore, flows directly from the two great principles of international dealings, the equality and independent sovereignty of states.

On the same principle the concessionaire has no right of complaint at home, if in dealings with him some third Power is favored. It would not help the Germans, in the case we have supposed, if in the Union Pacific settlement there were circumstances which looked as if we had given, for political reasons, a preference to Englishmen. The history of Venezuela's dealings with the great Manoa and other allied concessions would furnish some curious illustrations of this. In that case the Government of Venezuela gave away to foreigners a principality, in which they were to have almost every conceivable right of property and development, and opportunity for the investment of capital. But the right of sovereignty was reserved, and consequently the concessionaires have had Venezuela alone to look to for protection in their grant. The very object of the grant was to invite foreign capital, but foreign capital, being fully aware of the principle involved, took the grant with the risk.

The difficulty over concessions in China arises, as any one may see from the dispatches about it during the last few days, from the impossibility of adhering to it and abandoning it at the same time. What the English concessionaires want is that England should see to it that they have their rights not merely as against China, but as against any third Power, like Russia, which intrigues in China to their disadvantage. Lord Salisbury perceives that such a departure from the ordinary rule must lead to a war with Russia; for, the moment he tries to administer the property law of China, and Russia tries to frustrate his efforts, the question at once arises, who is sovereign? Were all three civilized states, the answer would be China. But if the answer is not China, then it must be either Russia or England, and nothing can determine which, if both insist, but force. We could not have a more striking illustration of the necessity (between states which do not desire perpetual war) of the rule, the working of which we have endeavored to describe, than in this exception.

If both Russia and England can agree that the application of the rule in China is an impossibility, the agreement would be tantamount to an understanding that Chinese sovereignty is at an end; and as there must be a government wherever there is property, and especially foreign trade, Russia and England must divide China, always subject, of course, to the right of interested third parties like Germany and France to a share in the spoils, or burden (whichever it is considered). There is no such thing as half-a-dozen or even two Powers administering property and contractual law antagonistically in one and the same place. They must fight or settle and divide. This explains why we now hear of Russia and England establishing "spheres of influence" in China, exactly as has been done in Africa in regions inhabited by wandering tribes. It makes no difference how government—that is, the administration of some effective property law—happens to be lacking; whether it has never existed, or has become decrepit, its absence is unendurable, and cannot be made up for by the pretence that it exists. This pretence has hitherto served England in China, simply because Russia had not appeared on the scene.

Of course, the question might be settled by England leaving China to be absorbed by Russia, on the ground that a war would cost a great deal more than the protection of concessionaires or the "open door" would come to in centuries. This is the view we have hitherto taken of our interest in the matter, which is quite as great, potentially, as England's. But to some minds, especially to those who profit by it, trade worth $100,000,000 is cheaply bought by a war costing $1,000,000,000. At any rate, we may congratulate ourselves that China is an exceptional case; for the principle of protection to concessions, generally applied, would involve the whole world in war.

MAMMOTH CAVE AND CLOUDLAND.

CLOUDLAND, N. C., August 8, 1898.

To a New Yorker bent on escaping from summer heat, the North naturally suggests itself as the proper place of refuge. In the month of July it is, however, difficult to find a spot in the Adirondacks, the White Mountains, the Moosehead Lake region, or the Maine woods in general, that is not rendered almost intolerable by the myriads of torturing flies. Our Southern mountains—those of North Carolina and Tennessee—are free from this pest, and this induced us to give that region a trial last month.

Before visiting the "Land of the Sky," as our Southern neighbors have proudly called their mountain plateau, we decided to make a détour to Kentucky and see the Mammoth Cave. A cooler place of refuge could not be found outside of an ice-house, for its invariable temperature is fifty-four degrees summer and winter. It is visited, we were told at the hotel, by about 5,000 persons annually, most of whom come in summer. That number might be doubled or trebled, one fancies, if the facilities and accommodations were bettered. From Glasgow Junction there

is a wretched little railway which takes nearly an hour to make the last nine miles to the Cave. The single car is so dirty that one hesitates to take a seat. In answer to a question, the conductor smilingly replied that "the car gets a coat of paint once every four years, whether it needs it or not." The hotel is cleaner than the car, but its beds are harder than rocks, the food abundant but unappetizing, and the "music" supplied by three darkies—fiddle, guitar, and double bass—simply awful. It is probable that when a dispute now said to be pending regarding the proprietorship of the Cave is settled, matters will improve.

Such trifles, however, must not prevent any one from visiting the Mammoth Cave, which certainly deserves all the fame that has accrued to it as a rival, in its way, of Niagara, the Yellowstone, and the Yosemite. Nor should any one neglect (though many do) to take both the routes known as the long and the short trips, or the "River Route" and the "Route of Pits and Domes." The shorter trip is easily made in an afternoon or evening, while the other takes from nine to fifteen hours or more, according to the size of the party and the behavior of the subterranean rivers, which sometimes rise suddenly and oblige the guides to take their parties out of the usually spacious and comfortable main route to the upper levels of the Cave through a four-mile passage in which visitors have to crawl on hands and knees, or squirm and wriggle along as best they may between rocks whose embrace is far closer and more importunate than that of the stretch notorious as "Fat Man's Misery."

The women of the party in bloomers and loose flannel jackets, the men in blue denim suits adorned with red stripes, follow the guide down a pleasant path through the woods to the opening of the Cave only a few hundred yards from the hotel, which itself is situated right above the main part of the Cave. The big yawning mouth of the Cave is edged with ferns and pretty vines, and no one suspects that two or three steps will suddenly plunge him from a temperature of about ninety to one of fifty-four degrees, in which his breath becomes visible. A strong current of cold air constantly comes up from the Cave, which has been greatly widened at the opening. After a few dozen steps it narrows again, and here it has been found necessary to put an iron gate to prevent vandals from carrying off the beautiful formations inside. At this gate the current of air is so strong that it is apt to blow out the lamps which about half the visitors have to carry. These lamps bear most unpleasant witness to the mismanagement of the Cave. Instead of getting portable electric lights, or at least odorless lanterns, visitors are supplied with the most primitive sort of miners' lamps, whose smoke and vile odor vitiate the delicious air of the Cave, and make one long to return and get away from them. This drawback, combined with the fact that there is at first little to see, made us think, after the first twenty minutes, that the Cave was a grand humbug, not much better than an ordinary railway tunnel. It seemed hardly worth while to come so great a distance to see an indefinitely elongated cellar, with here and there some point of merely human interest, such as the well-preserved wooden water conduits and the vats put in by the miners who worked the Cave for saltpetre during the war of 1812; or the piles of rocks of various sizes built up by human hands all along the route—piles which suggest the monuments gradually erected by Spanish wayfarers at places where a man was murdered, but which here have a less grim significance, each pile representing some State, country, society, or individual. Judging from the size of these piles, New York has sent more visitors to the Cave than any State except Kentucky itself. Admiral Dewey's pile is already quite large.

The impression that the Cave is not specially remarkable for its natural beauty or sublimity gradually wears away, and gives place to one of a very different kind when the big domes and pits are reached. These vary considerably in size, while otherwise resembling one another. The domes remind one remotely of Moorish architecture. The pits have at their bottoms more or less débris, consisting of rocks of all sizes, which had been loosened by the water that drips incessantly down the sides of the well, cutting them into a beautiful convoluted and fluted surface. One of the most gruesome pits—suggesting an ideal prison for mediæval torturers—is seen through a sort of window about half way up the side of the precipice, while the "Bottomless Pit" is seen best from the bridge which crosses it. The guide rather damages the reputation of the "bottomless" pit by throwing down a cotton fuse dipped in oil and lighted, which brings the bottom into clear view. All the pits and domes are thus lighted by a dexterous toss of the fuse from the end of a stick which the guide carries for this purpose. It whizzes up towards the dome, illuminating that a second, and then lies burning in the pit for minutes, lighting thoroughly the dripping walls of these underground wells, which reverse the usual order of things by having the water come in at the top instead of the bottom.

At one place the guide takes all the lamps, and bids the visitors sit on a bench and listen to the silence while he prepares a surprise. As he disappears, Egyptian darkness closes in upon the scene, but presently, as if the eyes were becoming accustomed to the darkness, it seems as if the vault above had been removed, revealing the sky with streaks of cloud and beautifully twinkling stars. The illusion is perfect and the Cave trip seems ended; but presently the guide's light (which, reflected from a distance on the crystals of the ceiling, had created the appearance of a starry sky) becomes brighter as he approaches, and the fairy scene vanishes. This is the famous Star Chamber. An even more startling illusion is created at another place. Again the guide leaves the party alone and goes ahead. All at once a statue of a woman is seen ahead, as distinct, as white, and as solid, apparently, as if chiselled out of alabaster. It proves to be a silhouette of light formed by the two sides of the Cave coming together at a certain angle. The discovery of this statue was due to an accident. Two parties were in the Cave at the same time, and luckily happened to be in the exact and only spots where the statue may be produced and seen. The colored guide who first saw it supposed it was an apparition, and was so frightened that he refused at first to tell any one about it. Subsequently it was found that it can be produced at will provided that two persons are in those exact two places at the same time; but it is obvious that this might not have happened again for a century. Unimaginative persons have given the shape the name of "Martha Washington statue"; but with its gruesome surroundings it rather suggests the goddess Erda as she rises from a rock-cleft in Wagner's "Rheingold."

Other aspects of the Cave are more happily named, such as the "Star Chamber" on the short route, and on the long route "Fat Man's Misery," with "Great Relief" at the other end. These are followed by the Dead Sea, Lethe, Styx, and Purgatory. But the greatest curiosity of the longer route is the "Echo River," which is navigated on flat-bottomed boats for about twenty minutes. The Cave here is very low—the first arch under which the boat goes being only two feet and a half above the level of the water ordinarily—but after a while it rises a little and provides a vault which has what is probably the most beautiful echo in the world. The guide sings an arpeggio (three or four successive tones, say G, B, D, G up, or G, E, C, G down) and, thanks to the duration of the echo, these four tones reach the ear as a rich and perfect chord of simultaneous sound. Still more beautiful is a higher arpeggio sung by a woman's voice. The sounds seem disembodied and etherealized, like those of an æolian harp, and the effect is as thrilling as the three choruses, one above the other, in "Parsifal." Europe has the Sistine Chapel and some acoustically remarkable cathedrals, but our subterranean Echo River surpasses them all. After the beautiful, we had an exhibition of the sublime in sound. A Kentuckian in our boat fired a revolver. The sound which, in the open air, would have been like the transient crack of a whip, here reverberated with a deafening boom, like the roar of great peals of thunder, lasting fully a minute. It must have astonished the blind fishes and crawfish that inhabit the river, so we fancied, but the guide said that these creatures seemed not to mind noise any more than light, unless accompanied by a disturbance of the water. We did not succeed in seeing a blind fish, but one of the party caught a crawfish. The river was very gentle and pleasant while we were on it, but the guide said that sometimes, when there are heavy rains outside, Purgatory is changed from a great dry hall to the bed of a rushing torrent, in which it is difficult to prevent the boat from being dashed against the rock. It is only quite recently that the source of this water has been traced to the Green River; where it flows is not yet known.

Of the fifty or more kinds of animals—mostly of the lowest orders—which are known to exist in the Cave, casual visitors are not apt to see more than three or four. The most abundant are a sort of long-legged cricket somewhat resembling a spider. These are everywhere, and when they die they remain where they happen to be on the wall, while a white fungus covers them with a thick shroud till they look like snowballs with legs. In one of the vaults there are also mineral "snowballs," the ceiling being covered with glistening white balls of gypsum crystals. Farther on, the gypsum takes the form of flowers, chiefly marguerites, sunflowers, and regal chrysanthemums, though roses too may be found and the graceful forms of celery tops. The "Vale of Diamonds" and the "Jewel Chamber" scintillate with sparks both on ceiling and walls. Hours might be spent admiring and describing all these details, but I can mention only one more—the Mammoth Dome, which is not included in either of the regu-

lar routes, but can be added to one of them if the party is not too large. It forms a fit climax to the trip, and, though somewhat difficult to reach, should be missed by no one. In this dome there are magnificent columns which have been fitly named the "Ruins of Karnak," for their perfection and symmetry suggest ancient ruins, the work of human hands rather than of water. From below, one of these columns is seen to be cut across as straight as a tree cut by a saw. In looking up, one thinks of great cathedrals, or even of the perpendicular sides of some Western cañon; and although the dome is only 150 feet high, it looks far higher.

Before leaving the Cave by way of the aptly named Corkscrew, we rested awhile in the romantic Bandits' Hall, watching the gambols of the rats, of which there are great numbers in the Cave. Sometimes, in skipping about, they turn over a stone which echoes in a way that would be most uncanny if one were alone in the dark. A man was lost in the Cave some years ago, and, when found again, two days later, he was a raving maniac and remained so. The Cave is a perfect labyrinth, and every guide is obliged to serve an apprenticeship of several years before he is allowed to take charge of visitors. Should anything happen to a guide, the only safe thing for visitors to do would be to sit down where they were, without moving a step from the regular route. Our guide, Bishop, though his uncle was one of the first explorers of the Cave and he himself has spent the greater part of his life in it, even now dislikes to be left alone in its dead silence in the dark on account of the strange whisperings and mysterious sounds that seem to fill the air. When we came out of the Cave we seemed to step from an ice cellar into a Turkish bath, and the pure air of the Kentucky forest was as laden with rich odors as the exotic atmosphere of a greenhouse. We had never before realized what an abundance and variety of odors exist in ordinary air. It does not seem probable, however, that, as is often asserted, there is anything especially exhilarating in the Cave air itself, as there is in mountain breezes. It is simply the purity and the coolness of this atmosphere that enable one to make the seventeen-mile trip underground without special fatigue. The Cave still contains the two stone huts that were once occupied by hopeful consumptives. When one of them died the others abandoned the experiment.

If the weird statue in the Mammoth Cave suggested Erda, going from there to the top of Roan Mountain—second in height among the Appalachian peaks—was like passing from the subterranean abode of the Nibelung dwarfs in the same opera to the cloudy heights of Walhalla. A mountain railway, known as the Cranberry Road—forty miles long and built at the cost of over a million dollars to mines that furnish steel of the finest quality—leaves the Southern Railroad at Johnson City, and twists its way up a rushing mountain torrent through gorges that repeatedly suggest the grandeur of Colorado cañons. Early in July, beauty was added to the scene by a lavish profusion of white and pink rhododendrons. These also adorn the twelve-mile road up the mountain, which is made in a comfortable surrey that connects Roan Mountain station with the Cloudland Hotel at the summit. This hotel is a curiosity in several ways. It is the highest building east of the Rocky Mountains—101 feet higher than the Mount Washington Hotel. Mount Mitchell, alone of the dozen peaks that here rise more than 6,000 feet above sea-level, is higher (6,711) than Roan Mountain (6,394), but there is no building on its summit, and it seldom emerges from the clouds. The State line, dividing North Carolina from Tennessee, passes through the dining-room of Cloudland Hotel, and there are tables at which one can handle his fork in one State and his knife in the other; while there are rooms upstairs in which one can sleep in two States at once—head in one, feet in the other. It is curious, also, to see this large building, capable of housing several hundred guests, exposing its broad sides boldly to the violent winds without the chains with which the Mount Washington Hotel has had to be anchored to the stones. The roof of Cloudland Hotel has twice been carried away, but is now safely moored with heavy rocks. During the first week of July a violent storm raged three days uninterruptedly—the fiercest the proprietor remembered in several years—yet the hotel stood firm as a rock. The thermometer was down to 40 at night, and huge logs were burning in all the chimneys. These fires are kept up day and night throughout the summer for those who may want them, though the temperature very rarely reaches the low figure just given. During the four weeks of our stay on the mountain—ending August 8—it was nearly always 58 or 60 at eight A. M., and we never saw it higher than 64 in the afternoon, the usual figure being 62—an ideal temperature for either loafing or climbing, and especially for literary work—neither too cold nor too warm, but just right. For authors who are anxious to do a vast amount of work and yet get their vacation at the same time, there is perhaps no place in this country (east of California) equal to the summit of Roan Mountain. The hotel table, too, is good, and the charges moderate.

The Cloudland Hotel is most aptly named, for although the superb view embraces hundreds of lofty peaks in half-a-dozen States, it is the clouds that afford the best entertainment here—that is, when they are not too close neighbors, as is often the case. Yet the rain always sinks out of sight in a few minutes, leaving a dry road to walk on, and, what is more, the dampness of the air is never depressing, but rather exhilarating. Just below and behind the hotel there is a gulch from which often arise mists on which the setting sun paints perfect circular rainbows, not as brilliant as those under Niagara or the Vernal Falls in the Yosemite, but very beautiful nevertheless; and within the circle the spectator sometimes sees his own shadow with a halo around it. The sunsets are wonderfully varied and beautiful, painting the sky in all directions. One evening the west was all ablaze with bars of gold and deep red against the faint apple-green and blue of the sky, while in the east there was piled up a Himalayan range of snowy cumulous clouds which in succession assumed all the tints of the rainbow, flashes of sheet lightning adding to their wonderful beauty. Another evening vast volumes of mist rose from the valley like steam from a huge cauldron, and as they rolled away the sun gave them a bright flame color, so that they seemed to stream from an active volcano or a great forest fire below.

The air up here is often Alpine in its fresh and bracing qualities. The mountains themselves, with all their abundance, lack individuality of outline, but they are beautifully green, and some of the unbroken valley views are enchanting. But the railways are beginning to invade these virgin forests (they are already worth $25,000,000 a year to North Carolina alone), and "balds" are becoming more and more numerous. On some of these bald spots farmhouses may be seen, while most of them are the resorts of sheep, cattle, horses, and pigs. The razor-back pig is not a beautiful animal, but when one sees him living this open-air life, feeding on grass, and washed by daily rains, one understands why he should yield such well-flavored hams. It is amusing to see the animals stampede down hill when they hear the call for salt.

Interesting excursions can be made on horseback or on foot to several waterfalls or neighboring peaks, and during these a chance is afforded to see the natives, who, notwithstanding their feuds among themselves, are perfectly civil and safe to others. Some of them come up to the hotel. On July 4 there was a small vendetta. One of the victims asked a doctor from Knoxville who happened to be in the hotel, "Am I cut to the holler? 'Cause if I am I guess I'll die." But he recovered. One man up here has killed three enemies, from a sense of duty, but now he is going to build a church where, he says, "not a d—— soul shall go in but my own family." The poverty of these people is startling, and sometimes pathetic. A man walked eight miles to bring 60 cents' worth of corn to the hotel, and another day two young girls walked twelve miles to bring 15 cents' worth of beets! The girls here are said to marry at twelve or fourteen, and at sixteen they are looked on as old maids. Some of them are very pretty at fourteen.

H. T. Finck.

MME. DARMESTETER'S RENAN.—II.

Paris, August 11, 1898.

Mme. Darmesteter describes, with great delicacy of touch, the domestic life of Renan, after his marriage, surrounded by his sister, his mother, who had come to live with him, and who liked to tell him old stories of Brittany. In 1857, the death of Quatremère left the professorship of Hebrew vacant at the Collège de France. Renan, well known already by his 'General History of the Semitic Languages,' his translation of the Book of Job, his version of the Song of Songs, thought himself entitled to it. By the rules of the college, the professors and the Members of the Academy of Inscriptions present their candidate to the Minister of Public Instruction; they invariably give the same name, and the Minister sanctions their choice. It was well known that the Empress Eugénie objected to the choice of Renan, and so the professorship remained vacant for five years. The Emperor, less intolerant than his wife, offered Renan another professorship as a compensation. Renan declined it; he wished to be the successor of Quatremère, who had been his professor. Another compensation was offered him, an archæological mission to Syria. This was accepted; and it was decided that Henriette should accompany him as secretary and keeper of accounts, as Renan was thought "incapable of the material cares which such a long journey would necessitate."

The journey was hardly decided on when the news of the massacres of the Christians of the Lebanon by the Druses reached France. An Anglo-French expedition left for Asia Minor, and Renan and his sister made the journey in one of the army transports. "Fully absorbed," says Madame Darmesteter, "by scientific objects, we see in the 'Mission to Phœnicia' [published after the return] a Renan very unmindful of politics, who seems to consider the massacres and the resistance of the Christians as providentially combined in the interest of Semitic archæology. He found the presence of the soldiers very convenient; he made his great excavations with the army, and the navy helped to transport what he found." When he began the excavations at Byblos, he had hopes which were somewhat disappointed; he found ruins, fragments, but no great masterpiece of art. With his sister, he was the master of a little military camp; he made great marches with escorts, and was able to write, in the greatest peace of mind, admirable descriptions of the Syrian landscape.

In the month of July, 1861, Madame Renan came to join them. Henriette might now have left for France, as she had already been unwell, but Renan took her with him to Palestine; he had, for years, planned to write a Life of Jesus. In the Holy Land, Christ appeared to him as a living figure, with a marvellous reality. He saw it moving amid the landscape of Galilee. He wrote the 'Life of Jesus'—that is to say, the principal lineaments of it—at Ghesir; the portion which extends to the last journey to Jerusalem. As fast as he wrote a page his sister copied it. Madame Renan returned to France, and Renan was again alone with his sister. Henriette became ill with intermittent fever and neuralgia. A doctor came from Beirut, but it was too late, and she died of exhaustion. A year afterwards, when the 'Life of Jesus' appeared, Renan dedicated it to "the pure soul of my sister Henriette, who died at Byblos the 24th day of September, 1861." The dedication ends thus: "Reveal to me, O good genius, reveal to me who loved you, the truths which vanquish death, hinder us from fearing it, and make us almost love it."

Renan came back to France alone. Many times his friend Berthelot had written to him to hasten, to bring his sister home while there was still time. "One does not," says Madame Darmesteter, "end a masterpiece without paying for it in one way or another; the life of Henriette was the price of the Life of Jesus." The publication of this book became Renan's great preoccupation on his return. He was, by a decree of January 11, 1862, appointed Professor of the Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syriac Languages at the Collège de France. There was much opposition on many sides. To the court as well as to the church Renan was a notorious heretic, and his appointment to a professorship of Biblical exegesis was, therefore, a cause of great scandal. To the Quartier Latin, liberal and freethinking, he was a traitor accepting gifts from the tyrant. For many weeks it was announced that his first lecture would occasion a noisy demonstration.

"It must be said," remarks Mme. Darmesteter, "that Renan, notwithstanding his discreet and grave manner, did not dislike at heart this agitation and publicity. Some people did not fail to advise him to deliver very special lectures, on purely technical questions, in the small room which was used by Burnouf and Quatremère, and in which only about thirty people could sit. But, on the contrary, the new professor asked for his opening lecture the great amphitheatre of the college. A note in the newspapers announced the day and the hour; it was well known that he was to treat the question of Christianity. He did not wish to hide himself. 'Our mission,' said he, 'does not require noise, but it is not the inoffensive quiet of mediocrity.' It seemed as if his book, still unpublished, was circulating in his veins, gave him a sort of fever, and forced him to deliver his thoughts to the crowd."

On the 21st of February the amphitheatre of the Sorbonne was full of students, Catholics and Liberals; the subject chosen was the influence exerted by the Semitic peoples on civilization. The professor was constantly interrupted—by the Catholics when he spoke of " an incomparable man, so great that, though everything here must be judged from the point of view of positive science, he would not contradict those who call him God," and said that "in adopting Christianity we have profoundly modified it, so that it has in reality become our work"; by the students of the Latin Quarter when he said that "the French Revolution, in creating the principle of unity in the State, often compromised liberty." We must remember that this took place under the Empire, at a time when there was no liberty of speech. The students, finding out that, on the whole, Renan was on the Liberal side, cheered him, followed him to his house in the Rue Medame, and gave him an ovation. The Government declared his lectures dangerous to the public peace; he was not allowed to speak at the college. For two years, however, he received his salary and kept his title of professor; then a new professorship was created, to which was attributed the study of the Hebrew languages, and, by way of compensation, Renan was to reënter the Imperial Library as a *conservateur*. He declined, and sent a response to the Minister ending with the words of Saint Peter to a simoniac: "Pecunia tua tecum sit." The next day there appeared in the *Moniteur* a short decree in these words: "The nomination of M. Renan to the Imperial Library is revoked. M. Renan remains suspended from his functions at the Collège de France."

Published on the 23d of June, 1863, the 'Life of Jesus' had an immediate and extraordinary success. Few people were of the same mind as Mr. Gladstone, who pronounced it to be a dull book and could not finish it.

"It was," said Mme. Darmesteter, "for a serious book, the greatest success of the century. The learned read its fine and profound pages for their science, women for their poetry; the mass of anti-clericalism in the country of M. Homais [the Voltairian of 'Mme. Bovary'] applauded in the name of progress; but, above all, the book pleased all those who had been Christians in faith and were so still at heart. Like a broken vase still full of perfume, the tender infidelity of Renan issued a sweet and morbid incredulity. . . . The world is full of men and women who are in mourning for some ideal on whose tomb they continue to throw flowers. And all these felt themselves at last understood."

Mme. Darmesteter adds, however, justly that

"Conceived far from any library, the book maintains a certain hesitation and indecision in questions of criticism, and surprising variations in exegesis. In the historical importance given to the Gospel of St. John, one feels more than once that in Renan the artist often tempted the scholar, and that the scholar succumbed. It is, perhaps, not at Ghesir that a work of erudition can be elaborated. It needs, perhaps, the unequalled patience of a German university for the collection of all the documents and the criticism of all the texts which allow the reconstitution of the past. . . . Certainly the Baurs, Strausses, the Zellers, the Reusses, the Hilgenfelds, the Weissaeckers, the Ewalds, had not Renan's magical power of evocation. . . . The sky of the East; the memories of a pious heart, such are the true documents which inspired Renan's incomparable pages."

Madame Darmesteter tells us frankly that Renan knew only the works of Strauss, of Neander, of Bunsen, of Le Nain de Tillemont, the old book of Herder, and was unacquainted with the more recent works of German exegesis. The 'Life of Jesus' is, in fact, a religious novel, if the word be not thought too profane; it is a sort of dramatic reconstitution, ennobled by the moral ideal which the author entertained. So viewed, it marked an immense contrast between the modern form of unbelief and that of Voltaire and of the Voltairian school, which moulded so many minds in the last and in the first half of the nineteenth century.

The final pages of the 'Life of Jesus' form an introduction to the succeeding volume, 'The Apostles.' After Renan's great triumph, the Liberal party, who thought that it had a right to share in the success, wished Renan to come forward as a candidate for the Chamber in Paris. He refused, and left with his wife for Asia Minor. He sought there for the remains of the seven churches of the East, and studied the conditions of ancient life. He took notes for the descriptions which appeared in the 'Origin of Christianity.' The second volume was, so to speak, the story of the posthumous life of Jesus; the third, entitled 'Saint Paul,' is, perhaps, in Madame Darmesteter's opinion, the most perfect historical picture produced by Renan. In this volume we are no longer in an atmosphere of hallucination, but in a realistic world. Renan describes Saint Paul, not as an idealist, a poet, a saint, but as a disputatious missionary, fond of strife, superficially educated, but speaking Greek, and thus well armed for the work of propagandism in the great ports of the Mediterranean. The Greek language was the *lingua franca* of the time. Antioch, Ephesus, became centres of Christianity. The 'Apostles' appeared in 1866, 'Saint Paul' in 1869. Renan presented himself in the latter year as candidate for the Chamber at Meaux, in the department of Seine-et-Marne. He belonged to the Liberal opposition, but he was willing to become reconciled to the Empire if the Empire became liberal. He had grown very intimate with Prince Jerome Napoleon; he had even some sympathy for the person of Louis Napoleon. "France," he wrote afterwards in his 'Intellectual and Moral Reform,' "had what it wished for, order and peace. Liberty was wanting, it is true, but this want offended only a minority." In his electoral campaign he advocated a diminution of the army (and 1870 was approaching) and a minimum of reform, chiefly political decentralization and a greater diffusion of public instruction. He had nothing in him of the political agitator. He made no promises to his electors, and the Government candidate was elected by an increased majority.

Correspondence.

CATHOLICISM IN THE PHILIPPINES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Both as an old reader of the *Nation*

and as a theologian, I took great interest in the article on "Religious Problems in the Philippines" that was published in your issue of August 11.

In one point, however, I cannot entirely agree with you. You pretend to fear that the interests of the Roman Catholic Church in the Philippines would suffer harm if we should become compelled to annex the islands in order to restore order and peace there. While I do not see any urgent necessity for annexing the Philippine Islands, I am rather inclined to believe that the true interests of the Roman Catholic Church absolutely demand annexation of the whole undivided group of islands by the United States, for the restoration of the *status quo ante bellum* is entirely out of the question. Spain is not able to retain the islands. Therefore, nothing else remains than that they either should be annexed by the United States or that they should be divided among the different Powers of Europe. The result of the latter alternative would be that some of the islands would go to the Protestant Powers—England and Germany—with which the Catholic Church has established a *modus vivendi* which, however, does not offer any advantages over the *modus vivendi* in existence between Rome and the United States. Other islands would fall to Russia and to Japan, the former Power being aggressively Greek-Catholic, the latter still heathen. The Roman Catholic Church can, accordingly, in no way desire a partition of the Philippines, because it might find itself in some parts of the islands under the influence of hostile governments as the result of a partition. It must, even on general principles, prefer to deal with but one government. The Holy See at Rome, instead of being utterly opposed to the idea that the United States should gain possession of the Philippine Islands, will welcome and promote annexation by the United States as the best and most advantageous solution of the serious and difficult problem, so far as its own vital interests are concerned, as soon as it becomes convinced that the conditions which prevailed before the war cannot be restored; and it appears to me as if the appeal of the Pope to our Government for protection of the interests of his Church indicates that the Pope is not very far from that conviction.

The present Roman Catholic Church in the United States will not less be benefited by so large an addition of Roman Catholics to our population, which will not fail to exercise in due time a very powerful influence upon our national destiny as well as upon the destiny of the Roman Catholic Church. Only a few years ago, it used to be a very common boast among our Roman Catholics that their numbers were increasing so rapidly that, within a comparatively short period, they would gain absolute control of our country, and be in a position to compel their fellow-citizens of Protestant complexion to return to the folds of the Roman Church. Such indiscreet boasts induced some Protestants who were not less foolish to attempt suppressing the Catholic Church by legislative measures. In the State of Illinois, for instance, they introduced a school law which was expected to bring the Catholic parochial schools under the control of Protestant school directors. The result was that the Republican party, which was responsible for the odious law, was defeated at the polls and that Mr. Altgeld was elected Governor of Illinois. Since that time the Catholics have learned more discretion, but we should be greatly mistaken if we imagined them to despair of their future. Their prospects are as bright as ever, and no reason can be discovered why they should not welcome with the greatest joy any and all additions to their numbers as citizens of the United States, in consequence of our country retaining all the former possessions of Spain which have been conquered in this war.

If these facts were well and generally known, the most strenuous opposition to the annexation of the Philippine Islands, as well as of Cuba and Porto Rico, might be expected to arise among the Protestant element of our population; and all the narrow-minded among it will certainly raise a loud outcry against the admission of millions of Roman Catholics into the United States. But the truly liberal Protestants far outnumber the class of fanatics, and are not afraid to enter upon even a keener competition with their Roman Catholic brethren than heretofore. They are perfectly aware of the fact that the influence and power of the Roman Church in the United States will be enormously strengthened by adding to it the well-disciplined and immensely rich Church in the Philippines; but they rejoice in the opportunity of combating that power with the weapons of true faith and charity. They are absolutely hostile to the employment of external force in attempting to overcome what they think to be religious error. Such men as these assisted in wiping that un-Christian school law from the statute-book of the State of Illinois. I know at least one Protestant minister who, although the law did not apply to his congregation at all, explained its real intention to his congregation in a sermon, and, at the risk of losing his position, exhorted his hearers to vote against the party that had made the attempt to organize a persecution of our Catholic fellow-citizens. All that this class of Protestants expects is an open door to enable them to preach their faith among the Filipinos. They will send, as soon as possible, missionaries to the Philippines, and, as a matter of course, gain a permanent foothold there. But, if it is true that the Roman Catholic Church in the United States has proved herself stronger in an unrestricted and unlimited competition with her Protestant sisters than was supposed, it is neither to be assumed nor feared that the Protestant missionaries will immediately succeed in overthrowing the predominance of the Roman Catholic Church in the Philippines. All that they may reasonably be expected to achieve at the outset is to stir up the latent energies of the defenders of the Catholic faith in that part of the world.

WM. WEBER.

BELLEVILLE, ILL., August 16, 1894.

A FLEMISH SOCIETY IN BELGIUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Kindly allow a reader, of Belgian origin, to correct an error contained in your Notes in the *Nation* of August 4. The error takes its origin in the *Athenæum* of July 2, and is, no doubt, due to ignorance. There is no such "*German* movement" in Belgium as that referred to, and if there were, nothing could be more absurd than that 50,000 German residents should insist "upon the use of (their language) German in the Belgian Parliament," representing a population of 7,000,000!

The real fact is this: There is in Belgium a society, known as the Willems Fond, of which the writer has been a member since 1875. This society has now nearly 50,000 members, not at all Germans, but Flemings, whose ancestors were mostly Celts and Francs. They are proud of their ancient Teutonic language, one of the mother tongues of English, and which resembles the latter much more than German. The society I refer to has for the past thirty years published many books, lectures, political pamphlets, etc., in Flemish, and in many cases these are distributed free to the laboring classes and farmers. The founders of the society were politicians who spoke Flemish in meetings and in delivering lectures, but who spoke French in their homes and in their clubs. This is the case with the leaders to-day. Not long since, I met, in Ghent, the Secretary of the society. This good Fleming and his family spoke most elegant French at home, but outside of his home he was a radical Fleming—to secure the Flemish vote for a seat in Parliament.

As to the use of the Flemish language in the Belgian Parliament, or, as it is called, "Chamber of Representatives," we are far from that, for more than two-thirds of the Belgian people—all the inhabitants of the provinces of Hainaut, Namur, Luxembourg, Liège, and part of those in Brabant, Limbourg, and Flanders—are French in language, and these people know neither Flemish nor German. At the same time, French is the language one hears most among all educated classes in the Flemish provinces. As to Germans, there are, no doubt, many merchants, clerks, hotel-waiters and other servants in Antwerp, Brussels, Ostend, and three or four other cities, but few, if any, have become Belgian citizens; and, as to the practical use of German, one could certainly not travel far with it in Belgium. In fact, I am sure that in Antwerp, Brussels, and in many cities of Flanders, one would succeed better with plain English than with German.

It is true that some Flemish politicians have insisted upon the use of *Flemish* in the courts, and this in some cities of Brabant, Limbourg, and Antwerp is a reasonable demand; but, as to the Belgian Parliament, the Government, the army, the schools, the leading journals—the French tongue cannot be replaced by Flemish, for the simple reason that French (or Walloon French in some cases) is the only language spoken by nearly five millions of Belgians, while most of the Flemish people have always considered an education without a thorough knowledge of French incomplete. I may add here that the leading Flemish littérateurs, divines, jurists, philosophers, statesmen, historians, novelists, and poets, have written their works either in Latin, in past ages, or, during the present century, in French. The leading Belgian newspapers and periodicals are also printed in French.

A. DE POTTER.

NEW YORK, August 17, 1898.

Notes.

Preliminary fall announcements by Henry Holt & Co. embrace 'The Science of Finance,' by Prof. Henry C. Adams; 'Essays on Economics,' by the late Francis A. Walker, as well as 'Essays on Education,' by the same writer; 'A History of English

Romanticism—18th Century,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale; 'Modern American Oratory,' entire speeches by Phillips, Curtis, Beecher, Schurz, Black, Depew, and Grady, with a discussion and a bibliography by Ralph C. Ringwalt of Columbia; 'Standard English Poems,' from Spenser to Tennyson; 'French Lyrics,' more than 200 in number, edited by Prof. A. G. Canfield of the University of Kansas; 'Music and Musicians,' from the French of Albert Lavignac; and 'A Political History of Contemporary Europe,' from the French of Charles Seignobos, by Prof. Macvane of Harvard.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s list opens with 'The Life and Letters of Paul the Apostle,' by the Rev. Lyman Abbott, and contains also: 'The Life of Our Lord in Art,' by Miss Estelle M. Hurll, with about 100 illustrations; 'Human Immortality: Two Supposed Objections to the Doctrine,' by Prof. William James; 'Afternoons in the College Chapel,' by Prof. Francis G. Peabody of Harvard; 'The Making and the Unmaking of the Preacher,' by President Tucker of Dartmouth; in the American Statesmen series, lives of Salmon P. Chase (by Prof. A. B. Hart of Harvard), Charles Sumner (by Moorfield Storey), Thaddeus Stevens (by Samuel W. McCall), and Charles Francis Adams (by his son and namesake); 'John Adams, the Statesman of the American Revolution,' by Mellen Chamberlain; 'The Battles of Trenton and Princeton,' by William S. Stryker; 'Letters to George Washington, 1752-1761,' mostly unpublished, a first volume, edited by S. M. Hamilton; 'A History of the Presidency,' by Edward Stanwood, a making over of this author's standard 'History of Presidential Elections'; 'Samuel Edmund Sewall,' a descendant of the famous Chief Justice, and heir to all his virtues as well as to his legal profession, by Mrs. Nina Moore Tiffany; 'Reminiscences,' by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, together with a volume of her verse, 'From Sunset Ridge'; 'James Russell Lowell and his Friends,' by Edward Everett Hale, with numerous portraits and other illustrations; 'A Sculptor's Adventures in the Sunset Land,' by Capt. Edward Kemeys; 'A World of Green Hills' (Virginia and North Carolina), by Bradford Torrey; 'Traditions of the Thompson River Indians of British Columbia,' collected by James Teit; 'Corona and Coronet,' an account of the Amherst expedition to Japan in 1896 to observe the sun's eclipse, by Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd; 'Annals of the Lowell Observatory,' volume i.: 'On Tides,' the Lowell Lectures in Boston last winter by George H. Darwin; 'The Magic of the Horseshoe, with Other Folk-lore,' by Robert Means Lawrence, M.D.; 'A Century of Indian Epigrams,' chiefly from the Sanskrit of Bhartrihari, by Paul E. More; 'The Bibliotaph, and Other People,' by Leon H. Vincent; 'Social Ideals in English Letters,' by Miss Vida D. Scudder; 'The Origin and Growth of the English Constitution,' volume ii., by Hannis Taylor; 'Select Essays on Dante,' by Karl Witte, translated by C. Mabel Lawrence; and 'Every-Day Butterflies,' by Samuel H. Scudder. For illustrated reprints we should add John Fiske's 'Beginnings of New England,' and Dickens's 'Child's History of England,' besides Cooper's 'Leather-Stocking Tales' in five volumes.

John Wiley & Sons have in press 'The Elements of Sanitary Engineering,' by Prof. Mansfield Merriman; 'Analysis of Potable Water,' by Prof. William P. Mason; 'The Theory of Electrical Measurement,' by Prof. William A. Anthony; 'The Law of Field Operation in Engineering, Surveys, etc.,' by John C. Wait; and 'A General Treatise on the Integral Calculus,' by Prof. W. Woolsey Johnson of the U. S. Naval Academy.

Macmillan Co. announce "The Churchman's Library," edited by John Henry Burn, B.D., and setting off with 'The Beginnings of English Christianity,' by Prof. W. E. Collins; 'Some New Testament Problems,' by Arthur Wright; 'Some Old Testament Problems,' by John P. Peters, D.D.; and 'The Kingdom of Heaven Here and Hereafter,' by Canon Winterbotham. They have also in preparation a series of 'New Testament Handbooks,' edited by Prof. Shailer Mathews of the University of Chicago, beginning with 'The History of the Textual Criticism of the New Testament,' by Prof. Marvin R. Vincent, and 'The History of the Higher Criticism of the New Testament,' by Prof. Henry S. Nash; 'The Control of the Tropics,' by Benjamin Kidd; and 'The Underground Railroad, from Slavery to Freedom,' by Prof. Wilbur H. Siebert of Ohio State University, with illustrations and a directory of more than 3,000 names of underground operators. The same firm advertises that it has bought out the business of Richard Bentley & Son, London, and will incorporate their well-known list in its own.

For issuance in October the Century Co. promise 'Educational Reform,' essays and addresses by President Eliot of Harvard; a volume on Cuba, by Robert T. Hill of the United States Geological Survey; 'A Primer of Heraldry for Americans,' by Prof. Edward S. Holden; 'The Book of the Ocean,' by Ernest Ingersoll; 'The World's Rough Hand: Toil and Adventure at the Antipodes,' by H. Phelps Whitmarsh; 'Our Conversational Circle,' by Miss Agnes H. Morton; 'Home Economics,' by Miss Maria Parloa; 'The Adventures of François,' by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell; a new edition, in two volumes, with introduction by President Gilman of Johns Hopkins, of Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America'; and Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' illustrated by the brothers Rhead.

From Ginn & Co.'s list we select 'Introduction to the Study of Literary Criticism,' by Prof. Charles M. Gayley; 'A History of English Literature,' by Prof. Francis B. Gummere and Alfred C. Garrett; 'The Science of Discourse,' by Prof. Arnold Tompkins; 'The Student's American History,' by D. H. Montgomery; 'Heroes of the Middle West,' by Mary Hartwell Catherwood; 'Colonial Life in New Hampshire,' by James H. Fassett; 'Method in History,' by Prof. William H. Mace; 'Brief German History,' by Profs. H. von Holst and B. S. Terry; 'The Ethics of Hobbes,' by Prof. E. Hershey Sneath; 'The World's Painters and their Pictures,' by Deristhe L. Hoyt; 'A Practical German Grammar,' by Prof. George Hempl; and the second part of his 'German Orthography and Phonology.'

August is dead to the publishing world, yet it brings us its promised volume in the Biographical Thackeray (Harpers). This is the 'Sketch Books,' being the Paris and Irish writings of that ilk, together with 'Cornhill to Cairo,' etc. Mrs. Ritchie's introduction shows how Thackeray's troubles were thickening upon him at the period, what with his wife's failing health and his own (partly consequent) pecuniary troubles. Yet "what won't a man bear with a little practice?" he wrote to Mrs. Procter. The drawings reproduced here are undistinguished, but the frontispiece portrait, after Maclise, of date about 1840, is a real addition to our knowledge of the man in his habit as he lived.

Macmillan Co. publish a translation of Prof. Böhm-Bawerk's essay entitled 'Karl Marx and the Close of his System.' This essay is one of a number prepared in 1896 as tributes to the aged Prof. Knies, and it is, so fas as style and logic go, worthy of its distinguished author. Whether Marx's theories are of sufficient importance to demand further criticisms is a doubtful question; but those who desire to understand them will find this essay of service.

Four lectures on 'Democracy and Social Growth in America,' by Prof. Bernard Moses, are published as a volume by G. P. Putnam's Sons. Prof. Moses calls attention to the fact that the Spaniards prohibited unmarried women from emigrating to their colonies, and thus encouraged the rise of mixed races incapable of a high degree of civilization. The English colonies are now inhabited by a mixture of races, but they had originally a much more homogeneous population. They also enjoyed much more freedom than the Spanish colonies, and the conditions were thus most favorable for the development of democracy. Prof. Moses argues, however, that the movement of population from the country to the city "not only makes the continued reign of democracy impossible, but even threatens the existence of civilization itself." The lectures, as this quotation indicates, are rather speculative, but furnish some interesting suggestions.

From the same publishers we have another essay in speculative politics, entitled 'The Philosophy of Government,' by George W. Walthew. The author considers that two mighty movements have hitherto been proceeding along the lines of human energy which appeared to be totally different from each other and intended to remain so. It has just been discovered that this separation is only apparent, and that the two movements are about to come together, with very important consequences. The movements referred to "comprise the thought, the experience, and the discoveries of mankind in the separate domains of philosophy and civil government." These domains are opposite to each other, one belonging to the realm of mind, the other to that of matter. For the details of this interesting (if true) discovery and its consequences to mankind we must refer our readers to the book itself.

'En Pique-Nique 1898' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.) is the annual volume published by the Société des Gens de Lettres, and consists of stories, sketches, and verses by a number of writers, of whom Marcel Prévost and Émile Zola are the best known. It is not a violent supposition that the various contributors sent in only such matter as was not readily marketable elsewhere, for there is nothing in the contents that is not commonplace or trite. The most amusing piece is "Ministre et Paysan," by Léo Claretie.

'Angoisses de Juge,' by Masson-Forestier (Colin), is a collection of short stories, of which there is not much to be said except that they are harmless, and that they are composed in the "realistic" manner, which consists in heaping together a mass of details of no importance or relevancy, much as might be done by a newspaper reporter who is paid by space.

'L'Amour est Mon Péché' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is by the author of 'Amitié Amoureuse,' a volume which created something of a sensation, and was, by some hasty critics, attributed to Guy de Maupassant. The present work manifests unusual power and literary skill. In form it is the diary of a high-strung and high-bred French girl who comes of a noble but impoverished family, and is constrained by her necessities to accept a position as governess and companion in an aristocratic English household. Its interest hinges on the one topic that furnishes forth the staple of French fiction; but this inevitable feature is kept out of sight so long that the reader might go through two-thirds of the story under the agreeable delusion that he had at last found a French novel which was inoffensive without being inane. Another original trait is that the author holds up to real and not to hypocritical reprobation the sin he depicts, and thereby gains for his book a moral dignity which is infrequent in Gallic literature.

'Die Verwirrung der Kunstbegriffe,' by Wilhelm Trübner (Frankfort: Literarische Anstalt), is a little work which owes its origin to the growing tendency of many contemporary painters to break away from conventionalism, and to strive after greater independence of artistic conception and representation. It is calculated to throw light upon various phases of modern art, and deserves to be as favorably received as was the same author's 'Das Kunstverständniss von Heute,' published anonymously half-a-dozen years ago.

The sixteenth annual report of the Dante Society of Cambridge, Mass. (Boston: Ginn & Co.), tells of a prosperous year, and shows the Society's collection of books to have trebled in the past twelve or thirteen years. The number of volumes now exceeds 2,000. The rest of the report is divided between Theodore W. Koch's list of additions from 1895 to 1897, and a valuable collation of Prof. Rajna's critical text of the 'De Vulgari Eloquentia' with Dr. Moore's Oxford text of 1894, by Paget Toynbee. Prof. Rajna's text has been reëdited by himself, and the results are given in an appendix. Amusing is the way a Tuscan scribe garbles the title to Book I., chapter 13, in which Dante stigmatized the Tuscan dialect as preëminent for its baseness. The scribe substituted *excelens* for *turpissimum*, perhaps.

The committee of Italian scholars who have in charge the preparation for the twelfth International Congress of Orientalists is evidently determined to get ready in time. The convention has been appointed for the first two weeks in October, 1899, and will be held in Rome. Several weeks ago a Preliminary Appeal was issued, and this is now followed by a First Bulletin, in which comparatively complete reports are given on the prospective work of the congress. The Bulletin states that there will be twelve different sections, one of them (that on India) being divided into two branches. Special sub-committees, representing the various Italian universities, have been appointed for the several sections, and in many cases two and three committees for sub-sections in one chief department. The Bulletin contains also letters from prominent scholars in England, France, Germany, and Italy, promising co-operation. During the session papers may be read and discussions held in Italian, Latin, French, German, and English, and for international correspondence the French has been selected. The Bulletin is in this language. Further preparatory reports will be published in December.

The Riga *Tageblatt* publishes extracts from a series of educational articles written by the School Curator of the Caucasus district that illustrates the peculiar phases of higher education in Russia. The Curator says: "So many lectures must be attended by the student that it is impossible for him to devote his attention to any particular branch in which he may be specially interested. If he has an inclination to specialism, he cannot follow this inclination before the completion of the regular university course, and it is not every student who is so situated that he can do this. The superficiality thus engendered affects his whole life work." The Curator points out the fact that the academic year in the university course of Russia, if the time devoted to examinations be deducted, really covers only five or six months, and that the professors, in order at least nominally and formally to cover their subjects, are compelled to crowd into this short period an altogether too large number of lectures. He also complains that there are so many examinations that the time for lectures is unduly curtailed. It seems, however, that Russian educators are preparing to do away with some of these evils. In the Moscow district a number of examinations have already been abolished, and a conference of the directors of the technical schools has asked for further changes in this direction.

The *Geographical Journal* for August contains a paper by Dr. Sir John Murray on the annual range of temperature in the surface waters of the ocean, which is largely a commentary on the accompanying map. Upon this the ocean is divided by colors into five great zones, to represent intervals of 10 degrees Fahrenheit of range of temperature, while lines are drawn for intervals of 5 degrees Fahrenheit. In closing, the writer treats briefly of the relation of range of temperature to biological phenomena, and especially to the destruction of life, as of the tile-fish on our coasts in 1882. In an account of an exploration in 1897 of some Spitsbergen glaciers, Sir. W. Martin Conway develops a theory of glacial action by which he attempts to explain some of the natural features of certain Alpine and Himalayan valleys. He also dwells upon the necessity of distinguishing between the action of an ice-sheet and a glacier. "Under an ice-sheet, the forces acting on the land-surface are conservative"—that is, the moving ice does little beyond polishing the surface of the rock it covers. "In the case of a glacial region the acting forces are formative."

The death is announced of the Danish composer Emil Hartmann. Born in Copenhagen, February 21, 1836, he came of a remarkable musical family. His father, J. E. P. Hartmann, who is still living at the age of ninety-three, is an even more popular composer in Denmark than the son; his grandfather was an organist, and his great-grandfather, a Silesian by birth, enjoyed considerable vogue in Copenhagen as a composer during the latter part of the eighteenth century. Apart from his work as a composer, Hartmann's life was almost wholly uneventful. In 1861 he was appointed organist at St. John's Church in Copenhagen, and ten years later he was transferred to the Palace Church, where he remained until his death. For a short time he directed the Music Society of Copenhagen. His compositions (in all forms), which enjoy special favor in Germany, show great variety, though almost all share the Northern coloring that distinguishes the works of his brother-in-law Gade and his father. He was remarkably successful as an orchestral leader, and appeared frequently at concerts both at home and abroad. In Denmark Emil Hartmann suffered in reputation from being the son of his father.

—For many years Mr. William Spohn Baker was an ardent collector of Washingtoniana, and late in life he began to use this material in compilations designed to assist others in following Washington's career almost from day to day. The last of the series, 'Washington After the Revolution,' was fortunately completed before Mr. Baker's death, and now appears in book form, a worthy companion to the earlier issues (Philadelphia: Lippincott). Without reference to the connection of events, a note is made of the more important incidents in Washington's private and official life from 1784 to 1799, and the record is generally in Washington's own words. A few impressions of contemporaries are included, and fewer reminiscences of those writing long after the events. It would be unkind to criticise too closely the mode of selection, for a genial tone runs through the volume and rather adds to the personal interest. The man receives more attention than passing events, and it is Washington as a farmer, a land speculator, an undertaker of canal improvements, a President and Lieutenant-General that is emphasized. The real history of the day is passed over, and the political intrigues that were carried on around Washington have no attraction for the compiler. Where the President dined or attended the theatre; how he behaved at a levée or impressed a visitor; what success attended him in fox-hunting, and what places he visited in his tours to the East and South, are recorded with a fulness leaving little to require. The more serious topics must be sought elsewhere.

—Naturally there is much of curious interest in these disconnected jottings. On a journey to his Western lands, Washington does not visit his people on a Sunday because they were "apparently very religious." During the sittings of the Constitutional Convention he goes to see a mangle at Dr. Franklin's, and gravely notes, "which Machine from the facility with which it despatches business is well calculated for Table cloths & such articles as have not pleats & irregular foldings, and would be very useful in all large families." The model of Rumsey's steamboat hardly excited greater interest in him. On a Sunday he sends his "two Jackasses to the Election at Marlborough in Maryland, that they might be seen"—a feature of elections long since abandoned. When making his Eastern tour, he received an invitation to attend the funeral of the wife of a New York Senator, but "declined complying with it—first, because the propriety of accepting any invitation of this sort appeared very questionable—and secondly, (though to do it in this instance might not be improper), because it might be difficult to discriminate in cases which might hereafter happen." The comment on attending morning service at the Dutch Reformed Church may be placed next: "which, being in that

language [Dutch] not a word of which I understood I was in no danger of becoming a proselyte to its religion by the eloquence of the preacher." Attempts at humor on Washington's part were very infrequent and were very grim indeed. It may be noticed that Mr. Baker includes the exhibition of temper over St. Clair's defeat, although Mr. Morse has given proof that the story is untrue. The account of the Randolph incident is too partial to Randolph. The copyists of the Diaries have played strange pranks with names, and for this Mr. Baker cannot be held responsible.

—An obituary notice of the late Thomas Sterry Hunt, by James Douglas, has been reprinted from the memorial volume of the American Philosophical Society. One of the most versatile and distinguished men of science of his generation, Hunt's posthumous reputation has suffered from the effects of his controversial disposition, while his really great contributions to the chemistry of geology are appreciated only by a select few. He was born September 5, 1826, in Norwich, Conn., and died in New York February 12, 1892, after a lingering illness which he supported with the utmost fortitude. He was a natural student, and rose, from almost menial duties as a boy, by unswerving application and native genius, to a position of acknowledged distinction in the scientific world. From an assistant in Silliman's laboratory he passed to the position of chemist and mineralogist to the Geological Survey of Canada, became professor of chemistry in the Laval University and subsequently in McGill University, and later professor of geology in the Boston Institute of Technology. He became a fellow of the Royal Society and a member of the National Academy of Sciences, and was made chevalier and officer of the Legion of Honor, among many other testimonials to his scientific eminence. Perhaps his most interesting contribution to applied science was his invention of the sesquioxide of chromium ink, as a safeguard against counterfeiters, which, first employed in Canada, has penetrated the civilized world on the "greenbacks" of the United States. Mr. Douglas's memoir is written in excellent taste, and, without concealing the foibles of its subject, justly insists on the ardor and courage with which Hunt met their consequences, and the importance of his contributions to science. Of these the bibliography, appended to the paper, covers seventeen pages.

—A volume of travels of rather exceptional merit is the work of Paul Rohrbach, entitled 'In Turan und Armenien' (Berlin: G. Stilke). The subtitle, "Auf den Pfaden russischer Weltpolitik," prepares one for matter of interest not only to the Oriental archæologist, but to the student of the problems and perplexities of modern world politics. The author was exceptionally well fitted for his task, by a good acquaintance with the historical ups and downs of the districts visited—mainly from the neighborhood of the Caspian Sea to Samarkand, Bokhara, and Merv, as well as by his ability to use the Russian language as easily as a native. He explains the almost phenomenal success of the Russians in spreading their influence in these territories by their ability patiently to adapt themselves to the peculiarities of Oriental nationalities, including the Moslem peoples. His observations confirm a general opinion that Russia's civilizing mission finds its proper sphere of operation in Asia, and not in Europe. On the vexed question as to the noble or ignoble character of the martyr nation of Armenians, the author reports that the small merchant minority of the Armenians, with whom other Orientals and Europeans come in contact, amply deserve the bad reputation they bear, but that, as regards fully 90 per cent. of the Armenians, the conviction expressed by Moltke half a century ago must be upheld, namely, that they are a peaceable and industrious peasant and shepherd population, and politically perfectly harmless.

HEARNIUS REDIVIVUS.

Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne. Vol. IV. (Dec. 15, 1712—Nov. 30, 1714). Edited by D. W. Rannie, M.A. Oxford: Printed for the Oxford Historical Society at the Clarendon Press. New York: Henry Frowde. 1898.

Not only are we compelled to place a Latin title at the head of this article, it is with difficulty that we refrain from attempting to write of Hearne in the language which he regarded as the proper dialect of scholars. When treating of trivial, every-day affairs, English is good enough for him, but let it be the important question of a rare coin in the Ray collection at the "Bodlejan," and he at once drops the vulgar for the learned tongue. "In Bibl. Bodl. habemus nummum argenteum Balbini, in cujus parte aversa legitur FIDES MVTVA AVG G CC. Hunc non habet Occo. Nec quidem alibi inveni." How can one communicate the flavor of such a man, unless he use the medium of communication which served the grammarians and antiquaries of 200 years ago? They were pickled in the brine of academic Latin (that there was not much *Attic* salt in Oxford when Hearne came to it the Phalaris controversy will witness), and it has preserved them well, if any one cares to search for them in the museum. Briefly, Hearne is unknown outside the small circle of amateur and professional bookworms, who would probably prefer a Latin discourse on him to an English essay.

When we term this circle of bookworms "small," we apply the word relatively. The bibliography of fifty years past shows that a considerable number of people still exist who will buy Hearne's books and books about him. In 1848 a 'Bibliotheca Hearniana,' or excerpts from Hearne's Catalogue, appeared; in 1857 Dr. Philip Bliss published 'Reliquiæ Hearnianæ,' a series of excerpts from his diaries, and this anthology, having found its way into a second edition, 1869, is given an honored place on the shelves of the students who own it; finally, in 1884, the Oxford Historical Society began its publications with the Register of the University, Vol. I., and Hearne's Collections, Vol. I. To be granted precedence of Anthony Wood, and that in Oxford itself, would be a distinction worth putting to our antiquary's credit if we could be sure that he was not taken up first on the grounds of bulk and editorial difficulty. Certainly the task of selecting from and editing his hundred-odd MS. volumes of diary has till now made but moderate progress. In the fourteenth year from the outset, we receive the fourth volume, and an interval of nine years separates it from vol. iii. This tedious delay, however, can be accounted for by a change of editors. Mr. Doble, a very accomplished expert, having brought down the notes and journals from July 4, 1704, to December 14, 1712, was forced to relinquish the task, and his successor, Mr. Rannie, has doubtless found that the first step costs a good deal. But though the labor of choice, transcription, and annotation has been slow, its fruit is excellent, and for our own part we are not sorry to resume the subject at greater length than we should had the sequence of volumes been more rapid.

One characteristic of the true antiquary is that he goes through life without ever being young. Hearne's boyhood was spent in learning Latin, he took his Oxford B.A. at twenty-one and at twenty-three he was an assistant in the Bodleian, where he employed what leisure he could snatch in voluntarily correcting the catalogue. The point at which the present instalment of his diary starts is 1712. He had then risen to be assistant keeper and janitor of his beloved library, ingeniously securing the latter post in order to range the building free from every hindrance. He was still at a lusty age, thirty-four, yet no token of exuberance rises to the surface unless he is required to slate a piece of bad scholarship, or to register his scorn of some time-server who has renounced allegiance to the Stuarts. Modern Oxford boasts that whereas the German universities produce scholars, she produces statesmen. Hearne, despite his allegiance to a lost cause, was no statesman nor politician; but he was a scholar like him of Stacey Marks's picture, or of whom Southey sings: "My days among the dead are past."

The early eighteenth century can muster a fairly large band of devotees to *literæ humaniores* and archæology—men who watched the seething and churning rapid of human action from the bank, yet who in a literary sense may be called belated humanists. Many of them preferred the acquisition of knowledge to its diffusion or transference from one book to another, and, if they happened to command independent means, published little, sometimes nothing. Hearne was of a different disposition. He had within certain limits a utilitarian instinct, and wished to contribute his share to the common store of erudition. Writing July 13, 1713, to one who had sent him a present of six guineas (presumably to assist in the publication of unremunerative books) he says: "Tho' I have not those Abilities w^ch might capacitate me for doing great things, yet I am sensible that I have a good Intention, and that I have accordingly applyed my self to do as much publick service as can be exspected from Persons in my mean Circumstances." And one is glad that his infinite industry had its reward; for, quite apart from any value we may assign to these diaries and to his editions of Leland, the series of English mediæval historians which he issued held the field till this last generation. It is perhaps fortunate that Hearne belonged to a sect of political pariahs, the Non-jurors, for thus he escaped the misfortune of excessive attention. His curiosity was so general that, once courted by patrons of the classics, he might have been altogether deflected from the department of English antiquities, where he was sorely needed.

Readers of Mark Pattison's 'Memoirs' will remember how minutely, how seriously, and indeed how bitterly he describes an election at Lincoln College which resulted in the success of his rival. He was afterwards chosen Rector and enjoyed a long tenure of

the position without being able, when as an old man he wrote his candid reflections, to forget the anguish or injury of that episode. One can see from Hearne's Diary that the same eager interest in Oxford politics prevailed then. The University is a microcosm, and from Bernard Gardiner, Warden of All Souls and Vice-Chancellor, to Bodley's janitor, every citizen of the academic commonwealth is wedded to it. What need to look abroad? Even Cambridge is of slight consideration in comparison. On November 17, 1714, Hearne writes to B. Willis:

"The Fellowships are not better endowed at Cambridge than at Oxford. Nor can I be persuaded that their Gardens and Walks are preferable. Indeed there is no Comparison between the two Universities either for Beauty, or Pleasure, or for the Goodness of the Air. And tho' Kings College Chapell exceeds any of our Chapells, yet when we excell them on so many other Accounts, it will not (as I take it) be proper from this only Building to think that that University may be compared with ours."

Having touched on Hearne as a born student of antiquities and as a scion of Oxford's own nurture, let us see how his character, principles, and occupations are illustrated by his Remarks and Correspondence for 1712-14. It matters little that those who occupy most space in this journal are not great public personages, and that the events which most affected Hearne caused no stir in the world. His friends and enemies were real to him, and he has left a detailed, peculiar recital of them. There is room in human sympathy for every kind of nature which is not purely sordid; but lives pass away as fast as Oriental imagery says they do, and the faithful portrait is seldom preserved. We cannot believe that Hearne's 'Collections' will ever become a biographical classic in the popular sense. At the same time, by virtue of fulness and authenticity, they belong to a select class of writings, for which no apology need be offered by editor or reviewer.

Of the personal losses which Hearne suffered during this period, Francis Cherry's death was the most severe. He had discovered Hearne, provided for his schooling, sent him to Oxford, and given him his non-juring principles. Friendship with Dodwell had been another bond between them, and patron almost equalled client in his zeal for learning. It would be over-sentimental to speak of the blow falling heavily on Hearne, for he shows us no sign of excessive grief. Either his daily intercourse with the record of past mutability had disciplined him to stoicism, or his temperament inclined him to esteem and reverence rather than to ardent affection. At least one must acquit him of any desire to shirk the recognition of his debt to Cherry. He did not belong to the *servum pecus* who forget their benefits. In registering Cherry's death he praises among other qualities his modesty, and then continues:

"But tho' he desired that his Name upon that Account might not be made use of, yet this must be remembred of him that 'tis to this Gentleman's Liberality that the Writer of these Matters owes his Education, he having maintained him for some time not only at School and in his own House, but for several Years in the University, even 'till such time as he took the Degree of Master in Arts, all at his own proper Expense."

Cherry lived and died at Shottesbrooke, a village of Berkshire, in which Dodwell had also settled after he lost his Camden professorship of history at Oxford. Here he produced his best work, 'De Cyclis Veterum,' a treatise warmly praised by Gibbon, and in Hearne's eyes nothing short of "elaborate and immortal." We mention the friendship between Cherry and Dodwell because Hearne was closely connected with the one, and his admiration for the other drew him into an exciting tilt with the Oxford authorities. In the winter of 1713 he edited a discourse of Dodwell's entitled 'De Parma Equestri Woodwardiana,' adding some remarks of his own. The book gave offence, was suppressed, and Hearne had the satisfaction of feeling himself the honest victim of tyranny and prejudice. The case has a good many ramifications, and may be singled out as the striking incident of this volume.

The root of the trouble was not Dodwell's text; it was Hearne's praise of Dodwell and his strictures on Dr. Milles, the Bishop of Waterford and Lismore. The Heads of Houses met in the Apodyterium, and summoned Hearne from the Library. When he appeared, he was put in possession of the charges against him. They were: "(1.) That he had called Mr. Dodwell a Conscientious Non-Juror. (2.) That he had called one of his Discourses aureus tractatus. (3.) That he had signified that vir quidam mediocriter doctus had written two Books in Defence of Mr. Dodwell's principles about the deprived Bps. (one whereof was published an. 1698, with this Title, Remarks on the Occasional Paper, numb. VIII) & that he had not long after changed his Opinion on purpose to get Preferm^{t}. Mr. Hearne was urged to retract what he had said, but this he absolutely refused; upon which they suppressed his Book." Two hundred and forty copies had been printed, and forty-three sold, before action was taken. Hearne bore the risk of the venture, and lost about £60 by it, which he could ill spare for the sake of an unpleasant notoriety.

But an epitome of the complaints brought against this stiff-necked Non-juror, and of their results, by no means covers the ground. Hearne's own detailed narrative of the circumstances (with its analysis of his opponents' motives) is the thing. This occupies practically a whole volume of his MS. —equivalent in print to twenty-three large octavo pages—and is styled, "About Suppressing my Book, and the Occasion of it."

On February 20, 1712-13, "being Friday, a little before 10 Clock," Mr. Keil, Savilian Professor of Astronomy, entered the Bodleian attended by one Mr. Mollineux, an Irish gentleman. They wished to see "the most considerable Curiosities," and Hearne displayed manuscripts and coins, ignorant at first that Mr. Mollineux was "a Man of those very bad Principles, and that debauched Understanding, as I have since found him by experience to be." He asked in a pretentious way "whether we had a Brass Otho, a Pertinax, and other Coyns of that nature, such, I mean as are look't upon by good Antiquaries as spurious?" He soon proved his ignorance of numismatics. "Yet he had not as yet discovered himself to be a Man of Republican, ill Principles, and of a malignant Temper, 'till we came to the Anatomy Schoole." Here Hearne pointed out an engraving of Benjamin Hoadley "hanging there with Horns and Wings." Or, as he was careful to state: "This Picture many had said was Benjamin Hoadley, the seditious Divine of London; but for my part, I gave no other Description of it than this, that 't was the Picture of one of the greatest Presbyterian, Republican, Antimonarchical, Whiggish, Fanatical Preachers living in England." Shortly after, still not perceiving that Mollineux was a Whig, Hearne brought out a second print; "the Picture of a beautifull young Man over the Head of which was ΕΙΚΩΝ ΒΑΣΙΛΙΚΗ, and underneath *Quid quaeritis ultra.*" Once more he was on his guard, and did not tell the visitors that they were looking at the Pretender, but merely showed it "as a thing excellently well done." Unfortunately Mollineux was more concerned with the political than with the artistic significance of the print, and straightway informed. The Vice-Chancellor took alarm, rebuked Hearne privately, and then hastened to aim a blow at him by way of his book.

Another amusing story springs out of the third charge cited above, namely, that Hearne had made an improper reference to the Bishop of Waterford and Lismore as *vir quidam mediocriter doctus*, etc. At the meeting which condemned the book the President of Corpus objected to reflections on a bishop. This opened the door for Hearne to clear off an old score against Dr. Milles, dating from his edition of St. Cyril. "I told them that he owed me money for the 3 Indexes to St. Cyrill which I drew up, and for w^{ch} he would never pay me more than 2 Guineas, tho' 5 was his own voluntary Offer, & what was agreed upon betwixt us; and I might have said other things, but I was not willing to trouble them." Although he hesitated to tell the Heads of Houses, he tells us every last detail; how Milles offered him five guineas for doing the *Index Auctorum* and the *Index Rerum*, and how of his own accord he contributed an *Index locorum Scripturæ*. Next, how, after much delay and importunity, he got two guineas of his pay, and finally how he would have secured a legal judgment but for the persuasion of Dr. Hudson. The digression is five closely printed pages in length, and concludes: "All these Particulars one would think considered together might have influenced our Heads to pass by what I had said of Milles unregarded, had it been much more."

Unflagging industry, devotion to scholarship, and ability to restrict his wants are among Hearne's unmistakable traits. He was such another man as Chaucer's Clerk of Oxenford, though spending what he could get less on the purchase than on the editing of books. In 1712 he has just finished Leland's 'Itinerary,' and is proceeding to the 'Collectanea.' By July 31, 1714, he is feeling his way towards his most useful enterprise, the mediæval chroniclers. "Leland's Collectanea is in great Forwardness. When that is done I have thoughts of printing Tully's Works. I had once a design of printing some of our English Historians not yet published, whereof we have several in Bodley. But our Governours here have almost discouraged me by an Order they made, when they prosecuted me, against transcribing MSS."' One author finished, another is started. Hearne was not a great historian, nor a great editor, but he was a great antiquary.

These collections are a magazine, nay, a warehouse, of pungent diatribe against University Whigs, and of curious garnerings-in from books. We conclude by quoting an item from each class. The first relates to a piece of promotion, which "one Salmon, A. M. & Fellow of Oriel," had received:

"Salmon is a very starch'd white-livered Republican. He pretends to great Sanctity of Life. He drinks always Water & hath no Arts nor Learning. He preaches by heart, & makes horrid work of it. He catechizes

the Children of St. Peter's, making them use that vile, wretched Catechism published by Burnett, Bp. of Sarum, with whom Salmon is said to be great."

Lastly, we subjoin statistics of a feast which seems to outdo rich Camacho's wedding:

"A Feast Mad [at Reading] Bye Mr. Calver, July 29 [no year]. 1 Ox 19 fatt Sheep 5 Buck 7 Calves 3 Lambs 100 fatt Duckes 100 Rabbits 100 poulates 10 pigs 7 fliches of Bacon 20 Barrels of Bear 50 Dozen Bottels of Wine 1000 half peack Loaves 3 guines to ye Biggars. Lost 24 Dozen knives and forkes and a great Del of Linin and a great many Bottels. Y^e treat for y^e women was y^e 6 of August and that was as mutch as y^e men's or more and som of [them] did tack a Littell to mutch."

Lovers of Hearne's Diaries should be warned by the fate of these convivial and intemperate ladies.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF SUGGESTION.

The Psychology of Suggestion. By Boris Sidis, M.A., Ph.D., Associate in Psychology at the Pathological Institute of the New York State Hospitals. With an Introduction by Prof. William James. D. Appleton & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 386.

An interesting book is this in more ways than one, beginning with the title-page, for it marks a stadium in the progress, both of psychology and of medicine, that the need of such an official as an "Associate in Psychology" should have been felt and filled in the Pathological Institute of the New York State Hospitals. It speaks well for that institution. It is interesting, too, to meet with so signal a vindication of the appointment as is afforded by the successful treatment of the extraordinary and interesting case of the Rev. Thomas Carson Hanna. This gentleman, of superior endowments and accomplishments, when he came to himself after a carriage accident, was like one new born. He had clean lost all knowledge, all passion, all voluntary activity. He was bereft of every vestige of familiarity with everything, had no suspicion that the sounds of speech had any meaning, never thought of the persons about him as persons, had no consciousness of self as such, and did not look upon the external world as real. When, after a few weeks, he had begun to use his hands, he had become ambidextrous. His logical acumen returned very early, while he was still in pasional innocence, was asking the meaning of the simplest words, and wondering at the most every-day matters. The extraordinary rapidity with which he acquired and applied new knowledge, his keen sense of music and symmetry, and the significant fact that he learned English in a few weeks, and pronounced it well and correctly, confirmed Dr. Sidis in his first impression that the old personality had not been crushed to death, but had only been dissevered from conscious life, still in great measure swaying the newly-formed personality from the subconscious depths of being.

In order to "tap the subconscious self," the patient was questioned about his dreams. It turned out that, besides ordinary dreams, he had "clear picture dreams," which were in reality fragments of his former life, although he did not recognize them, but thought them very strange. Thus, in one of them, he saw a house with these letters on it: N E W B O S T O N J U N C. He had lately learned to read the word NEW; but the other letters were entirely unintelligible to him. Latent memory being thus proved, the problem was to bring it up into connection with consciousness. This was gradually accomplished by means of a method, due to Dr. Sidis, which he calls *hypnoidization*, and which is described. At length he was brought into a condition of double consciousness, complete amnesia separating the two states. Finally, by means of a method for an account of which we are referred to a subsequent publication, the two states were run into one. "The patient is now perfectly well and has resumed his vocation." There have lately been some further reports which confirm this statement.

The main purpose of the book professes to be to show that every man has a double personality—the one person dominant and self-conscious, the other subordinate and subconscious. This is not a theory towards which psychologists will antecedently incline; nor will they accept the evidences here adduced as at all sufficient. That the subconscious part of the mind makes up a unitary self will not readily be admitted.

The work is divided into three parts entitled Suggestibility, The Self, Society. The middle part occupies more than half the volume and is the centre of the author's thought. To this the chapters on suggestibility are introductory. "Suggestibility" is the Nancy word for that docility, or, if you please, that incitability, which is so exaggerated in the hypnotic trance, but of which everybody, especially an agreeable and sympathetic person, has a large share. This faculty, or state of mind, was first assigned as the main secret of the ordinary phenomena of hypnotism as long ago as 1845 by the American itinerant lecturer Grimes. But he was not an academic person, and was naturally ignored. He proposed the word "credenciveness" as the scientific name for the universal incitability of which we are speaking, briefly defining it as "that conforming social propensity whose natural stimulus is an assertion," but not neglecting to describe all its principal effects. "Credenciveness," he says, "is the key to most of the wonderful experiments of Buchanan and Sunderland, of Braid, Hall, and Elliotson." We may add that, by reducing Consciousness to the rank of a special faculty, Grimes paved the way to the modern doctrine of the subconscious mind. Modern psychology is suffering grievously from the lack of a precise and consistent terminology. The experience of other sciences shows that the only possible basis for a universally accepted scientific terminology lies in a strict adherence to the rule that the word proposed as the scientific designation of a concept by the discoverer who first introduces that concept into science, shall be adopted unless there are very solid objections to it. The word "credenciveness" is not particularly apt, because it does not obviously imply a tendency to action, although it was so understood by Grimes. On the other hand, the word "suggestibility"—aside from its awkwardness in seeming to substitute "facility to be suggested" in place of "facility to receive suggestions," and aside from its implying no tendency to action, but only the calling of an idea into notice—is seriously objectionable for the reason that "suggestion" was already an accepted term of psychology, and a quite indispensable one, in a totally different sense, before it was applied to hypnotic incitation. Namely, Hartley and the English associationalists, men whose own distinguished courtesy and freedom from insolence towards all philosophers—not to speak of their scientific merits—must command the same treatment from men who really respect themselves, desired to appropriate the word "suggestion" to the calling up to the surface of consciousness of one idea by another idea associated with it. No term could be more apt; nor is it pleasing to see the terminology established by these masters hustled aside by their inferiors.

The first part of Dr. Sidis's book, then, is concerned with the laws of credenciveness, or incitability. He argues that its general law is, "Suggestibility varies as the amount of disaggregation, and inversely as the unification of consciousness." We are glad to find he uses the term "disaggregation" and not "dissociation"; for the implication of the latter term, that the phenomenon consists solely in the abrogation of habits of association of ideas, is incorrect. Both words were used by M. Pierre Janet, to whom the recognition of the importance of the matter is due. In ordinary parlance, we call it distraction of mind. For example, an artist who eats his luncheon while he paints, and in his absorption puts his pigment into his mouth, and without remarking its bad taste, yet spits it out unconsciously, exhibits a disaggregation of consciousness. It consists in the cutting of communications between two parts of the mind which are occupied with different matters. Drowsiness and slumber are conditions of extensive disaggregation.

The mathematical form in the phraseology of the statement we have quoted, which is repeated in all Dr. Sidis's formulations, is here and elsewhere quite meaningless, and is calculated greatly to repel all students of the mathematical sciences. If that be eliminated, there is nothing at all new in the statement, as Dr. Sidis's earnest tone of argumentation would lead one to suppose he thought there was. Everybody knows that if, while a man is writing out a check, he is carrying on a lively correspondence about a Rothschild, he may sign that name to the check instead of his own. What seems more original, in Dr. Sidis's account of the matter, is that he represents the credenciveness of waking persons and of hypnotic subjects as if they followed diametrically opposite laws, which he prints in parallel columns, thus:

THE LAW OF ABNORMAL SUGGESTIBILITY.	THE LAW OF NORMAL SUGGESTIBILITY.
Abnormal suggestibility varies as direct suggestion, and inversely as indirect suggestion.	Normal suggestibility varies as indirect suggestion, and inversely as direct suggestion.

But this seems to be merely an effect of exaggerated expression. Dr. Sidis would, we may hope, not himself maintain that the phenomena were really of fundamentally contrary characters; for this would subvert the whole doctrine of his book. It is merely that, the hypnotic subject being in a state of extreme mental disaggregation, we can give him sharp commands without fear that they will evoke the rebellion of another part of his mind which they never reach, while because of his disaggregation sharp commands are required. With a waking person, on the contrary, not sharp command but an underhand mode of incitement is requisite in order to avoid offending his egotistical susceptibilities. It would be quite unjust, and would show little power of weighing evidence, to say that the experiments in this part of the book are insuffi-

cient to establish a proposition so thoroughly borne out by all our ordinary experience and instinctive knowledge of human nature. We do not doubt, though, that a good many psychologists will make just that criticism.

When, in commencing part ii., we find Dr. Sidis maintaining that what went before, the substance of which we have indicated, affords "strong proof" of there being "two selves within the frame of the individual," that is, that the subconscious parts of the mind are unified as if by a controlling consciousness, we are amazed at the width of his leap. But what are we to say when we find such experiments as the following put forth as "facts which directly and explicitly [note the inexactitude of this word] prove the same truth"? Upon the nose of an hysterical patient who complains of blindness of one eye, is placed a pair of spectacles of which the two glasses do not both transmit the light of any one part of the spectrum. (The author says of "complementary colors," but that is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition.) The patient is then asked to read an inscription of which every other letter is covered by the one kind of glass and the others by glass of the other kind; so that, to each eye, half the letters must be invisible. The patient, however, promptly reads the whole. This proves that the patient has a preconceived idea that she is blind of one eye, which idea, acting upon her credenciveness, leads her to say (no doubt, to herself, as well as to others) that she does not see with that eye. But in what way does this begin to show that all the subconscious parts of the mind are organized into a single self?

When we find that all the facts adduced are equally impertinent, we begin to think that, just as Dr. Sidis overstated his own position in part i., so here in part ii. he does not really mean to say that there are just two selves in every man, but only that the conscious and subconscious parts of the mind are related to one another *somewhat* as the two selves of a patient with double personality. But if this is the case, he has no scientifically definite and novel proposition to enunciate; for everybody has perceived that there was *some* degree of analogy between the two classes of phenomena. It may be somewhat closer than has been supposed; but no contribution to science will have been made until we are informed definitely in what respect the analogy is close. Although it is not a positive contribution to science, however, the array of facts in this part of the book is striking and suggestive (if we may be allowed to use this word without being understood to mean "incitive to action").

In part iii. the author gives a slight account of some of those mental epidemics of which several French writers, beginning with Moreau, have made admirable studies. That the mob self is a subconscious self is obvious. It is quite true, too, as Dr. Sidis says, that America is peculiarly subject to epidemic mental seizures. In fact, it may be said that democracy, as contrasted with autocracy—and especially government by public opinion and popular sentiment as expressed in newspapers—is government by the irrational element of man. To discover how this can be cured, as a practical, realized result, without the ends of government being narrowed to the good of an individual or class, is our great problem. Prof. James seems to think this third part of the book is the best. We will defer to his judgment; but certainly a great subject here remains almost virgin ground for a writer of power.

The Two Duchesses. Family Correspondence of and relating to Georgiana Duchess of Devonshire, Elizabeth Duchess of Devonshire, [etc.] Edited by Vere Foster. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

One of the chief contributors to this volume of family correspondence is Frederick Augustus Hervey, Bishop of Derry and Earl of Bristol. He was a luxurious churchman, taking the sacred functions of his calling with much light-heartedness and finding his worst enemy in the gout. When he wished to travel, he had in his malady an excellent excuse, and he solaced himself by frequenting the mineral springs of Germany and Italy. It was from Pyrmont, in July, 1777, that he wrote thus to one of his daughters, Mrs. John Thomas Foster:

"The next question was with regard to company, and in that, too, we were fortunate, for there was no canaille, little bourgeoisie, and some persons, not only of great distinction, but of excellent dispositions, and the great parity that is maintained here among all persons gives this little place a spirit of elegant but easy republicanism that is very pleasing, and I am sure contributes much to the salutariness of the waters and of course to the recovery of the patients."

We might linger upon this passage to make game of the gay Bishop and the therapeutic value to him of association with the Prince of Waldeck and Augusta, Hereditary Princess of Brunswick; but our purpose in citing his words is to define the character of the whole volume. "A spirit of elegant but easy republicanism"—on the aristocratic basis—is pervasive, and in the course of 468 pages we meet "no canaille, little bourgeoisie" (a few, to be sure, in America), "and some persons, not only of great distinction, but of excellent dispositions." The Bishop gives us almost the exact phrases we need to use in describing the quality of his family circle.

The title recalls two women who a hundred years ago were eminent in Continental countries as well as in England. They were the successive wives of the fifth Duke of Devonshire, intimate friends, and each the centre of a notable group. The first Duchess, Georgiana, is universally celebrated because she dabbled with politics, and the Whig historian has made her the cynosure in one of his most glowing scenes. Macaulay, who gave great pains to the trial of Warren Hastings, selects her for the prominent figure among all the spectators. His climax mounts through peers, heroes, and members of the royal family to Siddons and Gibbon, Reynolds and Parr, before it reaches the queens of society. Of these, the third and final one, exalted above Mrs. Montague herself, is the Whig Duchess. The long paragraph closes with: "And there the ladies, whose lips, more persuasive than those of Fox himself, had carried the Westminster election against palace and treasury, shone round Georgiana Duchess of Devonshire." Elizabeth, the second Duchess, though unpolitical and therefore less vaunted of Clio, was attractive enough to rouse the ardor of Gibbon. He proposed marriage to her, and remained her admirer after she had refused him. "If she chose to beckon the Lord Chancellor from his woolsack in full sight of the world, he could not resist obedience," was his calm and impersonal verdict.

Equally for amusement and information these letters which Mr. Vere Foster has edited are to be read and valued. To proceed from the general to the particular, they depict the British oligarchy of that age in many and varied guises: at home and abroad, in the bosom of the family, and on the public stage, in peace and in war, in contentment and in vexation. Had Jane Austen been born a little higher in the social scale, she might have described these people to perfection as she has the members of the lesser gentry. The Bishop of Derry, from whom we have already quoted, is exactly the sort of man who would come out well in a novel. But he and his relatives far surpass the Bertrams of 'Mansfield Park,' the Tilneys of 'Northanger Abbey,' in grandeur; and Miss Austen never tried to portray the types outside her own ken. Fortunately this correspondence goes some distance towards preserving the features of the *haute noblesse* as she has fixed the *hobereaux*.

Without stating that England's best interests were served by a body of legislation which protected aristocratic privilege, we may feel glad that a large number of cultured and kind-hearted nobles were by the then existing tariffs given a magnificent chance to enjoy themselves. One may regret that their pleasure was gained at the expense of the agricultural laborer. In itself it was often innocent and sometimes picturesque. At any rate, when one is not directly or indirectly a sufferer, the record of it is attractive. Having a choice of pursuit, and money to throw out of the window, the eighteenth-century earl, marquis, or duke, if intelligent, took care to provide himself with rational occupation.

> " S'occuper, c'est savoir jouir,
> L'oiseveté pèse et tourmente;
> L'âme est un feu qu'il faut nourrir,
> Et qui s'éteint s'il ne s'augmente.

Good breeding considered as a work of art, the cultivation of social gifts, the finished entertainment of friends, and politics, including diplomacy, were legitimate means of spending the time, and all are illustrated here.

The Duchess Georgiana was a daughter of Earl Spencer; the Duchess Elizabeth, the daughter of the Earl of Bristol. Elizabeth Hervey was twice married, and as the editor is a descendant of her first husband, Mr. J. T. Foster, the memorials at his disposal bear less upon Georgiana than upon his grandmother. The intimacy of the two women was remarkable. Elizabeth's marriage with Mr. Foster ended unhappily, and after a separation from him she lived and travelled with Georgiana for nearly twenty-five years. The uncommon thing about the connection is the loving harmony of two great wits and beauties. Either of them was competent to hold a court; taken together, they were irresistible. Georgiana wrote English and French verses in praise of Elizabeth, and they united to compose an elegy on the death of a personal and political friend, James Hare. Georgiana died in 1806, and three years later the Duke—who could also turn a copy of couplets—married her friend. The last part of Elizabeth's life was spent in Rome, where her salon was the most crowded, cosmopolitan, and successful of the period. A recital in the preface of a few facts like these prepares one for a series of letters which contains examples of Gibbon, Sheridan, Fox, the Prince Regent, Gen. Moreau, Alexander of

Russia, Canova, Thorwaldsen, and Capodistrias. Beside such historians, orators, artists, generals, and rulers, the Bishop of Derry is a minor figure, but by virtue of certain melodramatic traits he is worth his weight in gold to the lover of light literature. We cannot refrain from giving a snatch of the paean which, in 1797, he sends to his daughter from Potsdam when the guest of Frederick William II.:

"Sans Souci and Sans Souci for ever, my dearest Elizabeth! At last, on the thirtieth of October—Sunday noon—here I am truly worthy of this Philosophic Mansion, without care, and almost without thought, so consummately am I Germanized . . . At close of day we close our labours, and then here is our recompense:

Soupe.
Bouilli of duck or goose.
Mutton shoulder or leg.

and a large bowl of punch, in which we bury all fatigue, and at length all thought, and then, as the clock strikes eight, enter the warming pan, *et tout est dit*, and all night sleep in Elysium without one single ghost in our dreams."

The Historical MSS. Commission, we may be sure, would have rejoiced to lay hands upon these Hervey-Foster letters. Through good fortune they are published not in fine print and small quarto, but with the added attraction which comes from beauty of type, paper, and plates. We believe that they have permanent merit apart from their open and graceful style. Much might be said of their worth as historical material, but we prefer to insist that they are capital reading. Whoever approaches them from the side of literature will see before he has gone far that they are a contribution to history. They could easily be made to illustrate a dozen important points arising from the affairs of the period they cover, 1777-1821. We mention three only: English sentiment towards Napoleon in its progressive development, *passim*; the state of feeling in London after Nelson's death; Masséna's opinion of the Emperor as expressed to the Duchess Elizabeth. So satisfactory a bundle of family correspondence is seldom issued.

A Text-Book of Zoölogy. By T. Jeffery Parker [New Zealand] and W. A. Haswell [New South Wales]. Two volumes, pp. xxxv, 779; xx, 683; 1,173 figures [some colored]. Macmillan Co.

This work, the significance and usefulness of which must be unqualifiedly conceded, represents an enormous amount of labor upon the part of two experienced teachers, one of whom has died since its completion, probably in great part from the exhaustion attendant thereon. Nor would we underrate the admirable mechanical features of the work and the educational portent of the issue of so large and costly a text-book upon a single branch of natural history, while expressing a wish that both the bulk and the cost might have been diminished by putting more paragraphs into small type.

The intent and method of the authors are clearly set forth in the preface. After an introduction and a section upon "General Structure and Physiology" there are presented in turn the twelve phylums recognized, viz.: Protozoa, Porifera, Cœlenterata, Platyhelminths, Nemathelminths, Trochelminths, Molluscoida, Echinodermata, Annulata, Arthropoda, Mollusca and (occupying the whole of the second volume) Chordata, corresponding nearly with Vertebrates. The discussion of each class is based upon a more or less detailed account of the anatomy and development of one or more forms, fairly representative and commonly available; the chordate types, for example, are Balanoglossus, Ascidia, lancelet, lamprey, a small shark, salmon, Ceratodus, frog, lizard, pigeon, and rabbit. The second volume also contains a discussion of the "mutual relationships of the chordata" and "of the twelve phyla" (the titles of the two illustrative diagrams are unfortunately transposed). The last seventy pages are devoted to Geographic Distribution, the Philosophy and History of Zoölogy, and Modern Literature, seven of the sixty writers recommended being American. The index is well arranged and nearly complete.

Actual errors are gratifyingly few, the most serious, perhaps, being the ascription of a "posterior cornu" to the "lateral ventricle" of the rabbit. The frequent recurrence of "cœcum" for cæcum exemplifies the desirability of discarding diphthongs as in economy, equator, and aqueduct. As to terminology, aside from the consistent use of *dorsal* and *ventral*, of *precaval* and *postcaval*, and of *neuron* (for cerebro-spinal axis), the most notable feature is the replacement of ventricle by *cœle*, and the designation of the encephalic cavities by the compounds *mesocœle*, *paracœle*, etc., terms which, if we are to credit the declarations and vaticinations of a recent "minority report on nomenclature," are "generally repulsive to educated men" and calculated to "bring anatomy into disgrace." Yet even those who may share these gloomy views respecting a single feature of the present work will probably admit this to be highly authoritative and accurate; it is unquestionably the most recent and comprehensive text-book of zoölogy in the English language.

Introduction to Algebra. By G. Chrystal. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1898. 8vo, pp. 412+25.

This algebra for beginners, by the well-known author of a highly praised two-volume advanced treatise on the elementary parts of this branch of mathematics (so we must describe it to avoid confusion with the so-called "Higher Algebra," or theory of invariants), is distinguished by two features which place it among the text-books of the new type. The first, which is nothing at all new in oral teaching, though, perhaps, novel in print, is the extensive illustration of the subject by Cartesian geometry, which, far from diverting the student into a different subject, simply sheds upon diagrams consisting of arrays of letters a flood of light from other diagrams in which continuity is an iconic character. The other innovation lies in abandoning the ancient severity of the mathematical style of writing, which preserved such a haughty reticence as to the objective point at which the discussion was driving, and in consenting to take the student frankly into the author's confidence, as far as the *rationale* of algebraic work goes. The essence of the mathematics is always brought into bold relief. At the same time its use, as well as the limits of this use, are made thoroughly familiar by copious special cases. All this renders the book excessively bulky, notwithstanding its being restricted to the very minimum of what a primer of algebra must contain. This restriction is in part wholesome in itself, in part it is the price which is paid for pretty thorough instruction in the topics that are entered upon. After all, everybody who has mastered it agrees that algebra is a great help to every man who thinks; but what is the good of studying it unless sufficient facility in its application and manipulation be acquired to make it a handy tool?

We do not say a better book could not be made. This one is not founded on as deep a psychology as could be desired—witness the author's remark that "the difficulty that untrained minds find in algebra arises simply from deficiency in the capacity of taking pains." In several instances the use of technical terms is not quite as careful as could be wished, though there is nothing to match the author's calling the absolute, or modular, value of an algebraic quantity, a *scalar* quantity! If quaternion phraseology is to be used, it is a *tensor*. The book contains upwards of two thousand exercises, to which a Key is provided.

Études de Littérature Européenne. Par Joseph Texte. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1898. 12mo, pp. 304.

M. Joseph Texte made himself known three years ago by a work, crowned by the Academy, on 'Rousseau, and the Beginnings of Literary Cosmopolitanism.' He now presents himself with divers "studies" in his hand, which he has since then (presumably) contributed to the journals of the day—studies of literature in various countries. Desirous of giving chase to what Mme. de Staël was the first to call "l'esprit européen," he has wisely prepared himself by acquiring other languages than that of France, and his most active hunting is done in England.

M. Texte writes on the large general subjects of the comparative history of literatures, of Italian influence on the French Renaissance, of German influence on French Romanticism, of the literary hegemony of France; and he writes also on the large individual subjects of Sir Thomas Browne (whom he depicts less ably than Mr. Leslie Stephen has done), of Keats and neo-Hellenism, of Wordsworth—basing the greater part of his paper on the remarkable work on Wordsworth's early life published two years ago by M. Émile Legouis (who, in return, in the translation of his book, speaks of "the able article" of M. Texte), and of Mrs. Browning, on whom he passes the following judgment, by which he himself may be judged: "On peut dire sans crainte qu'elle est le poète le plus philosophe de notre époque, en même temps que l'un des plus exquis et des plus rares par le talent." In order to write on these topics, he has read a great deal—that is the precise statement of the impression his writings produce, and it is in large measure a creditable impression; it is not, nowadays, every man that writes who reads. But to read *in order* to write—that creates precisely the sort of work we have here; a book entirely derived from books; a book containing little acute personal observation of human life, little vivid personal expression of human emotion, little distinct originality of outlook, but exhibiting, in connection with ardent moral beliefs, a conscientious comparison of other men's observations, and other men's feelings, and other men's points of view; and a not unjust estimate of them. This is, in fine, one of the books of which such countless numbers lie on our tables, the careful and serious work of "a man of letters."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 1, 1898.

The Week.

The commission appointed to settle the details of the treaty of peace with Spain has practically only one point to consider, and that is the retention of the Philippines, in whole or in part, by the United States. Eventually the President must decide this question, but evidently he does not want to decide it. His intention in the beginning was to take a coaling-station there and leave the remainder to whom it might concern. If he had announced this decision and adhered to it, he would have carried the country with him. There would have been no opposition worth considering. But he did not adhere. He abdicated leadership, and threw the matter into a town-meeting controversy which is still going on. Three of the five commissioners are believed to be in favor of "taking all that is out," the other two being inclined to leave something to Spain in the Philippines. As for Cuba and Porto Rico, they are disposed of in the protocol, and Congress alone can decide what kind of permanent government they shall have. Their temporary status is to be fixed by separate commissions.

The "expansionists" appear to be making headway. Three Republican State conventions were held on Wednesday week, and in two of them the advocates of the "forward" policy had things their own way. The Missouri platform "reasserts" the Monroe Doctrine, and proceeds to assert that this doctrine "does not compel our Government to abandon or to return to the tyranny of Spanish rule any of the helpless peoples who have by force of circumstances in the conduct of the Spanish-American war been placed under our protecting care," and "does not forbid the enlargement or extension of American territory or the protection of American interests in the eastern as well as in the western hemisphere." Applying these principles, the Missouri Republicans "approve of the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands, and favor the acquisition and ownership of additional naval stations and ports, sufficient to afford ample protection to our rightful and naturally growing commerce with Asia and the other countries of the Far East." The California Republicans are still more emphatic. Not only do they "rejoice in the acquisition of Hawaii and Porto Rico," but they declare that "the national welfare demands the retention of the island of Porto Rico and other West India islands coming under our control, and of the Philippines." The South Dakota Republicans evaded the subject of territorial expansion, but silence does nothing to arrest a drift of sentiment.

Since the days of "Old Bill Allen" the Democrats of Ohio have been the most besotted and perversely wrong of the entire breed, as regards the money question, and the Ohio Republicans have been but little better as a rule. The St. Louis platform, on which McKinley was elected, has forced the Republicans of the State into line, so that we can count upon them hereafter to sustain the gold standard, even if we cannot bring them to the support of the Indianapolis programme of currency reform. The Democrats, however, have adhered to the candidacy of Bryan and the platform of the free coinage of silver, although their friends in Missouri (the home of Bland, and the original free-silver State) have passed over both the candidate and the platform with the faintest possible notice. There may be something more in the Ohio deliverance than appears on the surface. There was a fierce fight for "control of the organization" between the friends and the opponents of John R. McLean. The latter hitched the Bryan free-coinage team to their wagon, and gained a victory thereby. Perhaps the pronouncement for silver would not have been so decisive if there had been no struggle of a personal kind in the convention.

The resolution on the money question, after endorsing the Chicago platform of 1896, says: "We particularly endorse the financial plank therein declaring for the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at the ratio of 16 to 1 independent of any and all other nations." This is sufficient to turn away from the party every independent voter, every Mugwump, every Democrat who supported Palmer and Buckner two years ago. It will do more, we think. It will repel many who have grown tired of the silver issue in politics, and who are looking for something fresher and more stirring in the new questions that have lately come to the front. Upon the great question of territorial expansion, or imperialism, the platform has nothing to say except as regards Cuba. Here the resolutions favor "an untrammelled opportunity to establish free and independent constitutional government"—a plan which is undoubtedly in contemplation by President McKinley and his cabinet at the present time, and therefore not fitted to form a political issue for the election. They favor the "building" of the Nicaragua Canal, and they oppose an alliance with England or any other foreign Power—both excellent planks, but not exactly controversial at the present time. No votes will be gained or lost by them. The Ohio Democrats favor "an income tax," but do not say how it should be promoted. Apparently they believe in passing a bill in Congress and sending it to the Supreme Court to be knocked in the head again. But the income tax cannot be made an issue in this fall's campaign in Ohio, although it is a subject of growing interest in the nation. The only sharp line between parties in that State is the old and rather stale one of the free coinage of silver. On this the Democrats will deserve to be beaten.

Not having the fear of Senator Hoar before his eyes, Prof. Norton exercises that right of free speech which has always been the birthright of Americans. He does not believe, with Senator Hoar, that what is wrong before it is done becomes right after it is done. As to the conduct of the war, Prof. Norton's words can hardly offend the most blatant chauvinist. He says:

> "The black and brutal visage of war has, indeed, been lighted up from time to time during the summer by the gallant deeds of our men in service, and by the good conduct and marvellous good fortune of our navy, and by the general temper of humanity displayed so soon as the actual fight was over by both officers and men. But it has taken on a deeper shade of gloom from the needless sufferings which our brave soldiers have had to endure from the lack of due provision for their needs alike in camp, on field, and in hospital. It has been a miserable spectacle of incompetency, for which account must be rendered and penalty exacted."

But as to war in general, we fear that most of Prof. Norton's countrymen will not agree with him. The path of aggressive war, and of foreign conquest, although "worn by the bloody feet of hapless generations," has been preferred by our people to the path of peace. It is hard to deny, he says, that we had a fine opportunity for promoting the cause of peace, and that of all our blessings and privileges none was greater than our exemption from the fear of war. But it is equally undeniable that "the national conscience seemed dead to the sin of war, and the national imagination was dull to its results of evil." In other words, the growth of the martial spirit has been more vigorous than that of the spirit of good will, as indeed was plainly indicated by the Venezuelan episode. The consequences of this development of militarism are naturally regarded with complacency by those who are imbued with it. A great army, a mighty navy, strongholds all over the world's surface, subjugated peoples, rival nations, frightened at our warlike spirit —these are unquestionably popular ideals now. They are not Prof. Nor-

ton's ideals, and he presents an appalling summary of what consequences they involve. That the country is now in no mood to listen, is no reason why he should hold his peace. Those who resist popular impulses have often earned popular gratitude. At all events, every one will concur with Prof. Norton in saying that the more gloomy the prospect, the more strenuous must be the efforts of good citizens for the welfare of the country.

There are all sorts of reports as to the attitude of the Secretary of War and the President regarding the shocking scandals in the treatment of the sick and wounded soldiers. Alger himself is quoted by one reporter as saying that there will be no investigation, so far as he is concerned, because there is nothing to investigate. This is quite likely to be a correct version of his views, for it is exactly what was to have been expected. But the man most concerned in the matter is not the Secretary of War. It is the President who appointed Alger and who still retains him in office. Mr. McKinley should understand that the rising storm of popular indignation against the frightful abuses that are daily disclosed, will not "blow over" if nothing is done. Here is one sample illustration. Vermont furnished a regiment of volunteers, which returned to the State a few days ago after an absence of ninety days, spent entirely in a camp in the South, and this is what the Montpelier *Watchman*, a Republican newspaper, says of the spectacle presented:

> "The Vermont regiment is at home, and its condition seems to afford cumulative evidence of the incompetency of the department charged with the administration of the Government's military affairs. A hospital-train, carrying over two hundred sick, about one-fourth of the regiment, whose condition and appearance are ghastly reminders of the returning victims of Libby Prison, Belle Isle, and Andersonville, during the civil war, from a command that has never been to the front, but has been continually in camp, on the national domain, within the direct circuit of railways, telegraphs, and all the agencies of supply and ministration, in a country of unlimited resources—this is a somewhat convincing proof of colossal incompetency and inefficiency in the military administration of either the State or the nation or both."

There are two aspects of this business which President McKinley cannot afford to overlook. One concerns him in his relation as Commander-in-Chief of the army. It is generally taken for granted that there is to be a large increase in our standing army. What man in the State of Vermont is going to enlist in the regular army if his relatives, neighbors, and friends are abused as this Vermont regiment of volunteers has been abused, and nothing is done about it? The Second Massachusetts Regiment, raised in western Massachusetts, has just got home from Cuba with a long list of dead and of invalids which every survivor believes might have been avoided if the men had received decent care, not merely while they were at the front, but on their way back from Santiago, and, worst of all, after they reached Montauk Point. Is anybody in western Massachusetts going to be foolish enough to run the risk of being done to death by official incompetency hereafter if no penalty is inflicted upon the men in authority who were responsible for the men now dead or broken down for life, who might have returned alive and well? Nor are Vermont and Massachusetts the only States affected. There is not a section of the country which has not suffered in the same way, to a greater or less extent. The Chaplain of the First Maine Regiment, just back from Chickamauga, where it also suffered terribly and needlessly, says that "the Twenty-first Kentucky and the Fifth Mississippi had a tremendous hospital roll, the latter reaching 168 in one day, and they were Southern troops and supposed to be accustomed to the climate."

The advocates of Hawaiian annexation must be somewhat perplexed by the accounts which they read in the New York *Tribune* concerning the feeling of the natives towards this country. These people, whom our missionaries are thought to have Christianized, are now represented as so benighted as to pine for the rule of their Queen, and to exhibit very touching signs of grief at the extinction of the independent existence of their country. But, as Senator Hoar complacently assured us, they are only children in intellectual development, and, besides that, they are dying out at such a rate that we need not pay any attention to their preferences. It is painful to learn that while the natives are bewailing their subjection to the despotic rule of a foreign Power, the leading citizens of the United States are setting them a very shocking example of the lack of Christian feeling. It seems that the Doles cannot forgive Minister Sewall for his endorsement of the American union party, and that Mrs. Dole has not only absented herself from the christening of the Sewall baby, but has gone so far as to cut Mrs. Sewall on the street. On annexation day there was a deplorable scene, and the wife of the Foreign Minister retreated from the platform in tears because of the coldness displayed by the wives of other politicians. It must be said that the seamy side of colonial policy is becoming prominent very early in its history. But the correspondent of the *Tribune* is rather too harsh in his condemnation of the American soldiers that arrived on the *St. Paul*. It seems that some of these soldiers broke into the barracks of the Hawaiian National Guard and helped themselves to a number of relics of royalty, regarded by the besotted natives as valuable for their beauty and rarity. But when the soldiers tried to send these relics home, where they would certainly have been highly appreciated, the packages were so numerous and bulky as to cause investigation, and the relics have been detained. We do not blame the soldiers for feeling aggrieved at such treatment. They knew that a number of civilians had stolen the islands as a whole, and it must seem to them a contemptible casuistry which objects to the appropriation by the military of some particular spoils.

The figures showing the extent of the foreign commerce of the Dominion of Canada for the last fiscal year are a reply to the claims of our protectionists, who continue to assert that the increase of our trade is the result of the Dingley tariff, although the decrease of imports has had some embarrassing results. But the trade of Canada has had a normal growth, that is, an increase both of exports and of imports. Its total value amounts to $304,000,000, which is larger than that of 1897 by nearly $47,000,000. The exports for this year amount to nearly $160,000,000, or $25,000,000 more than last year, while the value of the imports has increased from $119,000,000 to $140,000,000. There is a balance of trade in favor of Canada of about $20,000,000, which, in view of the need of capital in the Dominion, is quite large enough. These figures compare very favorably with those of the commerce of the United States. The population of Canada is hardly more than one-fourteenth of that of our country, but its foreign trade is apparently one-seventh of ours, and its increase during the last year has been even more remarkable than that which our returns show. Under the influence of a reduced tariff there is no doubt that Canadian trade will increase even more rapidly than in the past. Nothing is more remarkable than the disposition of business men to dwell on the marvellous possibilities of trade with the Philippine Islands, while they ignore the vast opportunities in Canada which our absurd tariff cripples. Possibly there may be some modifications of our prohibitory regulations as a result of the arbitration conference now going on, but the interests supporting these regulations are very potent.

There is a comic side to the loss of the Southport election by the Tories last week. The seat was made vacant by Mr. Curzon's resignation in order to go to India as Viceroy, and the result of the polling showed a transfer of at least 500 votes from the Conservative to the Liberal column. This defection seems to have been made up almost wholly of Liberal-Unionists. They openly declared that Irish home rule was dead as a political issue; and as they had broken away from their party solely on that

issue, there was no reason why they should keep on voting Tory. In justification of their position, they pointed to the Grimsby election of a few weeks since. The member for Grimsby, Mr. Doughty, was a Liberal who had got sick of home rule, which he declared was no longer a party tenet, and to test the opinion of his constituents he resigned and appealed to them for reëlection. He was reëlected, by the aid of Conservatives, and instantly the cry went up from all good Tory authorities, "What did we tell you? Home rule is dead." But when the Southport Liberal-Unionists took this literally, and proposed to go back to their old Liberal allegiance, there was a great rushing about among the Conservative election agents. If home rule's being dead was going to lose seats for the party, why, home rule was not dead. Mr. Chamberlain was summoned in hot haste, and he wrote a letter to the Southport Liberal-Unionists urging them by all means to vote for the Conservative candidate. Home rule, he solemnly declared, was not dead; it was only sleeping. In other words, it was dead for purposes of taunting Liberals and the Irish, but it was as living and terrible as ever considered as a means of keeping up the Liberal-Unionist alliance, and, incidentally, keeping Chamberlain in office. But this rather transparent device appears to have had no effect, and one more bye-election is added to the many that have gone against the Conservatives.

Dispatches from London say that the project for establishing the gold standard in India is to be carried into effect, or at all events to be tried. The British bimetallists have been proclaiming with great volubility, ever since the project was first broached, that it could not be done. They did not restrict themselves to the assertion that it would be unwise to make the attempt, but they affirmed that the thing was impossible. The India Office thinks differently. Among the documents published on this subject is a brochure of fifty-five pages by Mr. H. D. MacLeod, the well-known writer on banking, credit, and currency, whose powerful essay against bimetallism, two or three years ago, had a wide circulation in this country, both in newspapers and in pamphlet form. Mr. MacLeod contends that it is entirely feasible to establish the gold standard in India. He shows that there is gold enough in India now for the needs of the undertaking, and that steps should be taken at once to utilize it. To this end he recommends (1) that the gold sovereign be declared the unit of value throughout British India; (2) that the Indian mints be authorized to coin sovereigns and half-sovereigns of exactly the weight and fineness of the British coins; (3) that the Indian sovereigns be legal tender throughout the British empire, as the English and the Australian sovereigns now are; (4) that all persons bringing gold to the mints be entitled to have it coined for themselves at the same rates as gold at the British mint in London; (5) that the Government keep the coinage of silver in its own hands exclusively; (6) that after a fixed date silver shall be legal tender for not more than £5 or £10 in one payment. These are tentative steps merely, but extremely helpful in the way of promoting the end in view. They are also absolutely free from danger except perhaps the last one (No. 6), which can hardly be considered essential to success. Success will be achieved whenever the rupee circulates uninterruptedly and continuously at par with gold at a ratio fixed by law. Mr. MacLeod favors the ratio of 16d. to the rupee, which is about the present market ratio.

Emperor William's forthcoming visit to Jerusalem is explained by the Berlin *Post* as a mere tourist's journey. At most the Kaiser will be only a sort of Crusader, new style, going to the Holy Sepulchre to wave his sword and make a pious speech. But in France and Russia they are wickedly sceptical about all this. They are saying that William is just the man to unite religion and business and make his godliness profitable. He is going as the best friend of the Sultan, and his chances to drum up trade for Germany and to do a little political meddling ought to be good. A German railway is already up within sight of the borders of Syria, and is anxious to traverse that country and reach the Euphrates. In the intervals of his devotions, the French say, it would be just like William to try to get a concession for this German line. Now the French have long regarded Syria as peculiarly their own. In the break-up of the Turkish Empire, if it ever comes, they will be sure to claim Syria as falling to them. So they are none too well pleased with the Emperor's crusade, in the character of a mediæval knight with a keen eye to business; and Russia, with designs of her own on the country watered by the Euphrates, would not look with complacency on the extension of German influence thither. Even the English have their suspicions, Egypt's most vulnerable side being her eastern frontier, for the reasons that made the Holy Land "the cockpit of the ancient world." So it would appear that William has chosen a strategic point for his demonstration, and can easily succeed, if he wishes, in making an address in the land of the Prince of Peace which will set several nations by the ears.

The naval side of the Czar's proposals for disarmament will prove particularly awkward for England. She has always been in favor of reducing the standing armies of the world. Her own is comparatively small. But her avowed policy has long been to possess a navy equal to any two that might be brought against it. This has made her naval burdens disproportionate, and it is particularly to expenditures on war-ships that the Czar referred when he said, "Hundreds of millions are devoted to acquiring terrible engines of destruction which, though to-day regarded as the last work of science, are destined to-morrow to lose all value in consequence of some fresh discovery in the same field." That this has been the case with England her own authorities admit. In the last naval debate in the House of Commons, Lord Charles Beresford reproached the Admiralty for reckoning as effective so many ships that were really obsolete and useless. But all the experts agreed that England must go on building battle-ships. If Russia planned for four new ones and France for three, Great Britain must have seven. Now comes the question whether, if Russia agrees to drop her projected four and France her three, England will agree to cancel her orders for seven. Will she go further and give up her policy of regarding all fleets as possibly hostile fleets, and insisting that hers must be equal to any two? There is where the real pinch will come for England. The question of disarmament once related almost wholly to the army. In these days of "sea power" and costly navies it has become almost as much one of the navy. It is certain that England cannot consistently applaud disbanding armies without also agreeing to disperse fleets.

The feeling of many Frenchmen, perhaps of most Frenchmen who have political opinions, respecting disarmament, is reflected in what is written to the London *Times* by M. Blowitz, its Paris correspondent. He declares positively that an absolutely primary condition of the sanction of France to the Russian proposal would be that Alsace-Lorraine should cease to belong to Germany. He quotes Bismarck as saying to him: "There are three of us who made the German Empire. The German nation would hang all three if we offered of our own free will to give back Alsace-Lorraine to France." M. Blowitz declares that those who are at the head of France to-day would all be hanged, in spite of the apparent indifference of the nation, were they to accept a definite abandonment of Alsace-Lorraine. So strong is his conviction on this point that he maintains that the French Government could not have been consulted by that of Russia before the proposal was issued, and he speaks bitterly of an alliance of such a nature that it is possible for one of the parties to spring such surprises on the world without consulting the other.

THE "CZAR DISARMER."

On the very day when the monument to Alexander II., the "Czar Deliverer," was unveiled in St. Petersburg, Emperor Nicholas took steps to call an international conference which may one day, please God, result in a more splendid monument to him as the "Czar Disarmer." The document in which the reasons for general disarmament are set forth is itself an event, an achievement, of the first magnitude. It is a confession of the folly and futility of the military spirit, coming from the most unexpected quarter. All eyes have been of late turned upon Russia as the most probable source of the next great war. England's military experts have been saying that Russia would have to be met in battle on the Indian frontier sooner or later, and it was better to fight her now before she grew too strong. Only a few days ago Mr. Goschen got permission from Parliament to lay taxes of some $30,000,000 more upon the English people to build new ships of war, and he explicitly said such action was made necessary by increases in the Russian navy. But the Czar has changed all that. Where we looked for a sword we find peace. The very man, the very empire, that has given point to the sneers of the advocates of barbarism and war, at the possibility of realizing the poet's dream of the Parliament of Man, now appears in the eyes of the world as the leading champion of peace, the sincere promoter of disarmament. The very thought is exhilarating and uplifting.

The Czar's weighty proposals could come from no better quarter. Nothing that the Pope has said or could say, nothing that Emperor William has hinted, in the same aim or hope, could have the significance or the effect of this call for peace by the Emperor of all the Russias. He speaks not as a religious sentimentalist, not as the head of a nation in straits. Russia's resources never seemed greater, her future more glorious. Talk of "manifest destiny"! Russia has come to the front as the first Power in Europe, soon to be the first Power in Asia, with a fated speed that makes even American development look slow and small. And according to all our latter-day theorists, it was precisely the immense military strength of Russia that was making her great. What could withstand a nation capable of mobilizing an army of 2,500,000 men? But now comes the ruler of this irresistible country and smashes the arguments of the theorists. He declares that the notion of keeping peace by going armed to the teeth is a huge delusion. That lying old proverb, "Si vis pacem para bellum," he dashes to fragments. Europe has been acting on it for a generation, and not only is peace more and more imperilled, but the taxpayers are groaning under the burdens imposed by this mistaken and disastrous policy, the intellectual and physical strength of the nations is perverted, "national culture, economic progress, and the production of wealth are either paralyzed or checked in development." Here we have the sovereign who should have profited most by the vaunted blessings of war, asserting that they are all a miserable delusion, and calling upon the civilized world to disarm. It is a terrible blow to the lovers of war for war's sake. The Czar may not secure the noble ends he aims at so nobly, but his indictment of militarism will stand. The most brazen advocate of the devil and his wars can never use the wretched old fallacies again without thinking of Nicholas, and blushing.

If it be said that the Czar speaks, after all, for the selfish interests of Russia, let it be granted. The stake which the great Slav Empire has in the assurance of peace is undoubtedly enormous. Industrial and civilizing conquests of the greatest magnitude and most far-reaching results lie in her path, if her energies are not diverted to desolating war. But the case is not different with England or France or Germany or the United States. Blot out the danger and the burdens of war, and the future of every civilized nation on earth would grow brighter with hope. If the Czar is selfish, it is only as philanthropy is selfish—that is, a local good made universal is not open to the charge of selfishness. And for the Czar to speak for Russia is, it must be remembered, a necessity. There is no public opinion in that country, or only a nascent form of it. Reform in Russia must come from above. The muzhik suffers and serves in silence. It is from the head of the state, as Nicholas Turgeneff and Prince Kropotkin have said, that initiative must come. The Czar has now taken it, with the wise foresight of a statesman anxious to benefit his country, and of the most powerful ruler of the world desirous of blessing mankind. Like any inspiring act, Nicholas's call for peace is independent of its consequences. Its issuance alone is an achievement which will crown this young sovereign with the brightest glory that the dying century has to bestow.

We are not disposed to dwell to-day upon the difficulties which will undoubtedly confront any international conference called to arrange for universal disarmament. That is what the conference is for—to discuss difficulties and surmount them. Nor shall we more than regret in passing that this splendid summons of the world to peace comes at a moment when our own country is in danger of being most laggard of all in responding to it. Nicholas is but preaching a gospel long familiar in our Congress and press and churches, yet at the very time he is proclaiming it we are more deeply committed to the military spirit, to the idea of forcible conquest, and to the burdens of an increased armament than ever before in our history. But doubts and regrets have no place in the acclaim with which the transcendent act of the Czar should be hailed by all lovers of their kind. It is one of those flashings of light out of the darkness which renew faith in God and man and the beneficent increasing purpose which runs through the ages.

EXPERIENCE IN GOVERNING COLONIES.

It is reported that the United States Commissioner in charge of our exhibit at the Paris Exposition of 1900 has been asked by the French authorities the somewhat puzzling question, "Has your country colonies?" If it has, we are entitled to space in the colonial department; if not, not. The query is one to which no official answer will probably be given just yet. What we call "our new possessions," however, does not greatly matter, except to the sticklers for technical precision. Whether we call them colonies, or "protected territories," or "our island domain," or the "new era of freedom," or any other elegant amphiboly, the fact remains that we have Cuba and Porto Rico and the Hawaiian Islands, and at least a part of the Philippines, on our hands to be governed for an indefinite time to come as if they were colonies. Let the wise call them what they will, the practical fact is as we say.

This being so, it is not only a practical but a most pressing question for the United States what type of colonial government it proposes to put in force in its possessions over sea. Experience of our own to guide us we practically have none. The continental acquisitions of territory once Spain's, which we made early in the century and after the Mexican war, hardly yield us cases in point. There was, indeed, a temporary military rule, and the need of adapting the old régime gradually to the new; but there was the well-grounded hope that the new communities would speedily fit themselves, as they did, for admission into the commonwealth of self-governing States. Such a hope can be entertained only remotely of Cuba and Porto Rico, still more distantly of Hawaii, and by scarcely anybody but a dreamer of the Philippines. In one or all these islands we confront problems which our history as a government furnishes us little or no guidance in solving. It is a blank page on which we have to write. One may search the revised statutes of the United States or the acts of Congress in vain to find directions how to govern colonies, how to administer distant islands. Unless we are as cocksure of our ability to govern an island wisely and well as Sancho Panza was, we must perforce turn to the experience of the great colonizing nations.

Over how vast a period and through what a diversity of experiment the co-

lonial records of Spain and England and Holland run, we may get some idea by looking only at the bibliography of the subject. The Spanish Leyes de las Indias are a tremendous collection of mighty tomes. They contain mostly examples of the thing to avoid, but they represent centuries of labor and trial and hope deferred and bitter failure. The *Yale Review* gives the figures for the Dutch. The standard bibliography of the literature relating to the colonies of Holland covers the years 1593 to 1865, and contains 21,373 titles. The entries under Government and Finance number some 5,500. A supplementary volume for the years 1866-1893 has 430 two-column pages. What difficulties to be surmounted, what lessons from experience, what slow and intelligent building up of the benevolent disposition of the Dutch in Java does such a record represent! And how imminent does our probable failure appear, in going forward to attack more diverse and more difficult problems of colonial government, with absolutely no experience to set against this secular experience of the Dutch!

With Great Britain, of course, the comparison goes still more heavily against us. In England it is not a question of a bibliography of colonial literature, but of a bibliography of bibliographies. The British Museum has books and pamphlets and documents on the colonies by the acre. Blue books are heaped like Pelion on Ossa. Reports and parliamentary papers relating to the self-governing and the crown colonies would make the bibliography of bimetallism seem by comparison a crackling epigram. The Colonial Office has a mass of information and statistics pertaining to the various colonies to which the very indexes are enough to appall the investigator. The bravery and the blunders, the greed and the benevolence, the wisdom slowly learning by experience of a great race forced by its position and its energy to extend its dominion round the world, are all set down for the guidance of those charged with every new enterprise of the kind. When England annexes Cyprus or extends her protectorate over the Sudan or Wei-Hai-Wei, she has not to fumble around to know how to begin governing new dependencies. She has an age-long experience to teach her the right policy, and a trained body of public servants ready to execute it.

The moral of all this for the American people and their rulers is obvious. We are facing administrative difficulties in our island possessions with which nothing in our experience fits us to cope. But there is a rich and instructive experience of other nations which it behooves us humbly to study. With the full records of colonial history before us for instruction, it would be criminal for us to go forward as if nothing of the kind had ever been done before, and write the blunders and the cruelties all over again. Two chief lessons the briefest study will teach us. One is that the colonies must be developed for all the world, not exploited for the benefit of the mother country exclusively. The other is that trained officials, appointed for merit and retained for good service, are absolutely indispensable. The navy has brilliantly shown us what a thoroughly trained arm of the government can do. In our future colonial service we must put a premium on such training if we would look for anything like such success. On the one side we have the experience of Spain—squeezing the life-blood out of her colonies, filling them with a corrupt public service, and leading to ghastly wreck. On the other, England—opening her colonies to the commerce of the world, administering them through the wisest men of the most inflexible integrity she can secure, and binding them to her in loyal affection. Which of the two shall we imitate?

THE PHILIPPINES AS A FULCRUM.

The idea is quite generally entertained, and has been expressed by some of our correspondents, that the acquisition of the Philippine Islands is not a manifestation of "imperialism." According to this view, we shall hold these islands because we do not know what else to do. We have got the wolf by the ears and cannot let go. We have not been moved by greed or by the desire for military glory. In the concussion of war the Philippine Islands were knocked out of Spain's pocket, and as we are committed to the view that Spain had no good title to them, and as no one else has any title at all, we are really obliged to pick them up. But that this rather awkward incident has anything to do with dreams of empire is indignantly denied.

However sincerely this view may be entertained, there is abundant evidence that it is mistaken. It is the view of those who dislike the prospect of holding conquered peoples in subjection, but this prospect is really the motive power in our policy of expansion, and those who dislike it, but consent to it, are playing into their hands. It is not the Philippine Islands in themselves that arouse commercial greed, but what the possession of the Philippine Islands will lead to. Beyond them there is the vast continent of Asia, and the visions of empire there which float before the eyes of some of our statesmen are simply gorgeous. The Philippines are to them merely a fulcrum. In order to move the world some resting-place for the lever is necessary, and if we can get a good basis in the Philippines, we shall soon be able to prise open the jaws of the Chinese, too long closed firmly against us, and pour into their throats most invigorating streams of our products. This may be "an imaginary possible occurrence," but it is as real to those who imagine it as if it were not a baseless fabric, and their sincerity is exactly what makes the future alarming. We do not know what the fate of the Philippines is to be, but if our Government holds them, we know very well what use our Jingoes will try to put them to, because they tell us very plainly.

Thus, we have had a Federal judge holding forth at Saratoga concerning Asia in a prophetic vein almost worthy of the Apocalypse. He declares that Asia is the most important object of our foreign policy. There we shall find "people and institutions ready for a graft from the tree of Anglo-Saxon civil liberty." The population of China is in many respects not only civilized, but highly civilized. They are far from being crude or barbarous. The doors we are about to open "will admit us to half the desirable territory and one-third of the population of the earth." In fifteen years the world will have with China a trade of more than $2,000,000,000. The establishment of this trade will be a more important event than the discovery of America, and the United States is entitled by its position and its capabilities to a great share of it. The Powers of Europe will keep us out of this magnificent field if they are not prevented, and we must prevent them. Our commerce must not be left to extend itself. Our Government must aid it. "Physical presence—the power that flows from personal contact—is the force that dominates everywhere." And the physical presence of a nation to people of foreign lands "is its flag, its war-ships, and the power it wields within the sphere of their observation." Hence, we must have the Philippines, not because we want them for themselves, but as a basis for more extended conquests.

The author of these observations remarked that they had the ring chiefly of commercial conquest. They have more the ring of Col. Sellers's well-known calculations of the fabulous profits to be derived from selling his patent eye-water to the ophthalmic inhabitants of Africa. There is not only millions in it, but billions. To many rational people these calculations appear somewhat exaggerated. It is admitted by this prophet that there is no room in China for immigrants. The country is already densely peopled, overpopulated in many parts to the starvation point. So far are the people from being highly civilized that their standard of living is among the lowest known. So far are they from being receptive of Anglo-Saxon institutions that they are more conservative than any other people. Those that come to this country show less disposition to be assimilated than

any other immigrants. They are accustomed to working for a subsistence on which an American dog would starve; the rate of wages which prevails is not one-tenth of our own. The value of the trade with a people is in proportion to its wants. In spite of the enlightened rule of the English in India, the population of that country is still miserably poor. They are so near starvation that famine sweeps them away by hundreds of thousands whenever a dearth occurs. With all the magnificent internal improvements introduced by English capital and enterprise, and after many decades of quiet development, the foreign commerce of India is much less than one-third of that imagined for China fifteen years hence. It is, perhaps, nearly double the foreign commerce of the Dominion of Canada. But Canada has about 5,000,000 inhabitants, and India has 250,000,000. The wealth of Oriental countries, as Mill clearly explained, is fabulous wealth. It has always overwhelmed ill-balanced minds, and it might almost be said that more wealth has been lost in South Sea bubbles and similar speculations than has been gained by all other countries besides England in trade with the Orient.

However this may be, and however delusive the dreams of imperialists may prove, there is no uncertainty about the cost to this country of obtaining its share of the imagined trade with China. Let us dream that we are to get eventually a trade with that country of $500,000,000 a year. Against that let us set the positive certainty that to secure this trade by military measures will cost us at once $50,000,000 a year and very likely $100,000,000. That sum is to be added to the taxes which have been hitherto borne by the productive industries of this country. Were that sum remitted, it is not doubtful that our own industry would be enormously stimulated and our wealth vastly increased. It is the interest at 5 per cent. on a thousand millions of dollars. It is much more than half of all the dividends paid by all the railroads of the United States. To spend $50,000,000 a year with the idea of capturing a mythical trade, the profits of which can never repay the expenditure, is not what Americans, in conducting their private affairs, would call a "business proposition." Nevertheless, a very large number of our people are quite ready to spend twice or thrice this amount, and it ought to be clearly understood that this is what imperialism means.

OUR CERTIFICATE FROM SPAIN.

If there is any one generally recognized test of advancement in civilization, it is the treatment of prisoners of war. It is only a hundred years since the greatest commander and strategist of modern times butchered three thousand prisoners in cold blood, and defended his act rather successfully by the laws of war as then understood. Go a little further back, and we find Englishmen killing prisoners rather than be burdened with their support. Among primitive races prisoners are cooked and eaten; indeed, war is made for the purpose of supplying the larder. In almost all recent wars, the charge of barbarity to prisoners has been brought against one side or the other, and at the present day, whenever the charge is believed, the conclusion is always drawn that the people at fault are lacking in civilization—that is, they fall below the ideal which we have, after generations of gradually decreasing cruelty, finally set up.

Among all the curiosities which the war with Spain has produced, nothing would have seemed antecedently more unlikely than that it should have ended in a testimonial, not merely from Admiral Cervera, but from the Spanish soldiers, to the humanity and consideration with which they, as prisoners of war, had been treated. When the war broke out, the Spaniards, as Admiral Cervera says, really believed us to be a barbarous people; but the war has led them to "change their minds." This he attributes to the "gentlemanlike" treatment by us of our prisoners, and his certificate is virtually endorsed by some eleven thousand of the prisoners themselves. Such an acknowledgment is, we believe, entirely without precedent, and disposes of the question, so far as the present war is concerned. If the question is hereafter raised as to our treatment of prisoners of war, we are probably the only people in the world who have documentary proof of the highest order, not only that they are humane and kind to their prisoners, but that they behave in a "gentlemanlike" way to them.

What is still more remarkable is that we have got this certificate from a nation most competent to give it, because it is a very good judge both of what is "gentlemanlike" and what is barbarous. Englishmen and Germans would approach the subject of the treatment of prisoners of war much as we should, and, consequently, what they might have to say about our behavior in the matter would be "discounted" before they said it. We could tell pretty well what they would say. But Spaniards are capable of the most extreme inhumanity and at the same time are the best-mannered people in Europe. Say what you will, there is a connection between good breeding and humanity, and if we find a race notoriously capable of great inhumanity, and at the same time most "gentlemanlike," the only fair conclusion to our minds is that they are good judges of both the bad and the good in manners and civilization. They have "been there." They can enjoy the torture of animals for sport which makes us sick at our stomachs, and they can treat Hobson as if they were all Hobsons themselves. Therefore, even allowing for the fact that our certificate has been given us partly (as appears by the context) in order to contrast our behavior with that of the Cuban "patriots," it seems to be one of which we may fairly boast that the quarter from which it comes doubles its value.

Probably what most puzzles the Spaniards is that the war has aroused horrid doubts in their minds as to their old and cherished illusion that aristocratic institutions necessarily improve manners. Manners have been really softened *pari passu* with the democratization of the world. Considering that democracy's fundamental dogma is equality of rights and duties, it would be strange were it otherwise. Two generations ago it was generally believed, not only that democracy naturally would produce, but that in this country it actually had produced, a general level of humanity in manners higher than that attained elsewhere. Even Dickens in his 'American Notes' states that nothing struck him more forcibly, in contrast with what he had left behind him, than the generally humane, kindly, considerate manners of the people. Thackeray made the same observation. To them the reason was plain enough. Every American was taught from his cradle to respect the rights and feelings of others; in other words, was taught consideration for others, which is the root of the best manners and the best life. It was just as obvious that aristocracy must tend to produce bad manners wherever aristocracy means privilege. Privilege means inequality and the right to oppress, to exact, and to injure. Constituted as man is, privilege will lead him to seize the opportunity, and ride roughshod over his fellows.

The theory is just as sound to-day as it ever was, and we are not a different people from what we were fifty years ago; and consequently when the Spaniards come into contact with us in the most difficult relation of life, they at once perceive that they have fallen into the hands of a kindly and humane people. But suppose that they had fallen prisoners, not to the American fleet, nor to the American army, which are both really representative, but to some of our privileged aristocratic political chiefs, who have separated themselves from the mass of their countrymen, and begun to rule them by the old aristocratic machinery of fraud and force. Suppose the war had been made by Croker and "Pat" Gleason and Payn and Aldridge, and the Admiral of the fleet had been Robert Van Wyck, and the Commander-in-Chief had been Morgan of Alabama, and Foraker had presided over the State Department, and Whalen had furnished him with law—

would the event have been the same? We confess we should be sorry to see the experiment tried. Yet these are our aristocrats. These are the men whose power rests not on the voluntary suffrages of their fellow-men, but on "machine" power, and "influoence," which is only another name for privilege. They are our potential Weylers. It is almost invariably the performances of these aristocrats, on the stump, or in foreign affairs, or in municipal office, that get us a bad reputation abroad. Fortunately the war was carried on by real Americans. The Spaniards had got their impression of us from the privileged classes who govern us. When they were taken prisoners, they fell into the hands of American soldiers and sailors, real representatives of the country. To the Dons' amazement, they have fallen into the hands of gentlemen.

THE PERFECTION OF JURY TRIAL

Mr. Choate's address at Saratoga on jury trial was evidently intended as a vehicle for a number of suggestions on law reform which have only a very indirect connection with the subject. Under the guise of a vindication of the jury, he has managed to bring emphatically before the minds of the bar and the public such topics as the sale of judicial nominations and the delays caused by our vicious system of procedure. If these are separated from the rest of the address, it will be found that its main drift is that of a vindication of the perfection of jury trial, as a sort of ideal system for the determination of controversies between man and man. As, however, trial by jury is embedded in our constitutional system, and no one is engaged in any attack upon it, Mr. Choate seems rather to be reviving a controversy already settled than to be settling one. But granting all that he says, his view of the subject is certainly open to the charge of proving too much. If jury trial is really the ideal system of the world, especially adapted, as he says, to protect the "cornerstone of civil society" (property), why do half the property cases—all those, that is, in which an injunction is the appropriate form of relief—never come before a jury at all?

If I have a patent which you are infringing, the ideal form of remedy, according to Mr. Choate, would be a suit for damages, to be assessed by a jury; yet if actually I can get an order from a Federal judge which will prevent you for ever from infringing, the remedy will, in nine cases out of ten, be far more satisfactory. In a railroad-rate case, where the security-holders are being persecuted with the scourge of a Populistic Legislature, it is certainly property which is at stake; yet a judge's order which will definitively stop the Populistic attack, is better adapted to right the wrong than any assessment of damages. In the elevated-railroad cases in this city, the property-owners attacked the railroad with an injunction and a jury as the two strings to their bow. If A keeps B out of his property, the latter recovers it by means of a jury trial; if he threatens the same wrong, B's remedy is by way of injunction, without any jury trial. All this does not show, indeed, that a jury is ill-adapted to the ends for which it is used, but that it was not devised especially to protect property.

In discussing the rule which requires that a verdict must be unanimous, Mr. Choate again resorts to his theory that the jury is an ideal defence of property. His argument on its face is very strong. "It takes no prophet to foretell that the great contests in the courts in the coming generations are to be against and in defence of the right of property, and I can conceive of no more destructive and fatal weapon which its adversaries could secure in advance than the abolition of this rule of unanimity"—*i. e.*, the necessity that the person making an onslaught on property shall get a unanimous vote is the barrier which the law interposes for the protection of the right attacked.

This would be true only if a verdict were a finality. But a verdict is not a finality. The verdict may be, and in case of glaring injustice always is, revised by the court, and the rule would be the same whether it were a unanimous or a majority verdict. If, for instance, as frequently happens, a jury, under the influence of communistic feeling, brings in a verdict for some enormous amount against a wealthy defendant, what saves him is usually not the rule requiring unanimity, but the rule that the victim may appeal to the court to order a new trial because the verdict is excessive or against the evidence.

It is really not trial by jury, but the fact that verdicts, and, indeed, the whole proceedings of juries, are supervised by the courts, that makes them what they are, at least so far as property rights are concerned. Indeed, we believe Mr. Choate is the first investigator of the subject who ever advanced the theory that a jury was peculiarly adapted as a defence of "the corner-stone." The "palladium of liberty," it used to be called, because it interposes in all political and criminal suits (in which the Government is a party) the barrier of a popularly constituted body between the Government and the accused, to pass on the question of guilt. Here we have a real barrier, because the question of guilt is one of such a character that even the usual supervision of the jury by the court, supposing the latter to be against the prisoner, cannot avail much. Juries will acquit, against all law, when they suspect oppression, and here their action cannot, as in civil cases, be reversed.

If jury trial has fallen into a good deal of contempt, especially in such communities as New York, we are inclined to think that the explanation is not that we have forgotten all that may be said in favor of it as a method of arriving at conclusions of fact in legal proceedings (we do not question as a whole that in its place it is a very good form of trial), but that it is stretched to cover too great a ground. Mr. Choate insists upon the duty of all good citizens to sit on juries, whether they like it or not; but the fact is that in busy communities men whose time is fully occupied, though they will sit occasionally on juries, will not do it continually. You cannot get them to believe that hosts of petty squabbles daily tried by juries are worth a jury. Make a jury solemn and occasional, reserve it for cases in which it is actually needed, and you can get good jurymen; otherwise, you cannot. Now the only way to reduce the number of jury trials (since a jury is a constitutional right) is to provide that, unless demanded, an ordinary trial shall proceed without a jury—that is, by a judge. This simple legislative device has been tried in Massachusetts, and is said to have led to the discovery that in a very large proportion of cases the parties had been in the habit of going to a jury merely because they had become so impressed with the sacrosanct character of this form of trial that it never occurred to them to dispense with it. Obviously, if juries were dispensed with in half the existing cases (and the habit would grow), the level of what was left would be more easily kept high. It is easier to get 10,000 decent talesmen than it is to get 20,000.

THIS YEAR'S MUNICH ART EXHIBITIONS.

MUNICH, August, 1898.

The two expositions of the Künstlergenossenschaft and the Secession, which were last year arranged in friendly proximity under the spacious roof of the Glaspalast, have this year chosen separate quarters; the royal Kunstausstellungsgebäude on the Königsplatz, opposite the Glyptothek, having been cleared of its permanent collection of paintings and given over, for a period of five months, to the Secessionists.

But, thanks to the industry of living artists and their willingness to let the public enjoy their creations, the walls in the sixty-three rooms in the huge glass-and-iron structure are as thickly covered with canvases as they were in 1897. The general effect of this collection, however, suffers in comparison with last year through the diminution of contrasting elements, and one is struck with a certain monotony and chromo-like similarity of type in whole rows of pictures quite as often as with the merit or excellency of single pieces. And yet there is no lack of excellent work and noteworthy collective exhibits which make up for much that is indifferent and uninteresting. There is Lenbach again, represented by twenty-two portraits, arranged in a room by themselves, in a man-

ner resembling that of his own magnificent studio, with the subdued color effects of Gobelins and Oriental rugs. This collection is of great interest, as it covers the whole period, year by year, from 1876 to 1897, so that, in connection with the artist's numerous works in the Von Schack Gallery (mostly admirable copies from old masters), the whole artistic career of this truly great painter may be followed from beginning to end. Among the portraits now on exhibition are those of Virchow (1892), Björnson (1894), and a sketch of Bismarck (1893). The portraits of Du Bois-Reymond, one of the two sent to the exhibition by Max Koner, may here be mentioned as a pendant to Lenbach's Virchow. Lenbach's talented and faithful pupil, Fritz von Kaulbach, has also a cabinet to himself—satirists speak of the "Kaul- und Lenbach-Kabinette" and of "Fritz und Franz"—and exhibits half-a-dozen portraits and as many studies in oil and in pastel.

The largest and most striking picture of the whole exhibition, and the one which has given more occupation to the critics than all the rest combined, is Max Klinger's "Christ in Olympus." The meaning of the whole composition and of separate figures; the artist's conception of Christ and the virtues on the one hand, and of the aged Jupiter and the rest of the Olympians on the other; the inequalities of execution said to result from the long time (seven years) spent on the work, have been and continue to be the subjects of earnest discussion. A gentleman whose authority in matters of artistic anatomy is unquestioned among Munich artists, pointed out to me in one of the figures a lump of muscles non-existent in the human body; "but," said he modestly, almost blushing, "has not Rubens done likewise, and what do small defects like these signify in such works of genius?" It would be futile to dwell here upon these criticisms when even a description of Klinger's great painting would require more space than I dare to claim. Its harmonious blending of colors and grand decorative style, enhanced by the impressive combination of painting and marble sculptures in the frame, will no doubt win for it a prominent place in some gallery where it may be enjoyed by many.

With an aggregate of numbers only about one-third as large as that of the older society, the exhibition of the Secession is characterized by a remarkable variety of original conceits and an equally noticeable diversity of technical resources, as well as by a rare good judgment on the part of the hanging committee. While some of the pieces must be set down as strange experiments, the collection as a whole is not lacking in soberness, and one is strongly impressed with the prevailing and unmistakable spirit of earnest striving after individual forms of expression, not as a rule obtrusively arbitrary nor tinged with levity. At times one even misses that sensation of a bright and cheerful atmosphere so generally felt in the midst of pictorial display. Prof. Stuck's "Crucifixion" and Von Uhde's "Last Supper" are large canvases, proving anew that deep religious sentiment may be expressed without transporting the beholder into remote ages and among distant Oriental types and surroundings. The vivacity, intensity, and individuality of feeling on the several faces of Von Uhde's painting are most striking. The same artist's full-length figure of an old man, together with several portraits in oil, gouache, and crayon by that brilliant young painter Freiherr von Habermann, well illustrate (like many other specimens in the collection) the old maxim of the disconnection between artistic value and the attractiveness of the object represented. Among Stuck's other numerous pieces some, as "Domino," "Aegypterin," "Römerin," "Pallas Athene," are in costume, and suggest the influence, also noticed in other cases, of the grandiose classical *Künstlerfest* celebrated here last winter in the two royal theatres, which are connected by a gallery. Herkomer's "Madonna," a three-quarters-length portrait of a young woman in a black grenadine dress, with no other background than a greenish-white curtain, forms a contrast with the majority of portraits exhibited on account of its quiet and simple treatment, while the tragic interest attaching to the late Duchess of Alençon is heightened by Aimé Morot's slightly sentimental representation of the slender figure, with soft melancholy eyes, in mourning dress. Very strong portraits have been contributed by Max Slevogt and Leo Samberger of Munich, and the Italian G. Segantini. Three Belgians, Constantin Meunier ("Im schwarzen Land," and three or four water-colors and drawings), Josselin de Jong, and Konrad Starke, are to be mentioned as representatives of the class of artists who have chosen the darker side of modern life, the stern demands of labor, for their special sphere. Of several bronze statuettes by the first named, one, "Ecce Homo" (a sitting figure with arms bound and both hands resting upon the right knee), is especially characteristic of the artist's genius. There is no lack of evidence of a devotional study of natural scenery, and such productions as Karl Haiden's "Evening Landscape" and W. Y. Macgregor's "The Quarry" (both of which works have been secured for the royal Pinakothek) betray a deep sense for the more sombre moods of nature. As instances of "impossible" open-air light effects, Prof. Zügel's groups of blue and green and purple cows, standing in a pond covered with leaves of water-lilies or on turf reflecting all the colors of the rainbow, are a source of amusement to most visitors.

Much originality is displayed in the smaller sections of the exhibition, in sculptures, water-colors, etchings, and in productions of industrial art. Tiffany's fine collection is as much admired here as it was a few months ago at Dresden. A. L.

A TRIP IN DAGHESTAN.

GUNIB, July 31, 1898.

Daghestan is rather out of the line of ordinary tourist travel, and, after visiting it, one accepts the conclusion that, in spite of all its merits, it probably will remain so To begin with, it takes time to get here. The district forms the northeastern portion of the Caucasus, and can be entered, with comparative comfort, only from the coast of the Caspian Sea, although there are mountain passes which can be crossed on horseback from Kochetia, south of the central chain, and from the north and west. The regular stage route runs from Petrovsk, a port of some ten thousand inhabitants, and growing rapidly since (three years ago) it was reached by the railway which connects it directly with the interior of Russia, and assures it much of the trade of Central Asia.

The capital of the province, however, is Temirchanshura, called Shura for short, a military post, twenty-five miles inland, founded in 1834 at the meeting of several roads, and to-day a pleasant little town where one can get fairly good accommodations. As the Russian element is almost entirely official or military, and the Cossacks, of whom there are plenty, have an Oriental appearance, the place is Eastern enough. Not very many Persians, Armenians, and Jews have yet penetrated there, so the mass of the population is made up of the natives, here called the Kumyks, a tribe perhaps of Turkish origin, and not akin to the genuine Lesghians, though looking much like them to the stranger. The Lesghians proper are a people whose early history is unknown, and whose race affinities are largely a matter of conjecture. They must be of very mixed blood, and they speak half-a-dozen different languages, each of them split up into numerous dialects. They are a handsome race, of swarthy complexion, regular features, and bright eyes; the hair is dark rather than black, the stature above the middle height, the carriage good. They look like born warriors, as they are, and appear able to undergo great fatigue—a capacity not always tested as much as it might be, as a good deal of the hardest work is done by the women, who, on the other hand, in this ultra-Mohammedan country, go about entirely unveiled. The Lesghians are said to be independent, brave, and hospitable, but cunning, fierce, and revengeful. The twenty-four years' struggle which their great leader, Shamyl, kept up against Russian, infidel domination, tells the tale not only of the energy and striking abilities of the chief, but also of the courage and fanaticism of his undisciplined, badly armed followers.

The distance from Shura to Gunib, which is about eighty miles by the post-road, can be covered easily in two days. The road is generally good, showing in the more difficult parts very creditable engineering, and it is steadily being improved, so that it will soon be paved nearly all the way; indeed, it is extraordinary what fine roads the Russians, who are used to such bad ones in their old homes, often make in their newer territories. Any one who has had experience in posting in Russia will find little to surprise him on the Gunib trip. The traveller rides in a springless vehicle, called a *perekladnaya*, that holds two people and their baggage, besides the driver, and has to be changed at every station or, if he be fortunate enough to find one, he can hire in Shura a more comfortable carriage for the whole journey and the return. The stations are from ten to fifteen miles apart. On arriving, one can get three fresh horses in half an hour if there are any. If not, one must sit and wait till there are, which may be an affair of a good many hours, as the post, or some officer or official with a paper stating that he is on Government business (and they all have them), may come along and claim precedence. As there are but nine horses to each station (on the Tiflis-Vladikavkas road there are eighty-seven), the mere ordinary mortal is likely to have difficulty in moving fast or regularly. In the way of comforts at the station he can always count on the necessary samovar to make his tea, and he can usually pick up some bread and eggs or perhaps a chicken.

When he wishes to sleep, he will find, if it is not already occupied, a board couch which it is left to his own rugs to soften; but, as the single room serves for all comers, the noisy entrance or exit of other wanderers may prove disturbing.

Already before reaching Shura, one gets out of the plain among the mountains that rise suddenly from it without transition, though they are at first low and covered with verdure. Further in the interior they grow higher and bleaker. Woods and even pastures become rare. Gradually one is hemmed in by towering cliffs, huge masses of rock stretching up many thousand feet in wild, desolate grandeur. The streams are hardly more than torrents; the few villages have mostly a miserable look, for the stony soil gives but little sustenance. Thus the journey continues, up and down, mile after mile, until, round a sudden bend of the road where it runs between a great crag, in which it is cut, and a roaring torrent, one crosses the threshold of the last refuge of Shamyl, the natural fortress of Gunîb.

Gunîb is a valley five miles long by three broad, surrounded by inaccessible mountains. It lies in the centre of Daghestan, and here Shamyl, for years beforehand, had made his preparations for a final retreat. Here he had pure water, good pasture, and land sowed with wheat, and here in 1859, when resistance outside seemed hopeless, he withdrew with a few hundred devoted followers, blocked up or destroyed the sole path of entrance, and fancied himself secure against further attack. It was the idea of a barbarian. Sooner or later the pursuing enemy were bound to make their way in, as they quickly did; the first of them, twenty-seven in number, guided by a native boy who suddenly volunteered, climbing up a place seemingly so impassable that there was no watchman stationed there. From three directions the columns finally poured in, and the man who had so long defied the power of the Russian empire at last submitted without further struggle. Since then Daghestan has been pacified. Although the people must still regret their former wild liberty, as they showed when, at Turkish instigation, they tried to rise in 1877, they are helpless, for they are unarmed, and their country is now traversed by roads. Shamyl himself was well treated by his conquerors, and died at Mekka in 1871. His village, by order of the Government, which wishes to efface seditious memories among the natives, is now uninhabited, save by a watchman, so the picturesque ruins decay every year, until half a century hence few traces of them will be left.

The modern settlement, an ordinary military post with few houses, half-a-dozen shops, and no inn except the usual posting station, is situated lower down the slope, though still high enough above the stream to command a fine prospect of the lovely valley and its giant walls. From the top of one of these, the Gunîb Dagh, there is a wide view of Daghestan, "the land of mountains," which stretch into the distance on every side. Far beneath, amid the wilderness of rock, one can distinguish the turbid streams, the green pastures or rare woods, the brown patches or terraces of ripe grain, the flat mud-houses of the villages—an immense picture, grand enough to make one forget the trifling hardship incurred in coming to look at it.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

AN ANECDOTE OF RENAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The articles reviewing Mme. Darmesteter's 'Renan' in the *Nation* have interested me exceedingly. In reading them I was reminded of an incident in connection with M. Renan which may not be generally known, and might be added as a footnote to what has been said of him. I learned of it while a student at the University of Tübingen. Dr. Julius Euting, the then Professor of Semitic Languages and librarian at the Protestant *Stift*, now librarian at the Strassburg University Library, had occasion to examine some manuscripts at the Paris Library, and among the rest he found several catalogued by M. Renan under Chaldaic; but he soon found that they were not Chaldaic, with which he was perfectly familiar. There was some resemblance, yet there was as much difference as between German and Dutch. He called on M. Renan for an explanation, who replied that he did not just know in what language they were written, so he had put them under Chaldaic, to which they seemed the nearest allied. Thereupon Dr. Euting copied all the manuscripts, and in some way found that they were written in the Mandaic language, once spoken at the sources of the White Nile. He also found that there was a small remnant of nomadic shepherds, with their priest, who still spoke it. With the data in hand and the copies of the manuscripts, some more were found and copied at the Oxford Library. Dr. Euting constructed a grammar and dictionary. He devoted years of labor, a labor of love, to this work, and was fortunate in finding the St. Petersburg Oriental Society willing to assume the cost of publishing the complete manuscripts, which are prayers and discourses treating of the soul's leaving the body.

Should any of your readers ever get to Strassburg, they will find Dr. Euting a gentleman who speaks English and is delighted to exhibit his Oriental treasures in the University Library. ARNIM DE BONNEHEUR.

BETHLEHEM, PA., August 27, 1898.

FRANKLIN AND RATTLESNAKES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Condorcet's "Éloge" on Franklin, delivered before the Académie des Sciences in 1790, he dilates upon Franklin's ready wit and "Socratic" method of argument, and cites as an instance that, "Chargé de demander l'abolition de l'usage insultant d'envoyer les malfaiteurs dans les Colonies, le Ministre lui allégait la nécessité d'en délivrer l'Angleterre. Que diriez-vous, répondit-il, si nous ordonnions l'exportation des serpens à sonnette?" And in a footnote the author adds: "Je lui ai entendu raconter ce trait, qui a été ridiculement défiguré dans quelques-uns de nous journaux."

From this source, and from this source only, the "Rattlesnake anecdote" has crept into most of the biographies of Franklin. In a recent careful examination of the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, for hitherto inedited writings of Franklin, I have discovered the following article (No. 1169, May 9, 1751), the style of which, as well as the subject, shows it to be the product of his pen, and which gives us the original of the story we have hitherto owed to Condorcet's French version, and proves that also to have been "défiguré."

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

TO THE PRINTERS OF THE GAZETTE.

By a Passage in one of your late Papers, I understand that the Government at home will not suffer our mistaken Assemblies to make any Law for preventing or discouraging the Importation of Convicts from Great Britain, for this kind Reason, '*That such Laws are against the Publick Utility, as* '*they tend to prevent the* IMPROVEMENT *and* WELL 'PEOPLING of the Colonies."

Such a tender *parental* Concern in our *Mother Country* for the *Welfare* of her Children, calls aloud for the highest *Returns* of Gratitude and Duty. This every one must be sensible of: But 'tis said, that in our present Circumstances it is absolutely impossible for us to make *such* as are adequate to the Favour. I own it; but nevertheless let us do our Endeavour. 'Tis something to show a grateful Disposition.

In some of the uninhabited Parts of these Provinces, there are Numbers of these venomous Reptiles we call RATTLE SNAKES; Felons-convict from the Beginning of the World: These, whenever we meet with them, we put to Death, by Virtue of an old Law, *Thou shalt bruise his Head*. But as this is a sanguinary Law, and may seem too cruel; and as however mischievous those Creatures are with us, they may possibly change their Natures, if they were to change the Climate; I would humbly propose, that this General Sentence of *Death* be changed for *Transportation*.

In the Spring of the Year, when they first creep out of their Holes, they are feeble, heavy, slow, and easily taken; and if a small Bounty were allow'd *per* Head, some Thousands might be collected annually, and *transported* to Britain. There I would propose to have them carefully distributed in *St. James's Park*, in the *Spring-Gardens*, and other Places of Pleasure about *London;* in the Gardens of all the Nobility and Gentry throughout the Nation; but particularly in the Gardens of the *Prime Ministers*, the *Lords of Trade*, and *Members of Parliament;* for to them we are *most particularly* obliged.

There is no human Scheme so perfect, but some Inconveniencies may be objected to it. Yet when the Conveniencies far exceed, the Scheme is judg'd rational, and fit to be executed. Thus Inconveniencies have been objected to that *good* and *wise* Act of Parliament, by virtue of which all the *Newgates* and *Dungeons* in *Britain* are emptied into the Colonies. It has been said, that these Thieves and Villains introduc'd among us, spoil the Morals of Youth in the Neighbourhoods that entertain them, and perpetrate many horrid Crimes. But let not *private Interests* obstruct *publick* Utility. Our *Mother* knows what is best for us. What is a little *Housebreaking*, *Shoplifting*, or *Highway Robbing;* what is a *Son* now and then *corrupted* and *hang'd*, a Daughter *debauch'd* and *pox'd*, a Wife *Stabb'd*, a Husband's *Throat cut*, or a Child's *Brains beat out* with an Axe, compar'd with this 'IMPROVEMENT and WELL 'PEOPLING of the Colonies!"

Thus it may perhaps be objected to my Scheme, that the *Rattle-Snake* is a mischievous Creature, and that his changing his Nature with the Clime is a mere Supposition, not yet confirm'd by sufficient Facts. What then? Is not Example more prevalent than Precept? And may not the honest rough British Gentry, by a Familiarity with these Reptiles, learn to *creep*, and to *insinuate*, and to *slaver*, and to *wriggle* into Place (and perhaps to *poison* such as stand in their Way) Qualities of no small Advantage to Courtiers! In comparison of which '*Improvement* and *Publick Utility*,' what is a *Child* now and then kill'd by their venomous Bite, . . . or even a favourite *Lap-Dog?*

I would only add, That this Exporting of Felons to the Colonies, may be consider'd as a *Trade*, as well as in the Light of a *Favour*. Now all Commerce implies Returns: Justice requires them: There can be no Trade without them. And *Rattle Snakes* seem the most *suitable Returns* for the *Human Serpents* sent us by our *Mother* Country. In this, however, as in every other Branch of Trade, she will have the Advantage of us. She will reap *equal* Benefits without equal Risque of the Incon-

veniences and Dangers. For the *Rattle-Snake* gives Warning before he attempts his Mischief; which the Convict does not. I am

Yours, &c.,

AMERICANUS.

Notes.

'Ave Roma Immortalis,' Mr. F. Marion Crawford's new book, to be published in two volumes, by Macmillan & Co., is an antiquarian and historical work, drawn largely from Latin and Italian chronicles, and serving some of the purposes of a guide-book or vade-mecum for the tourist. It will be copiously illustrated. The same publishers announce 'The Great Salt Lake Trail,' by Col. Henry Inman and the Hon. William F. Cody ("Buffalo Bill").

Edwin Gordon Lawrence of this city has in preparation, for speedy publication by himself, 'Modern Oratory,' consisting of British and American selections, and provided with an introductory discussion.

William Doxey, San Francisco, has added to his well-printed, handy "Lark Classics" Kipling's 'Barrack-Room Ballads, Recessional, Etc.' The "etc." is part of the title, and suggests the queer lane by which one reaches the "Recessional" at the very end. Those who don't mind such incongruities as this medley offers, can be recommended to procure a volume for what they like best in it.

Mr. James T. Edwards has printed some interesting letters of John McDonogh, the founder of schools in New Orleans and Baltimore. The earlier letters relate to the land claims growing out of the Louisiana purchase and the carrying off of slaves by the British in 1815. Of more permanent value is Mr. McDonogh's account of the freeing of his slaves and his interest in the Liberian colony. After forty years' experience in keeping slaves he wrote, in 1842: "My experience will show that, with a proper treatment of slaves, the gain from their extra labor—that is, the labor over and above that which slaves in general yield their owners—in the course of that time, say fifteen years, will enable their master to send them out [to Africa], and purchase in Virginia or Maryland, with the gain made from said extra labor, a gang of equal number to replace them." The entire letter must be read to permit a full appreciation of this queer philanthropic experiment; and one should read McDonogh's brief biography published a few years ago.

The combined efforts, especially of Tischendorf, Tregelles, and Westcott-Hort resulted for the New Testament in a *textus receptus* that is such not for traditional, but for critical reasons. The British and other Bible societies, nevertheless, still inundate Europe and America with cheap editions of the old and uncritical text, which is printed because it is old and bought because it is cheap. Prof. E. Nestle, a leading German New Testament critic and Syriac scholar, the most prominent pupil of Lagarde, has made an earnest attempt to do away with this state of affairs. He has, in his 'Novum Testamentum,' put into the hands of the student practically everything that he can need for the investigation of the New Testament text, the materials of preceding editions being carefully compiled and arranged. The Würtemberg Bible Society has contrived that there can be no complaint on the score of the price. Although a volume of 600 pages, it can be had, bound, for less than fifty cents. A full half-dozen editions in various bindings have been issued.

A series of articles on "Das Übersinnliche in der Deutschen Litteratur," by Dr. Richard Wedel, is appearing in the monthly publication *Psychische Studien* (Leipzig: Oswald Mutze), beginning with the April number—a place where few would look for contributions to literary history. The writer alludes briefly to the presence of supersensuous elements in the earliest German literature, *e. g.*, in the 'Merseburger Zaubersprüche,' in 'Parzival,' the 'Nibelunglied,' and later on in the works of Grimmelshausen, but in the main confines himself to the writers of the last hundred years, from whom he gathers a considerable harvest of mystic phenomena.

The *Library Journal* for August is occupied to repletion with the late Chautauqua conference. We remark the paper on "Open Shelves," or free access of readers to alcoves, in favor of which the writer is very pronounced; that on gifts and bequests to libraries, July, 1897, to June, 1898, aggregating more than $2,500,000, besides building and lands valued at nearly $800,000, but including the endowment for Columbia University of more than a million (a table is subjoined); the account of the numerous library schools, both permanent and summer, beginning with Mr. Dewey's New York State School at Albany, which will, in its summer session hereafter, receive as candidates only those who have had considerable experience in library work. Many other topics possess an interest for teachers and educators not inferior to that for librarians.

The *State*, a weekly political and literary journal published at Tacoma, conciliates woodcut and letterpress opposition by keeping to an uncalendered paper, and tacking its half-tone proofs on the spaces allotted to them. We commend this compromise to our book publishers.

Papagueria, or the land of the Papago, is the subject of the principal article, by W. J. McGee, in the *National Geographic Magazine* for August. This Indian tribe inhabits the arid region which lies beyond the Sierra Madre in Arizona and the Mexican State of Sonora. About 4,000 in number, they have adjusted their habits, food, raiment, industries, and social organization to the desert, and thrive where other peoples would famish. They are "characterized by exceptional force and stability of character," and three centuries of contact with alien races has affected them but slightly. They are probably descended from a people of superior aboriginal culture. The extensive ruins of aqueducts and other irrigation-works show that "the prehistoric farmers constrained and restrained the running waters to the needs of their kind, while the modern Indians chase and seek the waters just as they chase game and seek wild fruits." Fragments of finer pottery than is now made by the Papagos, together with well-shaped and polished stone axes, pestles, mortars, etc., are found in the mounds which mark the sites of ancient villages. Recently the men have become addicted to intemperance in smoking and drinking, and a deterioration of stature and other physical characters has been observed, though the women are largely free from these vices. Descriptions of their summer and winter homes (in which they show the same dignified hospitality and reserve noted by the earliest Spaniards), their peculiar customs and industries, are aided by some interesting photographs.

An instructive excerpt from the last annual report (28th) of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor is entitled 'Labor Chronology, 1897,' and presents day by day the actions of various labor organizations, under the respective heads of Hours of Labor, Wages, Trades-Unions, Labor Legislation. Besides these news items, we have the labor legislation of 1898 (text of statutes), and a summary paragraph on the labor movement in the State in 1897.

The Total Solar Eclipse of January 22, 1898, is described in preliminary reports on four expeditions sent to India by a joint committee of the Royal Society and the Royal Astronomical Society of London, published in the Proceedings of the Royal Society for August 4. The first report is on the expedition to Sahdol, and contains a description by W. H. M. Christie, Astronomer Royal, of photographs of the corona on a large scale during totality, and of photographs of the partial phase before and after totality for determination of the position of the moon relatively to the sun. It also includes an account by Prof. H. H. Turner of the instrumental equipment and adjustment. The second of the reports is on observations at Ghoglee, by Prof. Ralph Copeland, Astronomer Royal for Scotland, who describes his method of photographing the corona and the spectrum. Sir Norman Lockyer contributes an account of the observations at Viziadrug by himself with the assistance of the officers and men of H. M. S. *Melpomene*. Twenty-two groups of observers were formed, and the interest and skill displayed by the officers and men under Capt. Chisholm Batten prove that effective and economical aid in observing eclipses can be secured from the personnel of a man-of-war. The concluding report is on observations at Pulgaon by Capt. E. H. Hills and Mr. H. F. Newall, and is illustrated by photographs of the solar corona, the corona spectrum, and the spectrum of the sun's limb.

The Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Harvard University, has issued under one cover Nos. 4 and 5 of the first volume of its Memoirs. In No. 4 Mr. George Byron Gordon gives an account of his "Researches in the Uloa Valley, Honduras," and shows that this region was once the abode of a people who had reached a stage of culture equal to that attained by the highest civilizations of Central America. He finds no evidence of the use of metals, and architectural remains and implements of war are entirely wanting, but from the results of his excavations it is plain that the inhabitants of this locality excelled in the potter's art, in color decoration, and in some forms of stone-cutting. A stone image found among the ruins of some mounds resembles the rude sculptures from Nicaragua rather than the elaborate monoliths of Copan. If not Mayas, the dwellers in the Uloa Valley were in close relations with some portions of that race, and the predominating influence was Maya, as is shown most prominently in the remains of pottery. Most of the specimens examined exhibit technical qualities identical with those of pottery from Copan. The use of certain decorative motives and of a graphic system common to that of the codices and the sculptured monuments of Maya is a fur-

ther indication of these affinities. The second memoir, "Caverns of Copan," is also by Mr. Gordon. His explorations among the hillsides of the Copan Valley give no evidence of the extreme antiquity of man in that neighborhood. The pottery found there bears no resemblance to that of any other locality, but may have been made for special rites connected with the caves. Both papers are illustrated by heliotypes.

Alexander Agassiz, LL.D., after serving the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College in various capacities for thirty-five years, has resigned his position as Director and Curator. The policy of the establishment will hereafter be guided by a committee of the Museum Faculty consisting of Dr. Henry P. Walcott and Prof. George L. Goodale, and Dr. W. McM. Woodworth has been appointed Assistant in charge of the Museum.

To the letter from Mr. A. de Potter which we published last week, touching a Flemish society in Belgium, we should have appended a note confirming the correctness of our abstract of Prof. Paul Fredericq's review (in the *Athenæum*) of Belgium's intellectual movement during the past year. At the end of his remarks he says, "For the first time I have to speak of works written in the third national language of Belgium," and then proceeds to introduce the "fringe of Belgians who speak German and number about 50,000," living "along the frontier of the Rhineland of Prussia and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg," with their linguistic self-assertion, in accordance with our summary.

—Mr. A. Growoll's 'Book-Trade Bibliography in the United States in the Nineteenth Century,' printed for the Dibdin Club of this city, is as entertaining and valuable as it is a modest performance. It makes a neat, old-fashioned volume, with a portrait of the late Frederick Leypoldt, of honored memory, and a dedication to (one may infer) his widow. Mr. Growoll recalls successively the various booksellers' associations from 1801 to 1892, beginning with that American Company which embraced the trade of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia in 1801, with Mathew Carey for its first president, and ending with the extinct American Book-Trade Association. There follows a chapter of "Side Lights on the Early Conditions of the Book-Trade," which is especially readable as containing much out-of-the-way information. Next comes an account of the first book-trade 'Catalogue of All the Books Printed in the United States,' published by the booksellers of Boston. This very rare list is reproduced in facsimile at the end of Mr. Growoll's matter, and is a study in itself. Chapter v. deals with book-trade helps, 1801-1897. Chapter vi. is a meritorious chronological list of catalogues, book-trade, and literary journals, and closes with the reminder that the staff of the *Publishers' Weekly* is now proceeding with a schedule of the books of the early part of the century not in print in 1876—*i. e.*, at the date of the editing of the 'American Catalogue.' The publication of this list "will complete a record of American books of the nineteenth century." Chapter vi. is a clear labor of love in rescuing from oblivion the pioneer bookseller-bibliographers, from Orville A. Roorbach to F. Leypoldt, of whom the sketch is noticeably intimate and affectionate. Charles B. Norton (who published 'Poole's Index'), Charles Rudolph Rode, Obadiah Rice (in at the founding of the Boston Athenæum, collector for the great libraries of J. Carter Brown, S. L. M. Barlow, Peter Force, and Henry C. Murphy, and the source of many friendly obligations to Irving, Ticknor, and Prescott in their Spanish studies), Henry Stevens "of Vermont" (the great purveyor of Americana for the British Museum, and collector for the Brinley, Livermore, and Lenox libraries), Nicolas Trübner, James Kelly, and Joseph Sabin are the other worthies on this bede-roll.

—The Boston Catalogue above mentioned is classified and irregularly alphabetized, under author- and (to some extent) subject-entries. Law, which must yet await its Kent and Story, is succeeded by Physic, in which we remark the elder Darwin's Zoonomia, and by Divinity, beginning with Hannah Adams, and including Blair's Sermons, Barclay's Apology, Baxter's Call and Saints' Rest, Doddridge, Jonathan Edwards in force, Fox's Journal, Klopstock's Messiah, Hannah More's Sacred Dramas, John Newton, Paley's Evidences, Priestley, Whitefield, Watts, and Young's Night Thoughts. A page of Bibles precedes the Miscellanies, in which the running finger rests on Abelard and Eloisa, Baron Trenck's Life and Adventures, Bennet's Strictures on Female Education, Bentham's Defence of Usury, Bowditch's Practical Navigator, the amusing rascally Memoirs of Stephen Burroughs, Carver's Travels, Charlotte's Letters written during her Connexion with Werther, the History of Eliza Wharton (the Coquette), Darwin's Botanic Garden and System of Female Education, Dibdin's Songs, D'Israeli's Romances, Franklin's Autobiography, Godwin's Enquiry concerning Political Justice, Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts, Jefferson's Notes on Virginia, Vicesimus Knox's Moral and Literary Essays, Lavater's Physiognomy, the gipsy Life of Bampfylde Moore Carew, Lindley Murray's English Grammar, Paine's Works, Mary Wollstonecraft's Rights of Woman, Rousseau's Social Compact, Rumford's Experimental Essays and Essay on Chimney Fire Places ("Count Rumford's Essays you shall have by the next mail," wrote Coleridge in 1796, and, in the same year, "The landlord has promised me to Rumfordize the chimney"), etc., etc. Schoolbooks and Singing-books bring to a close this interesting mirror of the period, in which the greatest figure of the century just opening is reflected only incidentally in Denon's Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt "during the campaigns of Bonaparte in that country."

—The latest contribution by Furneaux to the exposition of Tacitus is his edition of the 'Agricola' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde), a volume uniform with his editions of the 'Annals' and 'Germania.' About half of the long introduction (otherwise concerned with the history of the text, the purpose of the treatise, its language, etc.) is devoted to a consideration of Tacitus's account of Britain and its conquest. Here Mr. Furneaux is on ground much fought, but to editorial treatment almost new; for it is a surprising fact that this, the most interesting part of the 'Agricola,' has been comparatively neglected in editions of it. Not a few of its archaeological and topographical problems have been treated by specialists, but never in close connection with the treatise itself. Mr. Furneaux convincingly shows how little support for many of their theories can be found in Tacitus, and how slight an outline of the campaigns of Agricola Mommsen's "most unmilitary of historians" has really left us. However, Furneaux's essay is not wholly negative in its results, and, with its full collection of material and its thorough consideration of the questions involved, it ought to be in the hands of every student of the work. He offers us, also, a good, sound, conservative text of the 'Agricola,' differing from that of Halm in about fifty places. Where he differs he follows more closely the manuscript tradition, and herein he does well; although in a few places his text is unreadable, because he despairs of emendation and prints the unintelligible words of the manuscripts or else indicates a lacuna. He does not contribute a single emendation of his own, a notable instance of modesty in the case of a work which has been "the happy hunting-ground of emendators." We are inclined to doubt the wisdom of his adoption of Peter's explanation of *opus fuit* in 1, 4; both this and the retention of *et* in 3, 2, seem unnecessary. For the use of adversative *-que* in 17, 3, much earlier authority than Tacitus can be cited. The explanatory notes are helpful, and the new map of Britain in the time of Agricola is very welcome.

—Ulrico Hoepli of Milan offers a selection from the writings of Silvio Pellico, with an introduction by Francesco D'Ovidio; also, a volume of short stories, entitled 'All' Ombra del Faggio,' by Avancinio Avancini. Both books are presented in admirably clear type, but in nearly every other respect are widely different. While undoubtedly inferior in literary skill to Alfieri, Leopardi, and Manzoni, Silvio Pellico must be classed with them as representing the hopes and aspirations of the disjointed and unhappy Italy of the first half of the nineteenth century. Signor Avancini, on the other hand, is a Milanese writer of both prose and verse whose earliest volume appeared in 1888, and who is therefore quite of the *fin-de-siècle* school. In fact, some of his expressions are startlingly modern, as for instance where a younger brother replies to the reproaches of an elder with a "Tu parli come un libro stampato." The present volume contains some two dozen sketches, of varying quality, but all showing a light touch and considerable sense of humor, and all possessing the merit, which is rarer than it should be in modern Italian literature, of being entirely suitable for the consumption of "the young person." Perhaps the dominant note is the difficulty of making both ends meet in the hard times that have overtaken the country in its effort to keep pace with the military expenditures of its allies. There is a good deal, too, about the horrors of war, and the hardships of compulsory service in the ranks, which will seem singularly timely to many an American reader. By one of the stories, "Quando c'erano i Tedeschi," our thoughts are led back again to the period of Austrian occupation, the terrors of which are so simply and touchingly described by Pellico in 'Le Mie Prigione.' It is on this alone that his fame must rest. He himself believed that he might have rivalled his literary contemporaries if his long imprisonment had not injured his health and interfered with his studies. But as the bitterness of Dante's exile added not a little to the wondrous power of the "Inferno," so Pellico's imprisonment enabled him to write a book that will still be read long after 'Francesca da Rimini' and 'Eufemio di Messina'—both of

which are included in the present edition—are forgotten.

PLATO'S LOGIC.

The Origin and Growth of Plato's Logic. By Wincenty Lutoslawski. Longmans, Green & Co.

Plato stimulates many readers in many ways, and not a few of them are moved to display to the world the spiritual offspring of which they are delivered by the Socratic maieutic still potent after two thousand years. Already in Lucian's time there were young men who plumed themselves on seeing a little further into Plato than any one else; and, if Emerson may be believed, "Every brisk young man who says in succession fine things to each reluctant generation, is some reader of Plato translating into the vernacular wittily his good things." In these post-Emersonian days, however, the clever young man is more apt to come forward with a new statistical method for determining the development of Plato's mind by the relative frequency of his "whereases" and "forsoothlies," or a fresh view of the genetic evolution of his thought. Of such is Mr. Lutoslawski, the author of a ponderous volume of 550 pages on the origin and growth of Plato's logic, widely heralded by the patronage of Prof. Campbell.

Many years ago, in his edition of the 'Sophist' and 'Statesman,' Prof. Campbell confirmed, by a laborious analysis of their vocabulary, the conclusion to which a sound instinct for style had led him, that these severe dialectical dialogues are probably later than the great central work of Plato's life, the 'Republic.' It is a rule of the game, in modern German scholarship, that the "literature" of your subject must be cited. It is also a rule, less openly acknowledged but rarely violated, that the said literature need not be read except to pick out a favorable or unfavorable quotation, according as your purpose is friendly or polemical. It thus happened that, while many scholars for many reasons came to hold that the logical technicalities of the 'Sophist' and 'Statesman' followed the 'Republic' instead of preceding it, as Zeller and Stallbaum had assumed, Campbell's excellent work received little recognition until Mr. Lutoslawski took upon himself the task of proclaiming its "immortal merits" to the Platonists of France and Germany. It was not in human nature that Professor Campbell should not be pleased, nor can we expect him to scrutinize too closely the details of a work the general conclusions of which are so acceptable. The point of view of a cis-Atlantic critic is more objective, and, while recognizing the praiseworthy industry and ingenuity that have gone to the making of this book, he may and must warn the general reader and the young student against accepting its elaborate refinements of method and its confident conclusions as science.

Mr. Lutoslawski attempts two things: first, to reduce to tabulated percentages all the special studies of Plato's style undertaken in the last fifty years, and so determine the exact ratio of approximation of every dialogue to the 'Laws' taken as a representative of Plato's latest manner; second, to confirm the results thus obtained by a study of the growth of Plato's logic, which virtually includes his metaphysic. The book is full of interesting suggestions, some of which are true. It also contains many misinterpretations, and scores of false points or bare possibilities put forth as certainties. Detailed criticism would demand another volume of at least equal size. A few general remarks on the main problem and the method employed are all that can be offered here.

It must be borne in mind that we know the 'Timæus' and the 'Laws' (Plato's latest work) to be later than the 'Republic,' and we know that the 'Symposium' cannot be earlier than an event of the year 385 to which it alludes. It may also be assumed that the minor dramatic sketches and purely Socratic dialogues precede the 'Symposium.' The problem is, by sequence of doctrine or minute observations of style, to determine the dates relatively to the 'Republic' of the eight or ten more important dialogues that remain. *A priori* it is a very pretty question. Prof. Campbell shows that an intelligent student of metre and style ought to be able to discover the fact (which, for the rest, we know) that the additions to the original form of Tennyson's 'Morte d'Arthur' are later than the idyll of the Holy Grail. He also cites the determination of the dates of Shakspere's plays as an apt parallel. But these general considerations do not carry us far. Are the demonstrable differences of style in Plato's maturer dialogues sufficient to warrant our acceptance of Mr. Lutoslawski's method and of his extremely specific results? To his ingenious system for the manipulation of the statistics of style Mr. Lutoslawski gives the name stylometry. He tabulates from forty or fifty dissertations and "programmes" some five hundred peculiarities of Plato's later vocabulary and style—the style of the 'Laws' and of the group of dialogues that immediately preceded it. These stylistic features are classified as accidental, repeated, important, and very important; a scale of relative values for each class is assumed, and the ratio of the number of units of peculiarity to the page found in any dialogue to the maximum of the 'Laws,' with its total score of 718 units, fixes the place of the dialogue in the chronological series. Thus, the 'Phædrus,' of which the "relative affinity" is 0.31, was necessarily written before the 'Theætetus,' of which the relative affinity is 0.32.

Our natural scepticism at this rigorous mathematical treatment of the indefinite and impalpable is met by Mr. Lutoslawski's reminding us how many complicated phenomena, once deemed inaccessible to scientific methods, have been forced to yield to victorious analysis. He forgets that science triumphs by the verification, not the cumulation, of hypotheses, while his results are the summation of a long series of untested assumptions. The psychological validity of the entire method, the relative importance of theme and mood in determining style as compared with the mere passage of the years, and the value as evidence of each one of the five hundred "peculiarities" collected somewhat at random from unverified studies, all require to be tested by repeated application to bodies of literature the dates of which are known. Prof. Campbell thinks that definite differences in style and metre make it evident that Tennyson's 'Passing of Arthur' is a generation later than his 'Morte d'Arthur.' It doubtless is evident to Prof. Campbell, but we should like to see a young German savant determine by a bona-fide application of this method the dates of Macaulay's Essays, Wordsworth's Poems, the works of Swift, or the plays of Molière. Prof. Zeller, who has applied what he regards as the more significant criterion of sentence length and punctuation to the works of Strauss, finds that the variations depend mainly on the subject-matter and the special literary effect aimed at, and that the method of percentages would bring together works separated by an interval of forty years.

Mr. Lutoslawski, however, has another string to his bow. The growth of Plato's mind, the progressive development of his logic, can, he thinks, be followed through the dialogues, and the results thus independently won confirm those of stylometry. Plato, he holds, worked his way slowly step by step to the comprehension of elementary logical principles, each important dialogue marking a distinct stage in his progress. And *pari passu* with this growth in logical insight, he passed from the first intuition of the theory of transcendental ideas to its definite formulation in the 'Symposium' and 'Phædo,' and its transformation and virtual abandonment in his later writings for the view that the ideas are merely the thoughts of some mind. There is no inherent contradiction in this interpretation of Plato's development, but the evidence alleged for such a *volte-face* in a great thinker's opinions requires to be scrutinized very closely. It is quite certain that Plato recognized such a thing as arguing for victory—what Mr. Minto, in his admirable Logic, calls the game of question and answer, and what Plato himself distinguishes from serious dialectic as "play" (παίζειν). It is not in the 'Euthydemus' only that he introduces fallacies as dramatic lessons in elementary logic. Nor is the 'Phædo' the only place in which he wilfully makes a show of proof for a doctrine necessary to edification. But, allowance made for this, it may be doubted whether there is a single fallacy in Plato that is not accompanied by a sufficient hint to the reader who sees below the surface. It will need a great deal of evidence to convince us that Plato was at any time unaware that a universal affirmative cannot be directly converted. And when Mr. Lutoslawski infers from Protagoras's insistence on this principle (Protag. 350-51) that the "discovery" was made outside of the Socratic circle, we need only recall the ample illustration of it in 'Euthyphron' 12 to be convinced again that he must have a good memory who undertakes to read Plato lessons in logic. Similarly, in commenting on the fallacy in 'Charmides' 160, M. Lutoslawski overlooks the reservation in the words ἐκ γε τούτου τοῦ λόγου.

The theory that the doctrine of transcendental objective ideas was at some time after Plato's maturity transformed into the view that the ideas are only the thoughts of God, is an interpretation which, in one or another of its Protean forms, will always commend itself to readers who fail to appreciate the fearless consistency with which Plato accepted the instinctive realism of human speech as the basis of a convenient philosophical language about general notions. The psychological objections to this way of speaking Plato fully recognized. But he could evade them by mysticism or an appeal to the necessary presuppositions of a working logic, and he saw clearly, what his critics fail to note, that there is no language that we can use about general notions which does not raise by implication those ultimate problems of the one and the many in the univer-

sal, the solution of which modern psychology may have found, but certainly cannot formulate. Such difficulties did not constrain him to abandon or transform the doctrine, though we freely concede that they may have led to repeated expositions of it from different points of view, and may have induced him to lessen the emphasis laid on its transcendental and mystical side.

But a volume would be required to debate this question. Our conviction is based on the fact that the more closely Plato's text is studied, the less need do we find of assuming any radical transformation of his maturer thought. It is confirmed by the observation that the passages cited to prove this alleged transformation are too frequently misconstrued or misinterpreted. Mr. Lutoslawski, for example, translates *νοήσει μετὰ λόγου περιληπτόν* (Tim. 27 E) "exist in reason" or "included in thought," and easily infers from this translation that the "ideas" in the 'Timæus' are subjective entities existing only as the thought of some mind (pp. 474, 477). His quotation of the critical passage for the theory of ideas (Parmenides 132 C, p. 403) is hopelessly garbled, and his interpretation of the passage misleading. And throughout the book the natural meaning of words in their context is strained in order to find the "developments," the changes of doctrine, and the progress in logical insight which the theory postulates. From an Emersonian point of view it is perhaps pedantry to insist on this. Let us enjoy the stimulus to our own thought that Plato gives. Few indeed will care to be over-scrupulous in ascertaining precisely what *he* thought.

AUSTRALASIAN ENGLISH.

Austral English: A Dictionary of Australasian Words, Phrases, and Usages. By Edward E. Morris, Professor in the University of Melbourne. Macmillan.

A dictionary of Australasian English extending to more than 500 double-column pages is something of a surprise. One is at first disposed to hazard a jesting application of "Advance Australia!" But this would be quite out of place. The book is as solid and dignified as possible. It takes itself seriously, but cannot be called pretentious; it allows itself all the space it wishes, but it is not padded. In effect, it is not merely a justifiable but a welcome and even necessary piece of lexicography, which does credit to the author and will advance the reputation of the young university which he represents.

The size of the work is due not to the extent of the peculiarly "Austral" vocabulary—though that is not small—but to the author's plan. In the first place, he admits a great number of words like ash, beech, robin, starling, cod, haddock, etc., which are in common use in Australia to designate genera and species more or less remotely resembling those to which the several names are applied in England. And he not only admits such words, but treats them with scientific fulness and accuracy, enumerating and distinguishing species and often appending descriptive quotations. Opinions will differ as to the wisdom of this procedure, which, as Prof. Morris himself says, makes this part of the book "almost an encyclopædia rather than a dictionary." For our own part, we cordially approve. Indeed, we can hardly see what else the author could have done. Some of this matter he was really obliged to insert, or his dictionary would have been wretchedly imperfect; and where was he to draw the line? It is ungrateful to quarrel with a well-digested body of excellent material merely because a portion of it lies outside of strict lexicographical limits.

The second cause of the size of the Austral Dictionary consists in what is one of its greatest merits, the richness of its quotations. Here the Oxford Dictionary has been the model, but the comparatively larger space allowed to the compiler of a special vocabulary has permitted the quoting to be done on a more liberal scale. Exact dates, full titles, and precise references to page or line are furnished. The quotations are chronologically arranged, and an attempt has been made to secure both early and late instances of the use of all the important words. In many cases the passages excerpted are not merely illustrative, but descriptive, supplementing or superseding the definition. The number of books examined, their variety and scope, and the industry and skill evinced by the examiner, are alike remarkable. Not only is there an "Australian literature," but it has found an able and untiring investigator.

It is time to give our readers some specimens of this Austral English. Of peculiar interest are aboriginal Australian words which have come into general use in the colonies. These offer thorny problems to the philologist. The blacks belong to many different tribes and their dialects differ greatly. This fact was not recognized by the early settlers. Some tribes with whom the pioneers came into contact and from whom they derived their notions of native Australian are quite extinct, but yet have left behind them, in use among the whites, words which the latter ignorantly regard as universally current among the natives. Travellers and settlers have taught these words to other tribes, who, in their turn, have supposed them to be English. The result is curious—a kind of lingua franca or "yabber" has sprung up, which the blacks think is English and the colonists imagine to be aboriginal. Add to this the fact that our knowledge of many dialects depends merely on brief lists of words written down haphazard by unlettered bushmen, or at best by colonists whose ear was untrained and who were ignorant of any intelligible method of phonetic transcription, and the desperate condition of native linguistics becomes patent. For the name of a well-known parrakeet are extant the variant spellings *budgerigar, betcherrygah, betshiregah, budgregore, budgereghar,* and others. The 'Standard Dictionary' spells the name *beauregarde* and derives it from the French!

Apart from the native names of plants and animals, of which Australian English has, of course, borrowed a considerable number, several aboriginal words of interest have entered the ordinary vocabulary of the colonists. Some of these have become familiar throughout the English-speaking world through the medium of the Australian novelists—an ever-increasing band. *Gin* and *lubra* for "native woman" are well known. The latter now reveals itself as probably Tasmanian in origin. Oddly enough, no aboriginal word for "man" has become similarly current, the usual term being *blackfellow.* We may compare the state of things in our own country, where *squaw* has become naturalized as an English word, but "brave" or "buck" is used for the other sex. For a child of the aboriginal race *pickaninny* (of Spanish origin, and borrowed from this continent) is employed by the Australian colonists in the full persuasion that it is a native word.

Woomera (spelt in no less than seven different ways) is a type of an interesting class of aboriginal words, which, being used to designate arms or implements peculiar to the blacks, have won a place in the language both of science and of common life. It signifies the curious weapon known to anthropologists as the "throwing-stick." Of this class *boomerang* has long ago taken rank as ordinary English, and has furnished the language with a somewhat overworked metaphor. *Bora* (which Prof. Morris has not treated with the fulness that it merits) has of late become an every-day word among anthropologists. It is used by an extensive tribal community for the rite of initiation into manhood, and has been adopted by investigators as a convenient technical term. Readers of the 'Journal of the Anthropological Institute' will recall several articles on this subject in recent volumes. An elaborate book on the *bora*-rite, by Prof. Baldwin Spencer of Melbourne, is, we believe, soon to be published.

In discussing aboriginal words, Prof. Morris has shown, in general, both learning and judgment. We regret that he has not uniformly given the authority, in his etymologies, for the occurrence and forms of the native words cited. The published vocabularies are widely scattered; some of them are hidden away in obscure books of travel; others are the issues of local presses, and hard to get; still others are embodied in the publications of societies. Verification is consequently pretty hard work. Prof. Morris is, however, usually scrupulous in this particular. The temptation to refer every obscure word to a native etymon he has withstood with firmness; see, *e. g., bung* (p. 64). We have observed but one error in this direction: the derivation of the verb *barrack,* "to cheer or hoot (especially at a football game)," from the aboriginal *borak,* which is demonstrably wrong. Under the common but much-disputed word *waddy,* where important information is given, we miss a reference to the little vocabulary in Ogle's 'Western Australia' (1839), which exhibits *wadi,* "a tree."

The long tragedy of extirpation so movingly described by Mr. Bonwick in his 'Last of the Tasmanians,' has left its mark even in this dictionary. Tasmanian words "glare through their absences." Besides *lubra,* perpetuated by a strange accident, we observe only *mariner* and *warrener,* corrupt names for certain sea-shells. And *merrina,* the supposed etymon of the former, is of doubtful genuineness. We remember searching for its "authority" some time ago in vain, and Prof. Morris has apparently had a similar experience.

New Zealand philology is happily in a very different condition from that just described. The copious and musical Maori language was long ago reduced to writing in accordance with a simple and convenient phonetic system, and it has been zealously studied by a succession of scholarly men. There are two Maori lexicons, the more recent of which, the 'Maori-Polynesian Dictionary,' of Mr. Edward Tregear, is a monument of patient learning. The rich "oral literature" of the Maoris has much of it been printed in the original. In the Zelanian* department, there-

*This is good "Austral." See Morris, p. 525.

fore, Prof. Morris has had comparatively plain sailing.

The English contingent in the special Australian vocabulary includes, naturally, some novel formations; but far more numerous are the examples of familiar words in unfamiliar senses. The old system of penal transportation, the mad days of the gold "rushes," the growth of sheep and cattle raising, the rowdy life of city idlers, the agrarian difficulties, the development of autonomy through political strife of peculiar and complex bitterness—all have left their impress on the language of the colonists. The history of *squatter* is the history of the Australian land-laws. Originally used in its accepted sense —"one who occupies land without legal title"—it soon became extended to flock-masters who were tenants of the crown. This was a natural shift, since many of the unlicensed occupants were graziers; but the change of meaning produced some startling effects. In 1835 we read that squatters "are almost invariably the instigators of crime, receivers of stolen property, illegal vendors of spirits, and harborers of runaways, bushrangers, and vagrants"; in 1848 Mr. Westgarth speaks of "the modern squatters" as "the aristocratic portion of the colonial community." A further modification consisted in the extension of the word to flock-masters who possessed their land in freehold, so that, in common parlance, squatter and sheep-farmer are now synonyms. We observe with pain that *pastoralist* is of late getting the better of the shorter and pithier term. A sheep-farm or cattle-farm is a *station*, though this word is also used, in a more restricted sense, for the homestead and main building of such an establishment. The *hut* is the building, often a large one, occupied by the hands. The *shed*, sometimes of great size, is the structure in which the shearing is done. *To ring the shed* is to shear more sheep than any of one's associates. *Penners, pickers-up* (both omitted by Prof. Morris), *drafters, stock-riders, rouse abouts*, are station-hands of various ranks and functions. The *super* is, of course, the superintendent. A *duffer* is a cattle-thief. A small farmer is a *cockatoo*. Still racier is the jargon of mining. A *hatter* is a solitary miner. A *fossicker* searches about for alluvial gold near the surface or works over tailings. (Prof. Morris, by the way, is quite mistaken in his etymology of *fossick*, which he absurdly derives "through French from Latin *fossus*"! It is really a native English word, not unknown to the dialects.) A *payable* lead is one that is worth working. A *shicer* (another fantastic etymology in Morris) or *duffer* is a claim or mine that yields no ore. A *bottom* or *gutter* is an old river-bed of the Tertiary period, covered deep with *débris*, but full of alluvial gold. *Quartz-reef* tells its own story. You can *paddock* your quartz, if you like, at the mouth of your shaft. To *peg out* a claim is exciting enough, but the printed license known as a *miner's right* would take the romance out of 'The Treasure Island.'

Dark days, now ancient history, are recalled by *exile, old hand, government man, assigned servant, emancipist, logs, expiree*, and, above all, by the superb adjective *Vandemonian*. Bushrangers no longer *stick up* or *bail up* travellers, but bank-robbers *bail up* cashiers occasionally, and *pushes* of *larrikins* infest the cities. *Bail up* and *larrikin*, we may add, are two of the most difficult of Australian terms. The former is well discussed by Prof. Morris, though he has missed one sense of the noun *bail*. The latter, to which he has given much space, is still not entirely solved; his discussion contains much that is valuable along with some preposterous conjecture, and he has overlooked a considerable mass of evidence altogether. We cannot go into the question in this place, but we must not dismiss it without a cautionary note. Some day Prof. Morris will come across the word in Jago's 'Glossary of the Cornish Dialect'; when that day comes, let him pass by on the other side.

Our space is nearly exhausted. Not so the interesting things in a singularly fascinating book. We have noted many details which are open to criticism,* but nothing that affects our favorable general impression. There is only one pervasive defect, and that is the total neglect to mark pronunciation. In a second edition we hope this will be remedied, at least so far as the aboriginal words are concerned.

Life and Correspondence of Charles Carroll of Carrollton. By Kate Mason Rowland. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

To understand the full meaning of the American Revolution, policies rather than individuals must be studied. The old-fashioned biography, which made the person the main if not the only subject, was partial in its treatment of history. It was the struggle between factions in each State (parties in the modern meaning of the word hardly existed) that turned Federal politics. The contest between the aristocratic few and the rising democracy, between the landowner and the landless, between slavery and freedom, between plantation and commerce or manufactures, found expression in the local political movements in each colony or State. It is on these lines that study must be expended to bring good results, and the individual leader is merely a convenient mouthpiece of a policy, or peg on whose life may be strung an account of the events in which he played his part.

Judged by this standard, Miss Rowland's Life of Carroll cannot be regarded as a success, or even as an adequate presentation of the mere record of the man's career. In the popular estimation, Carroll has been a very rich man, one of the wealthiest in the colonies, who threw himself on the Revolutionary side. That in itself was unusual, as wealth remained generally loyal to the King. He signed the Declaration of Independence and survived his fellow-signers. Beyond these three facts it would be difficult to learn further of Carroll in a current history. Yet he was remarkable for fulness of character and variety of public service. He was of Irish descent (the usual royal ancestry is allotted to him by a formal chart given in these volumes), and a firm Catholic in a Catholic colony. He was educated in Europe, passing his youth there, and was wealthy from his first start in life. His religion, his wealth, and his wide family connections gave him a commanding position in Maryland, the colony and the State, and his participation in the Continental Congress and the State Legislature was a natural sequence. He lived well into this century, dying in 1832, and was long the object of veneration and even of pilgrimage, as the connecting link between the old and the new governments, though it must be said that this veneration sometimes took a theatrical turn, in which the figure of the old man played a part little suited to its natural dignity.

The opportunity here offered to Carroll's biographer was a rich one. His family's position in the colony; the religion prevailing in Maryland; the influence of the colony in the early stages of the Revolution; its relations, political and commercial, with its sister State of Virginia and with the markets of Europe; its internal modifications in passing from a proprietary to a royal colony, and from a royal colony to an independent and Federal State; its attitude towards the new Constitution—were so many subjects for ample development. One would have expected, also, some account of the condition in Canada which led to Carroll's mission to that dependency, as well as a full minute on the origin and acts of the Continental Board of War, that mischievous body of which he was at one time a member. Why should the Conway cabal receive such scanty notice, apparently given only with the intention of exonerating the Lees from any participation in its designs—without success? The debates on the question of the temporary and permanent residences of Congress are either omitted or treated in such a way as to produce confusion. The domestic politics is a rich field entirely proper to be studied in connection with Carroll's life; but who were Paca, Stone, Johnson, Mercer, and Jenifer, prominent politicians in their day, and frequently mentioned in these volumes? What gave them their influence and opportunities? Then there was Samuel Chase, branded with the crime of seeking his own gain through the public misfortunes, and all too prominent a judge because of his impeachment trial. Luther Martin, one of the many objects of Jefferson's hatred, was still another necessary factor in Maryland politics; while Robert Goodloe Harper, Carroll's son-in-law, was a prominent Federalist and an interesting character. Others equally important could be named, but Miss Rowland has confined herself to a bare record of Carroll's acts, actual or supposed, as revealed in the journals of the Continental Congress and the Maryland Legislature. Wherever Carroll's name occurs in them, the record is noted, and the number of such records is appalling—a tribute to the lady's industry rather than to Carroll's ability; but the reader is, as a rule, left in the dark as to the causes that produced a given measure, or on the eventual disposition of a bill or report. The bill is presented, a report prepared or merely delivered to the other house by Carroll, and there the proceedings stop. Any subsequent action is referred to only when Carroll was again called into requisition, as reporter or messenger. There is no attempt to discriminate among the several items with reference to their importance and consequences. However gratifying such a catalogue may be to the Carroll family, it is exasperating to the historian, as he is driven to original sources to investigate every statement made. Miss Rowland says of many reports that they were "probably" the work of Carroll, a "tried and chosen penman" of the Senate—a statement resting on very slim authority. Indeed, in other matters the words "no doubt," or "more than probable," or "it is said," and similar qualifying phrases are used too frequently. In her desire to tell a

*Concerning, for example, the words *assignee, aweto, baal, blackbirding, blow* (verb), *bush telegraph, clianthus, dump, ephthianura, fat-hen, spell, spieler, sterling, Tasmanian.*

good story, Miss Rowland's zeal has thrust her subject into situations where his presence can be accounted for only by her unsupported assertion. Many quotations mentioning Carroll are taken from McClay's Diary, but in a disconnected form, and again giving a confused impression of the measures coming before the Senate.

In spite of these serious shortcomings, Miss Rowland has found space for new and good material. Carroll's letters to Washington and Franklin are valuable, and his request for weavers, to be selected from the British prisoners of war, throws light on early industry in Maryland. Another bit of industrial history is the mention of the attempt to conduct the Baltimore Iron Works by negroes "contributed" by the shareholders, a most satisfactory quality of labor being furnished. Some of the legislative papers, whether rightly or wrongly attributed to Carroll, possess merit for clear discussion of the legal and political principles involved.

The proof-reading of this volume has often been careless, notably in the Latin phrases. We need only point to the occurrence in the same letter of two familiar phrases printed thus: "Sutor me ultra crepidam," and "Dulceest decipene in loco."

Brief Lives, chiefly of Contemporaries, set down by John Aubrey, between the years 1669 and 1696. Edited from the Author's MSS., by Andrew Clark. With Facsimiles. Two volumes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1898.

Clarendon Press editions of well-known works are not apt to be mistaken for ordinary reprints. They are almost always competent and often learned. In a few cases, which will occur to every one, they deserve to be styled monumental. To take the present instance, we should no more think of sitting down in cold blood to review Aubrey's 'Brief Lives' than we should to review Pepys's 'Diary.' What leads us to start the subject is the prodigality of effort which Dr. Clark has lavished upon these records of his university. Aubrey's merits and defects have long since been appraised by critics of seventeenth-century literature, and we shall mention them only when they concern the matter in hand, namely, the extent of Dr. Clark's labors.

Oxford has lately given much attention to its own archæology, and, after Anthony à Wood had been disposed of, it was only natural that Aubrey's turn should come. Put him as low in the scale as we will, he deserves to be brought before the modern world in correct and intelligible form. Prior to this edition he has received considerably less than justice. Many of his sketches found their way, with or without change, into Wood's 'Athenæ,' and then his manuscripts were deposited in the Ashmolean Museum. After they had remained there about a century, Malone made a partial transcript from them, and was sufficiently interested in a project of publication to interfere with a London printer, Caulfield, who wished to use the same materials. The version, however, which for the past eighty-five years has held the field was prepared by Dr. Philip Bliss and the Rev. John Walker. It is better than nothing, for it gives in substance the most valuable part of what Aubrey wrote, but Dr. Clark has very damaging things to say about the accuracy of its collation. Thus:

"A comparison of a few pages of Dr. Bliss's edition with Aubrey's MS. copy suggests a troublesome question in English textual criticism. If two eminent Oxford scholars in the beginning of the nineteenth century could thus pervert their author's meaning, can we have trust in the earlier redaction of greater texts, such as Shakspere?"

Aubrey was about forty when he began to make jottings for his 'Brief Lives," or, as he loved to call them, his Σχεδιάσματα. He had led a hard life and was financially down at the heels. Indeed, few men have practised literary composition under such discouraging circumstances. "Being at this time bankrupt, and a hanger-on at the tables of kindred and acquaintances, he had to fall in with his patrons' habits at the houses where he visited; to sit with them till they wearied of their carousings in the small hours of the morning, and to do his writing next forenoon before they had slept off their wine." His best sources were his own recollections, and, after these, the information which he could get from his friends. When dealing with Sir Thomas More he is ridiculous; when dealing with Lord Falkland he is in several respects misleading; but get him on the terra firma of his own contemporaries, and he can give delightful details about persons so remote from each other in type as Hobbes of Malmesbury and John Milton.

It is in his character of gossip that Aubrey is most famous, and his method of writing harmonized well with the farrago of chit-chat which he loved to accumulate. Here we come to the chief source of Dr. Clark's toil as a conscientious editor. Aubrey thought that invention suffered if the author was particular about the form of his first draft. Accordingly, he began at the top of a folio page by making notes on the man in question, with memory for his sole guide.

"If a date, a name, a title of a book did not occur to him on the spur of the moment, he just left a blank, or put a mark of omission (generally . . . or - - -), and went on. If the matter which came to him was too much for the page, he made an effort to get it in somehow, in the margins (top, bottom, or sides), between the paragraphs, or on the opposite page. When he read over what he had written in the first glow of composition, he erased, wrote alternatives to words and phrases, marked words, sentences, and paragraphs for transposition, inserted queries; unsettled everything."

He had still other tricks, which we need not describe, for diversifying the troubles of his editor. In hardly any case was the fair copy which he probably intended to make finished.

Amidst a tangle of difficulties, Dr. Clark's plan has been "to present faithfully Aubrey's text as he wrote it, neglecting only absolute minutiæ." He has made up a single narrative, but he has also given the rejected alternatives. Aubrey's spelling is retained, and so is the order of his paragraphs wherever possible. On the contrary, little peculiarities of writing (*e. g.*, w^{ch} for which) and his misleading punctuation have been discarded. The notes are explanatory rather than critical, seeking "to supply no more than indications of outstanding features of the text, identifications of Aubrey's informants, or necessary parallels from his letters."

We have said enough to explain the nature of Dr. Clark's obstacles. In conclusion, we may attempt to pass judgment on his success. He has, without undue mutilation, cleared up an unusually obscure text, so that we can now read with ease one of the most original contributions to English biography.

A Journal of the First Voyage of Vasco da Gama, 1497-'99. Translated and edited with notes, etc., by E. Ravenstein, F.R.G.S. London: The Hakluyt Society. 1898. 8vo, pp. xxxvi, 250, with maps and illustrations.

The discovery of an oceanic route to India in 1497-'8 marks an epoch in the history of exploration no less than in that of commerce. It turned into a new channel the invaluable Oriental trade in spices which for ages had passed through Syria and Egypt, put an end to the monopoly of this traffic hitherto enjoyed by Venice, and temporarily converted Lisbon into the great spice market of Europe. The limited resources of Portugal had already been severely taxed by her conflict with the Moors, carried on for generations; and when she was also called upon to maintain great fleets in the distant East to protect her monopoly of the spice trade, first against the Moors and later against powerful European rivals, her strength was wasted in the unequal struggle, which brought her in the end only exhaustion and ruin.

Of her great navigator, Vasco da Gama, Portugal has justly remained proud, claiming for him not the lowest place in the distinguished triad which also included Magellan and Columbus. He was born about 1460, at Sines, a seaboard town of which his father Estevano was alcaidemôr. He was the youngest of three brothers, and his pedigree has been traced back to Alvaro Annes da Gama, who lived in 1280 at Olivença and greatly distinguished himself as a soldier in the Moorish wars. The circumstances of his youth are unknown. After the return of Bartholomew Diaz, King João decided to fit out a fleet to complete the discovery of an ocean highway to India; the command was offered to Paulo da Gama, who declined it on account of ill health, but offered to take one of the vessels if the general command was given to his brother Vasco. The latter, according to old chronicles, though young, was well versed in all that then constituted the art of navigation, and had already done good service to the King in the fleets and important maritime affairs. Vasco was, therefore, selected as Captain-Major of the armada, and this choice of the King was confirmed by his successor on the throne, Dom Manuel. The sequel showed he was well qualified for the post, his firmness shrinking from no obstacle; and, notwithstanding the great length of the voyage and the many hardships it entailed, he retained to the last the confidence of his men. The original records of the voyage have disappeared. The early historians who had access to them dealt very briefly with all that concerned navigation. The only available account written by a member of the expedition is the Journal, to the translation of which the bulk of the present volume is devoted, and of which the authorship is unknown. The existing manuscript, a copy made in the early part of the sixteenth century, now belongs to the Public Library of Oporto, but its original seems lost.

The expedition left Restello, near Lisbon, July 8, 1497, and consisted of four vessels, of which the largest may have been of 250 tons and the smallest about 50 tons burden. One was a store-ship intended to be destroyed after she had served her purpose. Without attempting to dwell on details of the voyage it may be said, in brief, that they left the Cape Verde Islands on the

3d of August, and struck boldly out into the South Atlantic to avoid the adverse West African currents, and, after ninety-five days of sailing, reached the African coast again, near the Cape of Good Hope, which was rounded November 22. Remembering that Columbus was only thirty-six days at sea before reaching Guanahani, and that his crew had been mutinous, on account of the length of the voyage, for some time previously, the success of Da Gama seems very remarkable.

The expedition continued along the East African coast beyond Zanzibar, and at Melinde obtained a pilot, with whose aid they succeeded in crossing the Indian Ocean, arriving at Calecut on the southwest coast of India about the end of May, 1498. The Portuguese were unprovided with gifts suitable for royalty; the rich and powerful Arab merchants of Calecut looked on them as invaders as well as emissaries of an antagonistic religion, and this apparent poverty bred in them a certain contempt. The Portuguese, curiously enough, took the native Brahmans for an exotic variety of Christians, and, misled by similarities of ritual, supposed the temples to be churches. After a somewhat unsatisfactory intercourse with the King and people of Calecut, the fleet escaped without serious injury and with much invaluable commercial information. The voyage back to Melinde took nearly three months, and, scurvy appearing, the losses were very severe. Near Zanzibar the remaining crew and stores were removed from the ship *San Rafael*, which was then burned, as the crews were too much reduced to continue navigating three vessels. The figurehead of the ship was preserved and still exists in the church at Belem in Portugal. On the 20th of March, 1499, they doubled the Cape of Good Hope on their return. The journal ends abruptly with the landfall near Cape Verde about the end of April. Other records inform us that the two vessels were separated in a storm. The little caravel *Berrio* continued on her way, arriving in Portugal July 10, 1499. Paulo da Gama was in a dying state. On arriving at the Cape Verde Islands, Vasco put his vessel in charge of another officer, and chartered a swift caravel, on which he conveyed the dying man to Terceira, which he barely lived to reach. The editor believes that Vasco da Gama reached Lisbon August 29, and made his triumphal entry in state September 8, 1499. Da Gama was munificently rewarded by his King, and married Catarina de Ataide after his return. He visited India again in 1502, and was sent out once more in 1524, in which year he died on Christmas day, at Cochin, in his sixty-fifth year. His remains are supposed to rest in the Church of Belem, having been sent to Portugal in 1538.

The volume is printed and illustrated in the excellent manner usual with the Hakluyt Society; all maps and comments which could throw any light on the text being carefully supplied and fully indexed.

Geschichte Siciliens im Alterthum. By Adolph Holm. 3 vols. Leipzig: Engelmann. 1870-1898.

In the first volume of this now completed work the author describes the land and the people of Sicily, and follows the history of the island down to the war with Athens; the second carries the narrative to the beginning of the First Punic War; and the third gives an account of the Punic Wars, of Sicily as a province in the Roman and the Byzantine empires, and finally of the conquest of the country by the Mohammedans—to 902 A. D. With Curtius's 'History of Greece' as a model, the author aims to present not simply a narrative of wars and of political struggles, but the development of the whole life of the people. That Holm is eminently qualified to speak on the subject of Greek civilization is attested both by his 'Griechische Geschichte' and by the part he has taken in the more recent 'Kulturgeschichte des Altertums'—both works of great merit. In the case of Sicily, his love for this special side of history finds ample scope, for it is above all the character and culture of the Sicilians which have made their country "the most interesting island in the Mediterranean." The material, too, for the study of culture, furnished especially by the coins and the ruins of temples, is far more abundant than the sources of institutional history. The point of view which Holm has taken is therefore well chosen. In this respect his history of Sicily is incomparably broader and more satisfactory than that of Freeman, who confined himself chiefly to politics.

Holm's theory of culture is opposed to that of the admirers of absolute monarchy: if literature and art are the products of the mind, they can flourish only where the mind is free; yet freedom is possible under some forms of monarchy or even of tyranny, as under Hieron. Another condition highly favorable to culture is alternation of periods of strife with periods of peace and rest; the mind needs both stimulus and leisure for bringing forth its finest products. "These are points which the student of Sicilian *Kulturgeschichte* must bear in mind. In no other country have the factors, strife and rest, despotism and freedom, exercised an influence at once so thorough and so appreciable."

The author has travelled in Sicily and has made a careful study of the topography. He appreciates, though hardly so well as Freeman, the influence of geographical conditions on the character of the people. The work contains a number of topographical plans, prepared on the basis of careful surveys, and a large colored map of the whole island. One of Holm's strongest points is his employment of numismatic material for historical purposes; he is perfectly at home in this field, and has made more use of coins than any other historian of Greece. His detailed history of Sicilian coinage, with the eight full-page plates of beautifully printed coins at the end of the third volume, will be recognized as a most valuable feature of the work.

In preparing this history the author has not neglected any available kind of information. The method he follows in the use of literary sources is well expressed in his 'Griechische Geschichte' (English translation, i., p. viii): "The investigation of original sources should no longer start, as has hitherto been generally the case, with the reconstruction of lost authors, but with a study of the peculiarities of the existing ones, which has been, comparatively speaking, neglected." Here is a reaction against that search for sources of sources which the Germans have carried to extremes. Though Holm's influence will no doubt help to correct a real abuse of a critical method, his own position is open to the charge of failing to distinguish between good and bad sources, of ignoring the fact that many so-called sources are mere opinions of opinions. In the interpretation of sources Holm has made, in the present work, substantial contributions to scholarship: volume ii. is a valuable commentary on books vi. and vii. of Thucydides, and volume iii. is indispensable to an appreciation of Cicero's "Ad Verrem." As to modern authorities, the notes indicate that the author has applied his German patience and faithfulness to the mastery of the almost limitless monographic literature on the subject. Freeman had little to do but use the material which Holm presents in volumes i. and ii. Though, through his abundant citation of authorities, Holm is more helpful than Freeman to the specialist, he has in mind the general reader, for whose sake he has put the notes at the end of the volumes. Failing sometimes to steer his way clear between the scholar and the public, he introduces into the text long controversies and catalogues of facts, in which the general reader can take little interest.

Judged by German standards, Holm's style is remarkable for simplicity and even grace—qualities which the translators of his 'Griechische Geschichte' have unfortunately failed to reproduce in English. He is interesting and suggestive, always giving the reader new points of view, and yet as sober in judgment as Freeman. The histories of Sicily by these two authors are, each in its own way, valuable: Freeman has enriched the subject with parallels and analogies drawn from his wide knowledge of universal history; Holm has brought to it good taste, rare classical scholarship, and a constructive ability inferior only to that of Grote among the modern historians of Greece.

Au Pays des Ba-Rotsi, Haut-Zambèze. Voyage d'exploration en Afrique par M. Alfred Bertrand. Ouvrage illustré de 105 gravures et de deux cartes. Paris: Hachette & Cie. 1898. 8vo, pp. 331.

The scene of Captain Bertrand's explorations was the valley of the upper Zambesi. Though numerous travellers have voyaged upon this part of the river since Livingstone led the way in 1851, few have gone far from its banks, so that the country about its headwaters is little known. Our author joined in 1895 a party of Englishmen who were bent on solving some of the geographical problems of this region as well as upon sport. His share of the considerable work accomplished by them was to trace to its source the Machili, a typical African river, a rushing torrent in the wet season, a succession of pools in the dry, finally flowing into a marsh which drains into the main stream. From this point he made his way by a hitherto untraversed route for several hundred miles across wooded ridges, between which ran similar streams, and over sparsely inhabited plains to Lialui, the capital of Barotseland. This is also the home of M. Coillard, a Swiss missionary who has labored for many years among the Marotse with signal success. An interesting account is given of the station life, and especially of the King, Lewanika, who is a fine specimen of an enlightened African chief.

Capt. Bertrand's homeward journey from this place was by canoe down the river to

the Victoria Falls, which he says may perhaps be less imposing, but are more picturesque than Niagara. He adds, however, that he is ignorant as to the impression they would have made in the rainy season when the river is at its height. The increase of travel into the remoter parts of Africa is shown by the fact that two expeditions led by white men were at the falls at the time of his visit, and another was in the neighborhood. Crossing the desert by the dreaded "thirst track," he passed through Buluwayo, which surprised him not only by its substantial buildings, including four churches, a hospital, three schools, four banks, and a covered market, but also by the perfect order which prevailed "by day and by night." This manifestation of respect for law leads him to the conviction that one of the principal causes of the success of the English in colonization is that "the best elements of the nation do not fear to expatriate themselves." Johannesburg presented the same appearance, under the more trying circumstances of the Jameson raid. "Though in open revolt," he writes in his diary on January 1, 1896, "an excellent order prevails in the streets, in which volunteer constables have replaced the regular police, who have been withdrawn." Capt. Bertrand's account of the events of that exciting week is interesting as that of an unprejudiced eye-witness, but calls for no special note. The same is true of the chapter upon Natal, through which he passed to the coast. We are inclined, however, to question the accuracy of his statement that Coerney, a railroad station "some hours distant" from Port Elizabeth, "is frequently visited by wild elephants."

Capt. Bertrand had no exciting adventures, and suffered only the hardships inseparable from African travel—heat, thirst, fever, loss of cattle, and the desertion of porters; consequently his journal is at times monotonous. He had not even the hostility of the natives to overcome; in large part, no doubt, because of his tactful treatment of them. Among the numerous descriptions of their appearance and customs the following are interesting for their contrast: "We encounter," he notes in his diary, "a band of Zambesians who are going to Kimberley, thin, mistrustful, and possessing nothing but calabashes hung on the end of a long stick." On another day they pass a company returning from the diamond mines. "Very picturesque in their accoutrements, a mixture of European and native clothes; each is armed with a gun, and they have an air of prosperity which is very pleasant to see." The Marotse, like all savages, treat their women as inferior beings, with one exception. "The elder sister of the King enjoys the same privileges as her brother; the same tribute is paid to her; she has the title of Queen and a separate house." It is a point of etiquette at the court of Lewanika that "when the King sneezes every one claps his hands." Notwithstanding much that seems bright in the life of these savages, M. Coillard is right when he says "they have never known happiness. Listen to their songs in the minor key; they are groans. Hear them say their heart is black—that is, *triste*." Numerous excellent and well-chosen illustrations add much to the value and attractive appearance of this volume.

Auprès du Foyer. Par C. Wagner. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1898.

M. Wagner has acquired fame as the author of a number of works enforcing in a dignified and impressive manner the virtues which help to make life livable. The most widely known of these works is 'Jeunesse,' which was crowned by the French Academy and has gone through nineteen editions. All of them have been translated into every modern language and have a strong educative value. M. Wagner is an Alsatian, which may account for what might be termed the Teutonic strain of strenuousness in his make-up and for some traits which he seems to share with writers like Henry Drummond. It must not be supposed, however, that there is any heaviness in his treatment of his topics. In the present work he treats lovingly and reverently of the family life and the home.

He writes impressively and convincingly of the art of making a happy home for one's children, of our duties to servants, to the poor, of adversity and prosperity, of hospitality, of industry and order, of a score of kindred subjects. He touches upon many practical matters, some of which are seldom discussed in books. For instance, he has something to say as to whether children should be helped at table before their parents, and as to letting the younger ones wear the clothes which their elders have outgrown. He has much love for children, and laments that many adults have so imperfect a knowledge of the child nature.

"Let us take the child seriously," he says. "Let us not make game of him or laugh at what moves him or astonishes him or revolts him. . . . We take ourselves seriously. We consider our affairs important and those of children puerile. But we deceive ourselves. Nobody is more serious than the child. . . . Neither the merchant in his counting-house, nor the judge pronouncing sentence, nor the meditative sage, nor the believer at prayers is more serious than he."

His views of the relations of husband and wife and of the relations of parents and children are more consonant with American than with European ideals. He believes in equality rather than in authority, and has more faith in mutual confidence, love, and respect than in a more or less brutal assertion of superior force, whether intellectual or physical. He does not, however, lapse into weak sentimentality. He dwells on the superiority of example over precept as an educative force. "The tone which reigns between the father and the mother," he says, "is destined to spread among the children. It will not be hard for them to respect a mother whom their father treats with all sorts of attention, and they will never be impudent to a father for whom their mother shows her respect."

From the chapter on servants it would appear that the great servant question is as overshadowing in France as it is here. "If you want a good cook or a good coachman," he says, "bear in mind that nobody is merely a cook or a coachman, but that there is also a human being in the case. Interest yourself in this being, who has the same motives, desires, feelings, burdens that you have. If you will do that, it will be for their good and for yours. If you say to yourself, 'As long as they do their work I don't care for the rest,' do you not see that the corresponding thought of the servants will be, 'As long as they pay me I don't care for the rest'?"

M. Wagner has shrewd remarks on many commonplace themes, as when he says that in many families good humor is exclusively an article of export. He believes that the children of the well-to-do should mingle in schools with those of the poorer classes, and is very much opposed to boarding-schools. In his liberal views concerning the propriety of allowing young people of both sexes to associate freely, he is also more American than French. Unless his countrymen regard his opinions as eccentric, which, considering the popularity of his books, is not likely, one is led to infer that the current assumptions in regard to French social manners, customs, and practices are in some need of rectification. At all events, 'Auprès du Foyer' is a book capable of affording the reader instruction and entertainment.

Creation Records Discovered in Egypt: Studies in the Book of the Dead. By George St. Clair. London: David Nutt. 1898. 8vo. Pp. xii, 492.

Seven years ago Mr. St. Clair published a very creditable volume on 'Buried Cities and Bible Countries,' which embodied some of the material that he had gathered and used as a lecturer for the Palestine Exploration Fund. The results were carefully stated, and the book was a very fair compilation of the facts which were of popular interest. One looks through the pages of that book in vain to find the evidence of "crank"-iness or of hare-brained conjecture and far-fetched hypothesis. The author appears perfectly sane and quite in his right mind.

In the preface to the present volume the author presents his claim to an equal degree of sanity. But coupled with it are other claims which cause grave misgiving in the mind of the reader. He contends that "the myths of Egypt are all related to one another, and are neither separate fables nor idle fancies"; that "they reveal an astro-religious system, and tell a true story of astronomical progress, calendar correction, and theological changes, before the times of our written histories"; and that "an era not far removed from the traditional date of creation was an important era in this history, but was not the beginning. The narratives of Creation, Fall of Angels, Fall of Man, Evil Serpent, Flood, Babel, etc., appear in these records in their first and true meaning, and it is seen on what grounds the Egyptians believed in a Future Life."

All these theses are based upon the undoubted fact that the Egyptians possessed a considerable knowledge of astronomy, but the disasters which have befallen the theories of Piazzi Smyth should stand as a constant warning against wild theorizing upon any such basis. There can be no doubt that Mr. St. Clair has exhibited a wonderful facility in working out a long series of deductions from alleged facts, reminding one forcibly of the methods and results of the allegorical interpretation of Origen and his school. The author acknowledges that to claim to have found a "key to all mythologies" is to lay one's self open to the charge of folly, and to become a laughing-stock. But he immediately insists on his sanity; while, by implication, announcing that he is convinced that he has discovered the "key," and that "the study of mythology will henceforth be no uncertain inquiry," but "will proceed upon sure principles of interpretation."

To state the author's theory in other words, it is that, with advancing knowledge

of astronomy, the Egyptians were able to make their calendar approximate more and more closely to the exact measurement of the solar year. Their mythology advanced and changed in the same measure and degree; the gods taking on new attributes or sloughing off old, to accommodate themselves to new ideas and to changed facts. These things have been observed in the progress of religious thought in other lands and under stress of discoveries, but it is a bold novelty to assert such a theory about prehistoric occurrences. The trouble with the mythology of Egypt is that we know so little about it, and that it offers such an engaging scope for conjecture. Mr. St. Clair has had a broad and free field, and he has used it to the full. But the reader will find his pages filled with the most extraordinary claims and the most daring assumptions, while the band which holds the mass together is a series of conditionals and non-sequiturs. These cause one to alternate between emotions of rapt admiration for the writer's audacity, and disgust at the violence done to his premises by the statement of his conclusions.

An interesting illustration of the author's method is found in connection with his exposition of the myth of Osiris. At first Ra, the sun-god, ruled supreme, representing the year of 360 days. After a time he was displaced by Osiris, representing the year of 364 days. But in course of time even the longer year was discovered to be untrue also, and it had to be displaced. Then Typhon or Set did for Osiris what astronomical progress had done for the short year—put him out of the way by killing him in his twenty-eighth year, and cutting him into fourteen pieces. Each of these figures is discovered to have a mystic significance, but they are not essential here. Isis, Osiris's wife, makes search for the *disjecta membra* of her spouse, and at last discovers thirteen of them, but the fourteenth, which had been devoured by an oxyrhynchus, and which was represented by a wooden cubit, is declared to be the extra day needed to make the approximately correct year of 365 days! What could be more beautiful? It must be admitted that the theory is wonderful in spite of the strain it puts upon the reader's credulity.

A word may not be out of place in regard to the book's title. It promised much which would have been instructive. A compilation of Egyptian statements upon the subject of creation would be interesting, even if not as authoritative as an exposition by an expert. But behind such a title to discover such an absurd aggregation of crude statements and hardy assumptions, is to find one's self possessed of a stone instead of the proffered bread.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Word to Women. By "Madge." London: James Bowden; New York: M. F. Mansfield. 50c.
Barlow, Miss Jane. A Creel of Irish Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Beck, Louis J. New York's Chinatown. New York: Bohemia Publishing Co.
Carman, Bliss. By the Aurelian Wall, and Other Elegies. John Lane. $1.
Caskoden, Edwin. When Knighthood was in Flower, Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
Dabney, Julia P. Songs of Destiny, and Others. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Ellwanger, G. H. Meditations on Gout. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Forbes-Robertson, Frances. The Potentate. G. H. Richmond & Son.
Garnaud, A., and Isbister, N. G. Pitman's Practical French Grammar. London: Isaac Pitman & Sons.
Gilchrist, R. M. Willowbrake. London: Methuen & Co.
Hamilton, S. M. Writings of James Monroe. Vol. I., 1778-1794. Putnams.
Harkavy, Alexander. A Dictionary of the Yiddish Language. New York: The Author.
Hayford, J. F. A Text-Book of Geodetic Astronomy. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: John Wiley & Sons.
Henderson, Alice P. The Rainbow's End: Alaska. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Hoffman, Prof. F. S. The Sphere of Science. Putnams. $1.50.
Huc, M. Travels in Tartary, Thibet, and China during the Years 1844-5-6. 2 vols. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $2.
In Answer to Prayer. By Ian Maclaren and Others. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75c.
Irving, Laurence. Godefroi and Yolande. A Mediæval Play in One Act. John Lane. $1.25.
Kipling, Rudyard. Barrack-Room Ballads, Recessional, etc. [Lark Classics.] San Francisco: William Doxey. 50c.
Lahor, Jean. Les Quatrains d'Al-Ghazali. La Gloire du Néant. L'Illusion. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre.
Lavignac, Prof. Albert. The Music-Dramas of Richard Wagner. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Lloyd, H. D. Labor Copartnership. Harpers. $1.
Lyte, E. O. Elementary English. American Book Co. 35c.
Miles, Major-Gen. N. A. Military Europe. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.50.
O'Neil, Rev. J. Z. Jerome Savonarola. A Sketch. Boston: Marlier, Callanan & Co. $1.
Passages from the Correspondence and Other Papers of Rufus W. Griswold. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Reference Catalogue of Current Literature. 1898. 2 vols. London: J. Whitaker & Sons; New York: Publishers' Weekly.
Rhoscomyl, Owen. The Lady of Castell March. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Rule, Lucien V. The Shrine of Love, and Other Poems. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Shearman, T. G. Natural Taxation. New and enlarged ed. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Sombart, Prof. Werner. Socialism and the Social Movement in the 19th Century. Putnams. $1.25.
Steevens, G. W. Egypt in 1898. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Stephen, Leslie. Studies of a Biographer. 2 vols. Putnams. $4.
Thackeray, W. M. Sketch Books. [Biographical Edition.] Harpers. $1.75.
Thomson, John. Through China with a Camera. London: Constable & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Wallace, Prof. A. R. The Wonderful Century. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 8, 1898.

The Week.

The rage for "expansion" has received a setback during the past fortnight. The sad condition of our returning troops has raised this inquiry in the minds of those whom Mr. Lincoln called "the plain people": If we cannot administer affairs in our own territory better than Camps Alger, Thomas, Wikoff, and Black have been administered, how are we likely to administer the Philippine Islands, ten thousand miles away? If we cannot bring our heroes home from Cuba, four or five days distant, in better plight than those on the *Seneca*, the *Alleghany*, etc., what is likely to be the condition of sick and wounded men who must be three to five weeks on shipboard? Indeed, the fine outburst of imperialism that greeted us when the protocol with Spain was signed is much subdued. Evidence may be found in a series of interviews published by the *World* on the question, "What shall we do with the Philippines?" Ex-Senators Sherman and Edmunds, President Schurman of Cornell University, President Jordan of Stanford University, California, and a large number of equally eminent men, take decided grounds against annexation or retention of the Philippines, or any part thereof, except possibly a coaling-station. President Jordan delivered a powerful address against imperialism to the graduating class of his university, which has been published for general circulation by Mr. John J. Valentine. In this discourse President Jordan cites the treatment of the natives of Alaska since we acquired that country, and says that Russia has just as good cause to complain against us on their account as we had to complain against Spain for her treatment of the Cubans. If that is treason, make the most of it.

But what are we going to do with the Philippines? we are asked in a helpless manner. Even the Saratoga conference seemed to be rather downcast when confronted with that question. Gen. Patrick A. Collins of Boston has no difficulty in answering it. "If the Philippines are not fit for self-government," he says, "we do not want them; if they are, let them set up for themselves." That which confuses many minds is the idea that because our fleet in Asiatic waters annihilated the Spanish fleet, therefore we became charged with the duty of overlooking and giving good government to eight or ten millions of people who never asked our assistance, and most of whom never knew of our existence until they heard the sound of our guns. Now suppose that we were fitted by training to take good care of distant peoples (as our treatment of the Alaskan natives proves we are not), what obligation under heaven devolves upon us merely because we have knocked down, in a chance encounter, the Spanish defences of Manila? We say a chance encounter because we went to war for reasons in which the Philippines had no part. So far as the cause of the war is concerned, the Philippines had no more to do with it than the Canaries had. Some imperialists think that we ought to have taken the Canaries anyhow, if not the Balearic Islands. Spanish rule is admittedly bad in all those places, and is perhaps worse in Spain than anywhere else. Why not do our whole duty and introduce good government in Spain while we are reforming other countries than our own?

Insubordination is almost the worst of military faults, but it is the only resource against corrupt mismanagement. When the soldier undertakes to obey orders without question and without murmur, he does it on the understanding that his superiors will use their best judgment and honesty to secure the good of the service and the good of the country. But if a Secretary of War resorts to trickery and double-dealing, and imperils the army by favoritism and incompetence, the only remedy is insubordination. That is, if any officer in authority is to speak out at all, he must do an unmilitary thing, facing the consequences with his eyes open, for the sake of what he considers the larger demands of the public good. No one knows this better than Gen. Miles. He has deliberately made himself liable to court-martial. But he doubtless decided that it was better to be insubordinate than to allow Algerism to go unexposed. The Secretary is pained that such an unsoldierly thing should have been done. He should have reflected that the unsoldierly act by the General commanding was made necessary by the many unsoldierly acts of the Secretary of War.

A Washington dispatch says that Congress will be very reluctant to investigate the scandals in the War Department. The reason is that Congressmen themselves are a part of the scandal. They would have to investigate themselves. If Alger made improper appointments, he might turn on the investigating committee and ask, "Why did you urge them on me? Why did you demand regiments for incompetent commanders?" If dishonest contracts for ships or supplies are unearthed, the Secretary might be able to ask his cross-examiner, "Why did you demand these favors for constituents of yours?" But all this will not prevent an investigation. There must be one. Congress will not dare refuse it. And just here the Republican managers would do well to note that they are giving, or are in danger of giving, a very taking campaign cry to the Democrats. The New Hampshire Democrats have already called for a Democratic Congress to investigate the official blundering which led to the death of so many soldiers from neglect. A Democratic congressional convention in Pennsylvania has taken up the same cry. Here is the best chance of Democrats to get a partisan advantage out of the war. The only way to forestall it is for the Republican Administration to see to it that a thorough and unsparing investigation of Algerism in all its ramifications be set on foot at the earliest possible day.

Gov. Tanner of Illinois has not a world-wide reputation for wisdom, but there is a great deal of sense in what he says of the natural consequences of war. He is an old soldier, and he holds Gen. Sherman's definition of war to be correct: "War is destruction, war is death, war is hell." Of his company, Gov. Tanner says, 25 per cent. died of disease in the first three months of service in the civil war. Many persons still remember the frightful mortality on the banks of the Chickahominy and in the swamps of the Mississippi; but these ghastly recollections had no place in the thoughts of those who hurried our country into this war. They seemed to think, as Gov. Tanner says, that the invasion of Cuba was a pleasure excursion. They were utterly blind to the most obvious consequences of their haste. They were warned that the climate of Cuba was pestilential during the summer and autumn, and that this country was wholly unprepared to undertake military expeditions to foreign lands. They were told that, under the management of venal politicians, our Government was not qualified to carry on war with efficiency. These arguments were rejected with derision, and those who presented them vilified as traitors. To reason concerning the matter in Congress was like reasoning with a hurricane. Higher and higher rose the furious yell of the press for bloodshed, and lower and lower sank the courage of our statesmen. At last the barriers were swept away, and when the first Spanish blood was shed, the wretched writers for the sensational journals whooped triumphantly, "How do you like our war now?"

Gen. Pando's interview in Monday morning's papers shows him to be a

type of soldier too common in Spain —and in France, for that matter. He is a devout believer in the army and a deep despiser of men in civil life. The latter, these so-called statesmen—these *pékins*, as the French officers call their public men—do nothing but blunder, and prevent the army from saving and blessing the country. Gen. Pando is just now especially severe on Sagasta, to whom, he says, the United States ought to build a monument. But he would be just as severe on any other Spanish statesman. In fact, if we remember aright, it was only a little more than a year ago that Gen. Pando was in Spain denouncing Cánovas just as heartily. There is a fine impartiality and non-partisanship about these soldier-talkers; whoever the chief of state may happen to be, he is a numskull, and all that is left for the brave officers to do is to cry out, "Nous sommes trahis!" The doughty General promises to make things interesting for Sagasta when he gets home and takes the floor in the Cortes, of which he is a member. In other words, he proposes to do all he can to perpetuate the greatest curse under which Spain has rested all these years—the curse of military domination of the government.

The annual pension report of H. Clay Evans makes the amount paid out under the general pension laws $75,275,383, and under the act of June 27, 1890, $66,255,070. The inference seems irresistible that those who like this sort of thing should vote for, and those who dislike it against, the Republican party. Mr. Evans complains of a "lack of system" in some respects, but if his account of the result of the work of examining-boards is correct, there is too much system in others. The practice requires that medical examiners shall make not only a diagnosis, but a complete and accurate "pen picture" of the disability of the claimant; but doubts have arisen as to these reports, and to test the value of them the singular device was resorted to in one case of sending the claimant before four boards successively. Each board found unanimously; there was no minority report. One found no ratable disability, one found $8 worth per month, one $17 worth, and the fourth $24 worth. What disposition was made of the case is not stated, but we venture to say that a fifth would have made a new finding of some sort. "Doctors disagree" at Washington as well as elsewhere, and four boards are not better than one. We see the same thing in private life, and we do not see how the difficulty can be got over except by standing by the findings of a single board. The confusion was introduced by sending the case to four boards, not, as Mr. Evans suggests, because the doctors had passed a civil-service examination. Medical inquiries by Government boards into ratable disabilities are of little protection to the Government in any case, but they are all we have. The only way to root out the frauds in the pension business would be through publishing the lists, and having a judicial revision of the findings in every case. We notice that there are still surviving five "widows of the American Revolution." It appears, therefore, that a good pension system may easily last you a hundred and fifteen years. In 1980 we shall still have among us interesting relicts of the brave men who fought so well in 1865.

The present drift of things in the Republican party is most satisfactory to those who hope to see a good man elected Governor of New York in November. Nobody is talked of for the nomination except Black and Roosevelt, and Black is daily losing whatever strength he had at the outset. Of course, Payn and Aldridge are bound to do all they can for the man who appointed them, and the Commissioner of Prisons and some other State officials are zealously supporting Payn and Aldridge. But Black is infinitely worse off with their help than he would be without it. It is such appointments as theirs that have done most to disgust people with the Governor, and made Independents ready to vote for any decent Democrat rather than endorse Black's performances. As for the Roosevelt boom, it grows every day of its own accord, and practically all the Republican politicians, except those who are bound to Black by ties which decency will not allow them to sever, have already made up their minds that it would be a hopeless task to resist it. Most of them seem to have at last got the idea into their heads that the party could not afford to defy the Independent vote this year, as it would do if it should nominate Black or anybody else but Roosevelt. In this situation there is nothing for the Independents to do except fold their hands and await the nomination of Roosevelt, after which they will need no injunction to go in and do their best to make his majority overwhelming. We regret to see signs that some of them are uneasy over the fact that things seem coming their way without their being well at the front, and are trying to devise some plan to make what is apparently inevitable seem to be due to their initiative. There are even some who talk about holding an Independent State convention before the date set for the Republican convention, and nominating Roosevelt on their own hook. Nothing could be more unnecessary, ill-advised, and prejudicial to the ends which unselfish Independents have at heart.

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union have determined on getting the custom of christening vessels with wine abolished. They insist that the battleship *Illinois* shall be christened with water, and urge with a good deal of ingenuity that if Kentucky, "with her reputation," can christen a ship with water, Illinois ought to be able to bring about the reform without difficulty. It may be said that as these ships are national ships, State lines ought to be obliterated, and the matter actually will be decided by the Federal Government, for under the war power the President and Secretary of the Navy decide how battle-ships are to be christened. But there is nothing that we can see to prevent their taking a popular vote on it, just as the President asks for "expressions of opinion" about the Philippines. The view of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union seems based on the idea of local option, and there is a good deal of reason to think that the present Administration would not object to that feature, as it would tend to please everybody. But we do hope that whenever water is used it will be poured out of a pail or dipper, and not out of the container the name of which suggests necessarily either alcoholic stimulants or a medical prescription.

The opinion of Attorney-General Griggs concerning the payment of the tax on receipts given by express companies is so well reasoned as to be practically conclusive, and so the express companies have regarded it. The opinion was given in a case where the United States Government offered a package to an express company for transportation under a permanent contract with that company. The company objected to paying the stamp-tax on its receipt, holding that for the Government to exact it would be to impair the obligation of a contract. Mr. Griggs holds that the Government in making this contract was not acting in its capacity as sovereign, while it was acting in that capacity in laying the tax; and he points out that Congress is not explicitly prohibited from passing laws impairing the obligation of contracts. But, waiving these points, the Attorney-General says that taxes in general reduce the profits of contracts, and in that sense impair their obligation. But no court condemns taxes on this account, provided they are uniform. They may be ruinous, but they are not unlawful. If the express companies have contracts running a long time for the transportation of goods at specified rates, they cannot escape paying the stamp-tax. They will have to modify these contracts if they can, and make up their losses by increasing their other charges for transportation if they can. This stamp-tax is perhaps the most troublesome of all, and if any taxes are to be abolished, this might well be one of them.

The International High Commission at Quebec is supposed to be engaged in statesmanlike discussion of great questions, but there is a host of collateral commissions in attendance which have plain, ordinary business ends in view. There are delegations from various parts of the United States and from all sorts of interests, calling on our commissioners to see that no changes are made in the tariff that can reduce the profits of any protected industry in this country. The lumbermen are unwilling to have the duty on sawed lumber reduced, the fishing interests are shocked at the idea of opening the American markets to Canadian fish on any terms, and the agricultural interests are unwilling to tolerate the competition of the farmers of the Dominion. On the other hand, it must be said that there are delegations working for somewhat broader ends. The removal of the duty on wood-pulp and paper may be sought from selfish motives, but it is a desirable measure for the public because it is a step in the right direction. The most advanced ground is taken by the delegation sent by the Boston Chamber of Commerce, which favors a reciprocity treaty on broad lines. This delegation takes the bold position that the opening of Canadian markets to American manufacturers would more than compensate for the injury caused to Eastern agricultural interests by imports of Canadian produce. It is hard to make our people comprehend this doctrine, but if they would ask themselves whether if Canada were admitted to the Union the tariff wall should be maintained, and if not, why not, they would see that the Boston Chamber of Commerce has reason on its side. Few Yankees would assert that duties could be advantageously imposed by Massachusetts on the products of Maine, but, so far as economic results are concerned, Canada stands where Maine does. If we really want to buy and sell and get gain, we can do so with very little trouble and with an actual decrease of the expense of our government, by free trade with Canada. Unfortunately, it is not general opportunities to trade that appeal to governing bodies, but special interests anxious for exclusive privileges.

The destruction of the Mahdist army at Omdurman, and the capture both of that place and of Khartum, is one of the great triumphs of British arms and British policy in Egypt. It restores the upper Nile to Egyptian control. It disperses a brave but semi-barbarous enemy from a position that he deemed unassailable, and, finally, it avenges Gordon. The battle of Omdurman was a victory of mind over matter, a triumph of modern military science over blind but magnificent bravery, of English calculation and coolness over Saracen fanaticism and fury. In point of valor these Mahdists are true descendants of the Arabs who conquered Syria, Mesopotamia, Egypt, northern Africa, and Spain in the seventh and eighth centuries, and whose career was stopped by Charles Martel at Tours. They are inspired by the same Mohammedan fatalism and contempt of death. They have been taught by the Koran to despise civilization, and now civilization has met them in a fair field and annihilated them. The advantages possessed by Sir Herbert Kitchener over the Khalifa were not those of position, but of artillery, Maxim guns, and mathematics. While we cannot withhold admiration for the splendid courage of the Khalifa's Emirs, and the rank and file whom they led to their death, it must be said that their destruction was a necessity to human progress in the Nile valley. The English suffered heavy losses in the engagement, but they will probably never have to meet the Khalifa again. The road is now open to the Victoria Nyanza, and there is no reason why a noble civilization should not arise and flourish in the upper Nile valley, as it now flourishes under English tutelage in the land of the Pharaohs. Not the least of the benefits to the human race flowing from this victory will be the suppression of the slave trade of the Red Sea by cutting its main artery at Khartum.

It was not merely humanity that set the English expedition moving on Khartum. If a crusade in the name of humanity were all England sought, she had it ready to her hand in Armenia and in Crete, but thither she did not stir. The Nile expedition was rather a political move, of a very complicated character; and how grave the next steps may be, how serious the responsibilities necessarily assumed with the capture of Khartum, thoughtful Englishmen have been discussing in advance of Kitchener's foregone victory. Will the Government stop at Khartum, or will it push on to the Nile sources? If so, will it risk friction with the French over again at Fashoda, as on the Niger? Some are already talking of a detachment sent up the Nile to meet Major Macdonald, pushing on from Uganda, and so further the "Cape-to-Cairo" dream. Complications with Abyssinia would be very likely in such a case. Gordon's opinion was that Khartum should be the limit to the south, and that England's true policy was to leave Darfur and Kordofan (whither the Khalifa has now retreated) independent, while maintaining as friendly relations as possible with Abyssinia. All that England set out to do, according to the explanations of the Government, was to secure a stable frontier for Egypt—presumably at Khartum. Whether that frontier will not prove to be as steadily receding a line as the Indian frontier has been remains to be seen.

The Paris newspapers are in a tumultuous state on the subject of Dreyfus and Zola. Few of them have the hardihood to deny that Capt. Dreyfus is entitled to a new trial. When we consider the shocking nature of the crime charged against him—that of betraying his country and violating his military oath for money—and the cruel punishment inflicted upon him, the mere suspicion of his innocence is calculated to put thorns in the pillows of a whole nation. That this is the uneasy state of the French mind is proved by the comments of the press of all shades of political bias. "One of the documents being a forgery," says the *Débats*, "the whole series is invalidated. Revision is therefore obligatory." Unquestionably so. We cannot imagine a civilized country going to sleep with such a mystery as the Dreyfus case remaining unravelled. Nor will another secret trial be accepted as satisfactory. The confidence of the whole world in French military justice has been shaken. No future judgment on the Dreyfus case can stand unless the reasons which support it are made as clear as the charge itself.

No man comes off worse in this Dreyfus business than Brunetière. The apostle of scientific criticism and free inquiry, with a position of immense prestige and privilege, he has allied himself with the mob and lent his influence to the cause of base passion and insensate mania. It was not, perhaps, necessary for him to speak at all. He might have chosen, as other learned men did, to be silent in the face of the national madness. But he not only spoke out, and on the wrong side, he went out of his way to sneer at the writers and professors and scientists who risked their positions and their reputations for the sake of what they believed to be truth and justice. Even as late as August 19, less than two weeks before the last revelation of official infamy, Brunetière was out in a letter flouting "the exasperated vanity of a few 'intellectuals.'" ("Intellectuals" was the mocking name given the professional and literary men who spoke up for justice.) Now this was sheer apostasy, unforgivable desertion from the ranks of the men of light and leading. Brunetière might have differed with them, and differed sharply; but to impugn their honesty, to question their motives, to cover them with insults—this was to write himself down unworthy the brotherhood of enlightened men. It will be long before Brunetière's choice of the baser part is forgotten or forgiven. That he is now overwhelmed with confusion by the exposure of the rottenness of the proofs against Dreyfus may well be believed; but he was guilty of a grievous wrong in any case.

A PHILIPPINE CATECHISM.

Q. What is the chief argument for the retention by the United States of the Philippines? A. The value of the trade to be developed with these islands.

Q. Is there any way of calculating the comparative cost and profit of holding them as a colony? A. The cost can be got at by an estimate of the expenses of a military occupation.

Q. How? A. Every soldier receives about $200 a year in pay. His subsistence cannot be provided for less than $300; consequently, every soldier sent out to police the Philippines will cost at least $500 a year, and every thousand men will cost $500,000.

Q. Supposing, then, that the Philippines could be held by a thousand men, how much must there be in the way of trade, commerce, and industry to make the account balance? A. $5,000,000.

Q. Why do you say $5,000,000? A. Because $500,000 is 10 per cent. of that sum, and 10 per cent. is a very high rate of profit in any business. If a trade of $5,000,000 actually produced $500,000 every year, every trader would grow rich beyond the dreams of avarice.

Q. With a trade, then, of $5,000,000, we could afford to support a thousand troops in the Philippines? A. Hardly; because this leaves out of view the pay of the officers and all expenses for rent, wages of servants, transportation, and communication, to say nothing of the ordinary expenses of civil government.

Q. But for every 1,000 men you must have at least $5,000,000 of trade? A. Yes, and on that basis the profit is all consumed in the expense.

Q. What is the actual trade of the United States with the Philippines? A. Exports for the year ending June 30, 1897, $94,597; imports into the United States, $4,383,740.

Q. What is the population of the islands? A. About 8,000,000, mostly savages, given to crimes of violence and piracy.

Q. What estimate is made of the number of troops necessary to hold them? A. From 10,000 to 20,000 is the smallest number suggested by any good military authority.

Q. How much would it cost to keep that number of troops there? A. Ten thousand would cost $5,000,000. Twenty thousand would cost $10,000,000.

Q. Why do you call these low estimates? A. Because they make no account of the pay of the officers, rent, wages of servants, transportation, communication, and the expenses of civil government.

Q. Would there be any other expenses? A. There would be a large annual expense for a naval establishment.

Q. How large must this establishment be? A. The usual estimate is that it must be large enough to compare respectably with those of other nations in Asiatic waters.

Q. How large would that be? A. It is altogether impossible to say, because the partition of China is going on, and war may break out at any moment.

Q. Would $10,000,000 be a low estimate for the whole expense? A. A very low estimate.

Q. Show this. A. The regular army of the United States in 1897 consisted of 27,532 officers and men, and the appropriation for the support of this army for the year ending June 30, 1898, was $23,129,344.30. This had been about the amount of the annual appropriation for several years. This would show an expense of nearly $1,000 per annum for every man and officer, and on this basis a force of 20,000 for the Philippines would cost about $20,000,000 a year.

Q. Assuming the expense to be limited to $10,000,000, how much trade must there be to make it economically possible for the United States to hold the islands? A. $100,000,000.

Q. How much profit would there be to the people as a whole if such an expansion of trade could be effected? A. Not one cent.

Q. To whom would the profit go? A. The profit would go to those engaged in the trade, while the expense would fall upon the whole people in taxes.

Q. Upon whom has the expense hitherto fallen? A. Upon Spain.

Q. What prospect is there that our share of the trade of the Philippines will increase from $5,000,000 to $100,000,000? A. None whatever.

Q. Will not our military occupation and the substitution of our government for that of Spain give such a stimulus to trade and industry that there will be a phenomenal expansion? A. There is no reason to think so. The English government has been substituted for bad government throughout India, which has 250,000,000 inhabitants, and there has been no phenomenal expansion. The country is still a burden to England.

Q. What would you call a man who undertook to manage a property producing $500,000 a year profit, and to pay $10,000,000 a year for the chance of its turning out a good bargain? A. A born fool.

Q. What would you call a people who did the same thing, and taxed themselves to do it, in order that a few speculators might see what they could make out of it? A. They must be fools, too.

Q. Are the American people fools? A. Far from it.

Q. Then why do they countenance such projects? A. No one knows that they do. They have never had an opportunity to express themselves about it. They have not been consulted.

Q. Who have any interest in furthering the scheme? A. The speculators, who hope to make money out of it and saddle the expense on us.

Q. When it is said that a great "pressure" in favor of the project is brought to bear on the Administration, who brings it to bear? A. The speculators.

Q. Is there any other reason for holding the Philippines? A. The Jingoes want them held because, as long as we hold them, we must keep up a larger military and naval establishment.

Q. Of what use is that? A. It promotes war, and the Jingoes want as much war as possible.

Q. What makes more noise than a hundred sensible men? A. One Jingo.

Q. Would any other class profit? A. Congressmen, Senators, and other politicians would, through having more places at their disposal.

Q. If all that you say is true, why is it that expansion within the limits of the United States has always proved profitable? A. Because it has gone on without increased military expenditure.

Q. Under what circumstances will colonial expansion, accompanied by a military establishment, be profitable to the community as a whole? A. Only if the profits of the increased trade are greater than the expenditure. Otherwise the countries which have the trade without the burden will get all the profit there is in it.

OMENS FOR CURRENCY REFORM.

The most important and encouraging deliverance which has come from any State convention this year is found in the following resolution adopted by the Iowa Republicans on Thursday:

"The experience of the last two years has fully approved the gold-standard policy of the Republican party, as declared by the national convention of 1896. We recognize the necessity of comprehensive and enlightened monetary legislation. The monetary standard of this country and the commercial world is gold. The permanence of this standard must be assured by congressional legislation giving to it the value and vitality of public law. All other money must be kept at a parity with gold. Our money, like our institutions, should be maintained equal to the best in the world. On this plank we invite the support of all voters who desire honesty and stability in business affairs and an immediate and permanent settlement of the question of the standard of value."

In taking this action the Republican State convention only reasserted for the party as a whole the position which had already been assumed in the various congressional districts. All but one of the eleven district conventions have already been held, and, as they have spoken, there has been a steady progression to a stronger demand for the establishment of the gold standard in the laws of the United States. For example, the Ninth District Republicans the week before declared that "the improved agricultural, industrial, commercial, and financial condition of the country demonstrates the wisdom of Republican principles, as enunciated in the national platform of 1896, which we hereby reaffirm, and demand the retention of protection and the

present gold standard of value"; while the convention in the Fourth District adopted this resolution:

"We reaffirm our adherence to the declaration of principles made by the Republican party in its national convention in 1896. The experience of the past two years has fully approved the gold-standard policy of the Republican party as then declared. We appreciate the services of the independent voters of 1896 and 1897 who placed the honor of the country above party. We declare that experience has demonstrated that there can be but one monetary standard. We demand that the permanence of the present gold standard of value be assured by congressional legislation, and that all other money be kept at a parity with gold."

The press of the Republican party in Iowa has been practically unanimous in calling for the adoption of such resolutions as these, and in welcoming a campaign waged upon the line of the battle here laid down. The *Iowa State Register*, the chief organ, lately declared that it did not know of an Iowa Republican who was not in favor of that demand—"a demand that will make the gold standard 'the paramount issue' in this year's campaign; and this week's Republican State convention should voice that demand in a manner that can neither be misunderstood nor misconstrued."

We thus have the Republican party in a strongly Republican State in the very heart of the middle West making currency reform the great issue of the fall campaign, and assuring a propaganda in favor of such legislation in the next Congress—a State, too, in which only two years ago the Republican politicians were afraid of the silver issue, and sought refuge in equivocal declarations in favor of "true bimetallism." This is precisely the sort of deliverance which was needed, and it comes from precisely the right quarter to render it most effective. A Western President can throw the influence of his Administration for financial reform ten times as easily when he is responding to a pressure from his own section as when the pressure comes from the Atlantic seaboard.

Every one of the eleven Representatives from Iowa in the present House is a Republican; every one in the next House is likely to be. Most of the present members have been renominated, and several of them are men of force, experience, and influence with their party. The delegation will constitute a nucleus for effective work in bringing their Republican colleagues generally to the same position. The members from New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania will gladly follow their lead; and there are plenty of Representatives from Wisconsin, Minnesota, and other sound-money States in the West who will need no persuasion to join them.

The outlook for a forward step in the direction of permanent currency reform in the next Congress is, therefore, excellent—if the Republicans shall control the House to be elected in November. But it will not do to take it for granted that they "have a sure thing." They have not. We are glad to see that their managers frankly admit the necessity of hard work. The chairman of their congressional campaign committee has just served a second and impressive warning:

"It is not going to be an easy matter for the Republicans to regain control. With few exceptions during the last twenty years it has required very hard work to carry a majority of the districts. The Republican party is strong on national issues, such as the tariff and the money question, but local affairs are causing troubles in many States, and our people might as well know the truth now as to find it out later. It will stir them up. Take New York, for instance; Tammany is firmly intrenched, and the power and patronage of that great political machine are such that we shall have to be up and doing to save the districts now represented by Republicans. I think we shall win in a majority of the districts of the country, but it must be remembered that the margin of votes is slender in many of them."

A new and great peril has just been injected into the canvass. The revelations of official incompetence in the War Department in the treatment of the sick and wounded soldiers, not merely in Cuba, where people were ready to make excuses, but on the transports which brought the troops home, in the camp at Montauk Point, where they were landed, and in other camps throughout the country, where volunteers have sickened by the thousands without leaving their own country—these revelations have aroused public indignation, and provoked a demand for a thorough investigation which shall bring to punishment those responsible for the shocking abuses. The people are utterly disgusted with Algerism, and if the President should attempt to sustain it, there would be the gravest danger that his party would lose the next House.

The Independents who supported Mr. McKinley for the Presidency care nothing for the Republican party as an organization for the distribution of official patronage, but they realize that the Republican party offers at present not only the sole promise of relief from a most pernicious agitation for silver and "soft money," but also the sole hope of legislation in the next Congress which will render this relief permanent. They welcome the indications that another Republican House will do something for the cause which they have at heart, but they fear that the party will lose the chance to do it through the success of the opposition unless the McKinley Administration shall unload Algerism without delay.

AN EXPERT ON THE MACHINE.

The most important element in the politics of the greatest States in the Union is the machine which controls their government. The most puzzling problem that confronts the voters, who are nominally "sovereigns" but really subjects, is how to recover the power which they have lost. The first step towards the solution of this problem is to understand what the machine really is, how it is constructed, and what are the sources of its strength. No evil was ever abolished until the people had clearly perceived its character and had thus learned how most effectively to attack it. A great deal has been spoken and written about the machine, but it has been done almost entirely by amateurs. Many students of government have sought to analyze this tremendous force which has been developed in our politics, but they have been open to the charge of being "doctrinaires." What has been needed was a description by "a practical man" who "has been on the inside," and who "knows what he is talking about."

This long-felt want has now been met by John Wanamaker. He is no Mugwump; it was his boast, a few months ago, that he had never scratched a Republican ticket. He is no theorist or idealist; there is not a sharper business man in America. He is no ignorant outsider, making wild guesses; he understands the machine as well as he does either of his big stores. In a speech to the farmers at the Inter-State Exposition held at Harrisburg last week Mr. Wanamaker gave a description of the machine which, as the work of an able expert, deserves the attention of the nation. He announced that he "had taken great pains to accurately gather the facts," and no Quay man can impeach the substantial accuracy of his statements.

How, according to this unimpeachable authority, is the Republican machine built up? Its controller is Quay, who is United States Senator, and who as such has two votes—his own and his subservient colleague, Penrose's — with the great prestige and patronage incident thereto. There is a Republican State committee, "which in every part is subjugated to serve the personal interests of Senator Quay first and the party next, without respect to the will of the people." There are 30 Congressmen, with their secretaries, 60 persons, whose salaries aggregate $180,000 annually, and who are responsible to the machine for their respective districts. There are 419 officers and employees of the State Government, who receive in salaries $1,034,500 annually, "who are selected only because they are supposed to be able to deliver the votes of their districts to any one the Quay machine dictates," and who are all assessed by the bosses. There is a State Senate, with expenses last year of $169,604, whose "every officer, from President pro tem. down to page boys, is selected to do the machine's bidding"; and a House of Representatives, with 257 members, officers, and employees, drawing $468,302 last year, with "all the committees selected by the machine, and chairmaned by men who know no will but that of Senator Quay," so that thus "his ma-

chine absolutely controls all revenue and tax legislation." There are 4,149 county offices, "a majority of which are controlled by Senator Quay's machine," whose salaries amount to $5,000,000. There are, besides the thousands of trustees, other officials and employees of hospitals, State and private, State prisons, reformatories, State asylums, charitable homes, State colleges, normal schools, soldiers' orphans' schools, scientific institutes, and museums, "who are expected to support the machine, or the appropriations of their institutions will be endangered."

For an alliance with these State officials the federal Government contributes the incumbents of 8,122 post-offices with salaries amounting to $3,705,446, "most postmasters being the personal agents of the machine in their respective towns." There are also the Philadelphia mint, with 438 employees, who receive in yearly salaries $326,565; the office of the Collector of the Port, with 400 employees, who receive in salaries $454,000; the internal-revenue offices, with 281 employees, who receive in salaries $356,400; the United States Circuit and District Courts, with 41 employees, who receive in salaries $95,000; and the League Island navy-yard and State arsenals, with 585 employees, who receive in salaries $725,000—making a total of 14,705 officers and employees, who receive from the State and national Governments $7,609,911 annually.

"Money makes the mare go," and Mr. Wanamaker points out that, besides the amounts paid as salaries for State officers and legislators, the appropriation committee, "who are of Quay's personal selection," disburse $10,000,000 annually to schools, hospitals, penal institutions, etc.; and "the bold manipulation of these funds for the benefit of the machine has educated people to regard moneys received for these purposes as personal contributions from Senator Quay, in return for which they must render help to his machine." The machine is also supported by the combined capital of the brewers of the State, their thousands of employees, and the dependent patrons whom they control, and it is alleged to have been the money of the brewers that paid the large sums, during Superintendent of Mint Boyer's administration as State Treasurer, necessary to make good shortages which saved the machine when his cashier became a fugitive from justice. Another ally of the machine is the State Liquor League, whose members are in every city, town, hamlet, and cross-roads throughout the State, and who maintain a permanent State organization, having headquarters and representatives at Harrisburg during the sessions of the Legislature; they "are always for Senator Quay's machine, and form an important part of the machine's operations." A large number of the Common Pleas Judges are charged with using their license-granting power for the benefit of the machine, by rewarding those faithful to the cause of Quay and punishing those opposed to the machine. Another potent force is the hundreds of subservient newspapers who are recipients of machine favors, with their army of newsgatherers and correspondents, "who are forced to chloroform public sentiment and hide the iniquities of the machine."

But "the principal allies and partners of the machine," according to Mr. Wanamaker, have not yet been mentioned: they are the corporations. "The 15,000 national and State office-holders and the thousands of other officials connected with State institutions," he says, "form a small part of the whole number of obedient machine men who are constantly at the command of Senator Quay, the admitted boss of the machine; the corporation employees of the State who are controlled for Quay's use increase the number to the proportions of a vast army." Going into detail, he finds that the steam railroads employ 85,117 men, and the great street railways, which "have received valuable legislative concessions for nothing," 12,079; "that monopoly of monopolies," the Standard Oil, 3,000, "who are taught fidelity to Senator Quay"; the Bethlehem Iron Works, whose armor plates are sold to the Government for nearly double the contract price offered to foreign countries, "influence their employees to such an extent that it has been found difficult to get men to stand as anti-Quay delegates"; the thousands of workingmen of the Carnegie Iron Works "are marched to the polls under the supervision of superintendents and foremen, and voted for Quay candidates under penalty of losing their jobs"; while the great express companies, which furnish franks to machine followers, "one of which is bossed by Senator Platt," with their thousands of men, can be counted on for great service to the machine; and the telegraph companies, whose State officials can be found at the inner Quay councils, with the thousands of employees distributed at every important point throughout the State, and before whom a large share of all important news must pass, constitute "one of the most dangerous parts of the Quay machine."

Such is the machine—the "franchise-granting, legislation-selling, monopoly-fostering, corporation-protecting, taxation-increasing, liberty-destroying, and manhood-crushing machine," as Mr. Wanamaker calls it—which governs Pennsylvania. It is the most extraordinary form of government ever developed on earth.

LABOR LEGISLATION.

The State of Massachusetts has now maintained its Bureau of Labor Statistics for twenty-eight years. The reports of this bureau have generally contained information of value, and of recent years, as the labor-unions have become more aggressive, their proceedings have been chronicled by the authority of the State. What is called a "labor chronology" is now published, which gives in detail the discussions and demands of the unions, with some accounts of the strikes of laborers in which they have taken an interest. While it cannot be said that this chronicle is readable, it suggests some reflections as to the tendency of the trade-union movement which may not be unprofitable.

One of the most striking features of this movement, as here revealed, is the distinct recognition of the economic theories of the English Socialists. It is true that the orators of the trade-unions do not always feel quite at their ease in applying these theories. They assert them positively, but not very clearly. Nevertheless, it is evident that the theories have been explained to them and that they constitute their creed. Of course, the most important of these tenets is that which insists that laborers who do not join unions are enemies to labor in general. By their attitude they make it difficult for the unions to secure their demands, and are therefore treated as hostile. They have no right to work, according to the trade-union principles, unless they are willing to work according to the union rules. Hence it is entirely proper and laudable for union laborers to refuse to work with laborers who are not members, and to boycott all who tolerate or connive at violations of this principle. In the large cities, and in certain trades, the building trades especially, the power of the unions is very great, and they practically drive outside laborers from the field.

It is impossible to deny the right of men to refuse to work except on their own terms. A man must be allowed to choose his associates, and to withdraw from companionship which is not pleasing to him. It may be added that "boycotting," or refusing to deal with persons of whom we disapprove, although of doubtful legality when engaged in by a combination of people, is really practised by everybody. We all have our prejudices in favor of certain lines of conduct, and in our trading we yield to these prejudices. We do not regard merely the bargains that we are getting, but we pay some consideration to the methods by which those bargains are presented to us. Many people regard the conditions under which shop-girls do their work, and some even inquire into the conditions under which goods are produced. Just at present, for instance, there is much disposition in England to abstain from using the matches made by a certain concern, because some cases of phosphorus poisoning among its working-women have been brought to the attention of the public.

The propensity to discriminate in this manner is inveterate, and provided the unions abstain from violence and intimidation, the law cannot undertake to forbid them to exercise their preferences.

It is when the unions attempt to invoke the aid of Government in support of their ends that they subject themselves to condemnation. Government everywhere, and especially in this country, should carefully protect the right to labor. It is the cornerstone of human liberty. The demand for it gave the French Revolution its immense power. To put it mildly, the trade-unions ignore this right. They say that a laborer outside of the union is at perfect liberty to get work, if he can. They will not work with him, but if he can find anybody who will, he may. This is obviously not a very satisfactory solution of the labor problem, except from the trade-union point of view. It is not satisfactory to the general public, and it is still less so to the laborers of inferior caste. Progress has consisted, as Maine said, in passing from the régime of status to that of free contract. The trade-unions are doing their best to reverse this process.

Their error becomes conspicuous when we consider that the courts have been compelled to declare a very large part of the legislation procured by them unconstitutional. In almost every case this legislation was calculated to give exclusive privileges to union laborers. It practically forbade the employment of non-union laborers in the service of the Government. This intention is openly avowed by the trade-unions. In the "Chronology" which is before us, the demand continually recurs for the undertaking of various forms of business by municipal and other governing bodies, on condition of "union labor" being employed. So, too, we find coupled with this demand one for shorter hours and higher pay in public employment than elsewhere. Owing to the decisions of the courts, many of these demands are now more guardedly stated, but they point steadily to the exclusion from governmental service of all laborers who are outside of the unions, or who decline to coöperate with them. It is needless to say that such exclusion is contrary to the principles of popular government. If carried out, it would restore the mediæval system of guilds, which involved a caste of laborers who were not free men.

It must be admitted that the Massachusetts trade-unions are demanding nothing more than their employers have long demanded and obtained. They claim only what is involved in the claim of any manufacturer who insists on a bounty or protective duty. He will assure you that his industry is of importance to the community, and should be "encouraged" by a privilege. To the charge that it is an exclusive privilege, he replies, as the trade-unionists reply, that any citizen may share the governmental favors. It is probably quite as easy for a laborer to join a union as for a capitalist to establish a manufacture, and if the principle of bounties is admitted, its application can be indefinitely extended. But as no one has ever proved that the remuneration of capital in general is increased by the payment of bounties to particular capitalists, so no one will prove that laborers as a class get higher wages because certain combinations of laborers succeed in getting them. Some one has to pay the abnormally high prices of protected goods, and some one has to pay the abnormally high wages of privileged trade-unions. Eventually, perhaps, both truths may become evident to our people, but at present it is only fair to say that it does not lie in the mouth of any capitalist who obtains legislative favor to denounce the laborer who tries to obtain the same thing.

DREYFUS AND NO END.

If unsettled questions have no pity for the repose of nations, it is certain that questions wrongly settled have none. For four years France has been protesting that the Dreyfus case was for ever settled. It was *chose jugée*. Not only could it not be reopened, but no one must even speak of reopening it. Any man suggesting that Dreyfus, whether really guilty or not, was illegally convicted and was entitled to a new trial, has found life in France almost intolerable. If a military man, he was subject to degradation and challenged to fight duels. If a civil servant, he was deprived of office and covered with insults. If a private citizen, he was ostracized or mobbed. Eminent professors have been suspended, poets silenced, editors muzzled; the courts have been deaf to appeals for justice; a veritable reign of terror has spread over all France—and all in the frenzied effort to prevent the Dreyfus case from being reopened. But here it is again clamoring to heaven for a rehearing.

The sequence of events leading up to these latest sensations with which France is convulsed, is worth noting. It all grew out of the blundering but honest attempt of the new Minister of War, M. Cavaignac, to allay the agitation which would not be allayed. He made a statement in the Chamber on July 7. It was the speech of a bluff but rather obtuse man. He assured the country on his honor that Dreyfus was guilty; otherwise he, honest Cavaignac, would not remain a day a member of a government persisting in injustice. This was all very well, and the Minister was undoubtedly sincere. But in an unlucky moment he proceeded to give his reasons for believing in the guilt of Dreyfus. Doing what all preceding Ministers of War had been astute enough to avoid, he read to the Chamber and the country the evidence which, in his mind, was ample to convict Dreyfus. Great was the enthuiasm over Cavaignac's speech. It was ordered placarded in all parts of the republic. At last it was settled; no one could doubt longer; the *chose* was for ever *jugée*.

But even from the first some of the most furious anti-Dreyfusites thought a blunder had been made. This thing of giving out secret documents was dangerous. Where would it end? It was much better to follow the old plan—roundly assert the man guilty, and refuse to give a glimmering of the testimony, falling back all the while on the fierce demand, "Do you mean to insinuate that the court-martial, made up of such distinguished officers, condemned an innocent man? Is that your opinion of the honor of the French army? Why, you are no better than a German!" And it must be said that the fears of these advocates of pronouncing and sticking to a sentence without stating reasons for it were speedily justified. Within two days the storm broke on poor Cavaignac's head. First came the open letter of Col. Picquart to the Prime Minister, M. Brisson, offering to prove in any court that two of the letters read by Cavaignac had nothing to do with the Dreyfus case, and that the third "has all the marks of a forgery." Then came Dreyfus's counsel, Maître Demange, to assert publicly that, whether the letters were authentic or not, they were not produced at the original trial, and therefore the accused man had never even heard of the evidence upon which it was now declared he was condemned. Here was the case reopened with a vengeance. Honest Cavaignac could not rest until he had set on foot the investigations which led up on Wednesday week to the extraordinary confession of Col. Henry that he had himself forged the letter supposed to be so fatal to Dreyfus. The forger had the grace to cut his throat later.

The deepest impression one gets from the whole shameful business is that it is an awful comment on the "honor" of the army. It was to preserve the army spotless and free even from suspicion that France had consented to the disgrace of repeatedly denying justice to Dreyfus. The army was placed far above justice. Instead of the old motto, "Let justice be done though the heavens fall," the French people were saying, "Let the army remain unsuspected though justice fall." Especially must the honor of army officers be stainless. Where was the certainty of a victory over Germany, when the time came, if it could be supposed that high officers of the French army were capable of a dishonorable action? Well, here is a high officer of the French army, Chief of the Intelligence Department of the General Staff,

confessing an act of the blackest dishonor. We say nothing now of the many rumors that his superior officers were also implicated. Col. Henry alone shows what France was leaning upon when she staked everything upon the superior "honor" of the army. To have strangled justice, suppressed freedom of speech, exiled or insulted her noblest—and to have done it to preserve stainless an honor which was all the while covering itself with pitch! No wonder that the French people are filled with dismay at the position they now occupy in the eyes of the world.

Courts martial have erred before the one which condemned Dreyfus. Army officers are picked men, but they are not removed from human passion and fallibility. Witness our own court that condemned Gen. Fitz-John Porter. The injustice he suffered, and which it took such long years to right, might almost be set alongside the Dreyfus case. There was the same dogged assertion of *res adjudicata*, the same question whether you thought honorable officers could have condemned a brother-officer unjustly, the same unwillingness to produce or examine the evidence. But what added fuel to the flame in France was the desire for revenge on Germany which pervades all classes, and which was presumably stronger in the army than elsewhere. Now a deliberate cherishing of revenge is inconsistent with the finer sentiments of honor—even, in the end, as we now see, of military honor. It perverts not only the judgment, but morals. Everything must give way to the preparation for revenge, and, if truth and justice make a difficulty, they must give way, too. This is the most solemn warning which France presents to the civilized world to-day. A cultured people furiously clutching a sword, and then finding it broken in its hand—there is the vengeful military spirit, when it is finished, bringing forth moral death.

SOCIAL TRANSFORMATIONS IN ENGLAND.

KESWICK, August 26, 1898.

No one who visits England at long intervals can help being struck by the rapidity of the social, if not of the political, changes which go on in it. They seem to me, changeful as our society in America is usually considered, much more rapid and more far-reaching than any which we experience. In fact, I venture to say that a person who came back to America after an absence of twenty years would find vastly less to puzzle or surprise him than a person who, after a similar period, came back to England.

The foremost and most conspicuous of all these changes is one which Mr. George Russell styles, in his recent book, the "social equalization." It would be a mistake to ascribe this wholly, or in the main, to any modification of ideas in the democratic direction. Of course the extension of the suffrage in 1867 has had much to do with it, but its principal causes are economical. That very select class which Miss Austen wrote so much about, the "county families," which ruled England fifty years ago, and not only sternly refused admission to "trade," but made "trade" its principal subject of ridicule and contempt, has grown very poor, partly because, in the seventies, it was so rich. Things were so prosperous with the land at that time that rents, settlements, allowances to younger sons and daughters, went up with a bound. Houses and establishments were enlarged, hunters multiplied, a "little shooting" became more and more necessary to a young man's year. Country-house life was probably never so attractive and hospitable as between 1870 and 1880.

Then came not only the American competition, but the competition of nearly all the waste places of the earth. The compound cylinder struck a frightful blow at the landholder in all the old countries. Wheat, and all produce that would bear carriage, went down with a rush. Rents were reduced by one-half, or nearly one-half—fully 40 per cent.—or else the farm came back on the landlord's hands. The landed class found itself face to face with liabilities contracted when incomes were twice as large, and the liabilities remained unchanged, no matter what became of the incomes. Retrenchment has since then been the order of the day. Country houses have been shut up, or the owners have gone to live in one wing or in the gatehouse, or the whole premises have been let to Americans or to "people in trade." In Scotland, the old gentry have been able to fall back on letting their "deer forests," or moors, to the sportsmen from America or the great towns. But the English had no such resource. They had no moors but their paternal acres, in which there was, of course, some sport, but very moderate sport. The result of this has been the spread of a sort of social desolation through a very large part of England. As you travel through the country, you see one stately house after another shut up or let, and hear that the owner is hiding his poverty on the Continent, or living at some watering-place on the rent of his place. I passed, the other day, through one of the most fertile and prosperous counties in England, and found that the country houses were nearly all hired at low rents by Liverpool merchants. The owner of one of the most "historic" of manors, the lineal inheritor of a great name, was nestling, with a small income, "in the Prince of Wales's set," that paradise of would-be "smart" Americans.

All this, of course, accounts in some degree for the decline of the old aristocracy, but only in some degree. Say what we will about birth, and "long descent," and "broad acres," they cannot hold their own without money—that is, cash. The county families have had their fall broken. The bitter cup of social equalization has been made palatable by the energy with which the old "middle class" has made haste to meet them. The rise of this class in affluence through commerce and manufactures has been just as remarkable as the decline of the landholding class through the fall in agricultural produce. The "millionaires" are nearly as numerous in England as with us, and exhibit almost the same characteristics. They have generally begun like ours, as "poor boys," but not so often in hardware stores. Of course, this is more of a disadvantage here than it would be in America. As soon as they appear on the scene as aristocrats and statesmen, they find themselves in company with men who have been educated at the public schools and universities, and have more or less general cultivation, and are already in possession of the Government; and the constituencies are still under the influence of the tradition which gives high places to "gentlemen." For these disadvantages, the millionaire here seeks to make up by lavish donations to the funds of one or other of the political parties, and he gets his return, not, as with us, in the shape of a foreign mission or senatorship, but in a knighthood or baronetcy. A knighthood or baronetcy is not, nowadays, a great honor. There are too many knights and baronets to make it a distinction. People are not much overawed by hearing that Lipton, the tea man, is now Sir Thomas, or Maple, the furniture man, is now Sir Blundell. But it lifts him out of the ranks of his former associates. It sends his wife in to dinner before them, and, most important of all, it makes her a "Lady." In common parlance, in a shop, for instance, she is known by the same title as the wife of an Earl or Marquis—that is, she is "Lady Lipton" or "Lady Maple," and the wife of Lord Salisbury is only "Lady Salisbury." So the wives of these great men are very eager to have their husbands "Sirs." The title is easily had, by a liberal giver, and there is so much of it now that it is bestowed almost contemptuously.

You can hardly understand the value put on it by the middle class unless you live in England, and see how this class is gradually supplanting the old land-owning class in the enjoyment of the good things of the world. In Scotland every pretty hillside is adorned with the "castle" of a tea man or an iron man, or a cotton or borax man. He is shooting on most of the moors. He is dreadfully particular about strangers disturbing his deer, and has great contempt for the tourist who does not go to Scotland to fish or kill game. He adopts as well as he can the manners and slang of the upper class. He too often drops his h's, but he also "drops" money so plentifully in invitations that this defect is more and more overlooked by people to whom, thirty years ago, it would have been social damnation. The old upper class has become very indulgent to rich men. Then, the millionaire lends money freely to all impoverished owners of great names, in return for invitations and "introductions to society." I have heard of many cases in which he pays the cost of balls at their houses, in return for the presence of some of his own friends. And then, he is even more interested in the royal family, and more concerned about its welfare than they are. He has, too, gone over, bag and baggage, not only to the Conservative party, but to the Ritualists. There is no cause so potent for the strength of the Conservative party to-day as the succumbing of the middle class to the social influence which the Conservatives have cunningly brought to bear on them during the last twenty years. There could not have been a better device, as I wrote to you a year ago, than the "Primrose League" for winning Radicals over to Conservatism, for it seems to open the way for social contact with "smart people" to the commercial classes. Forty years ago this was well-nigh impossible. The Tories were surrounded with a social fence, against which the Liberals, and especially the Nonconformists,

thundered vainly. There was no use in turning Tory for social purposes. The Liberal could not get into the charmed circle if he was in trade. But now that the fence has been pulled down, "all are welcome."

Nonconformity is not the old Liberal force it used to be. Its interest in public affairs has grown languid; its interest in sport and athletics has greatly increased. "The second horse," as an Archbishop has wittily remarked, "always stops at the church [Episcopal] door." Part of this, undoubtedly, is due, as I learn from the published complaints, to the weakening of religious faith, but fully as much, I am convinced, to the increasing ease with which moneyed men and their families can become "swells." I have no doubt that, but for this increasing ease, Mr. Chamberlain, for instance, would still be a plain Birmingham Unitarian, thundering against aristocracy instead of associating with "English gentlemen" and "taking tea with Duchesses." This accounts, too, in part, for the great strides made in the Established Church by Ritualism, which has now overspread the whole country, and is closely assimilating the church services to those of Catholicism. The minister has become a "priest." The service is "mass." Prayers for the dead are used and recommended. Auricular confession is widely enjoined and practised. There is much procession with crosses and banners and candles, and much cross-kissing. The priest more and more keeps the "holy eucharist" to himself. The prayer-book and the statute are more and more disregarded for the clergyman's own notions of what is effective. There is widespread popular agitation on the subject, and many scenes of violence and riot in the churches. There has been a fierce debate about the matter in Parliament, and a fiercer one is going on in the newspapers; all the leading ones being strongly anti-ritualistic. The bishops are called on to interfere, but, except one or two, they refuse to stir. Some openly favor the movement. Others, such as the Archbishop of York, return sharp, snubbing answers to Protestant appeals and remonstrances. What makes this the more important is that the High Church party hold that the bishops are the fountains of liturgical law, and that whatever can be "squeezed out of the bishops," as Canon Gore says, is clear gain. The explanation, probably, is that the bishops consider the Ritualists the hardest-working portion of the clergy, which they are, and have good reason to dread their seceding, if checked in their popish antics.

Moreover, they are firm friends of the present Government. It owed its success at the last election largely to their assistance, and it has repaid them by the Education Bill of two years ago, which gives them back the control of so many of the schools. The aristocracy, too, as a rule, are with the Ritualists, and this gives them the support of the newly enriched, and makes the opposition of the old Dissenters feeble. Fifty years ago their performances would have raised a storm that would have shaken England to its centre. There is much and growing opposition to-day, but it is comparatively feeble. Football and cricket excite more interest than auricular confession or prayers for the dead.

But the rich men are busy restoring churches and making donations. Hooley, the ridiculous company "promoter," has just "burst up," and has been "giving away" many needy aristocrats, to whom he says he gave large sums for serving on his boards of directors. He gave St. Paul's Cathedral a golden communion service, which it has kept so far, in spite of the exposure of his practices. In his heyday he bought estates which gave him the right of presentation to six livings, or, in other words, authorized him, a sort of English "Jim" Fisk, to choose pastors for six congregations. No wonder, in view of these things, that some of the Liberal wags have suggested that "Hooley, Hooley, Hooley" should be inscribed on the sacramental vessels. Nor is it wonderful, as good observers assure me, that the refusal of the bishops to interfere makes it pretty certain that the present agitation will result before long in disestablishment. England, in spite of everything, cannot be carried back to Rome by a parcel of young clergymen, for the laity, taken as a whole, is, when roused, bitterly opposed to Ritualism. As Jenny Geddes cried in St. Giles's in Edinburgh two and a half centuries ago, when she flung her stool at the parson, "They will not have the mass said at their lug [ear]."

Nothing gives a stronger impression of the loss of tenacity among the conservative upper class than their behavior about Gladstone. For at least ten years before his death all Tory England reviled him in terms usually applied to thieves and pickpockets. To avow yourself his friend excluded you from "smart" society. I remember vividly the (one might say) almost horror with which a court lady heard from me at a dinner-party about five years ago, that I admired him. The violence of language in which all the smart and would-be smart people, even ladies, indulged, with regard to him, was astounding. Elderly men wanted to hang him; elderly women expressed the hope which they felt every day that, on opening their paper, they would read of his death. Wherever you went on the Continent, you found twopenny Englishmen trying to show they belonged to "good society" by abusing Gladstone, the greatest English civilian of the century. At his death, the pride of the English people and their admiration for him burst forth in the most wonderful funeral demonstration ever seen at Westminster. It was probably the most extraordinary expression of popular love and reverence for a single man ever witnessed in England. Now you would expect that "the classes," who reviled him like a criminal during his lifetime, would have, through decent self-respect, at least kept away from his funeral, on seeing that the funeral was to be a popular display of admiration for the man and the statesman. But they did not; they were conspicuously there. I have heard of only one prominent Gladstone hater who left London in order not to make himself ridiculous as a mourner. They pronounced eulogies on his life and character in Parliament. Not only this, but they are now vying with each other in seeking places on committees and boards to get up memorials to him. The Duke of Westminster is the head of one such movement, although he, a few years ago, would not allow a fine portrait of Gladstone to hang in his dining-room, and *sold it*. What a light this throws, not only on the Tory attitude towards Gladstone when living, but on Tory character and self-respect now that he is dead. All the while that they were loading him with vituperation, and describing him to the people as a monster of selfish ambition, and heaping flowers on Disraeli's grave, every man of "light and leading" in England knew that the real Gladstone was just what he was described to be by Dr. Butler, the Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, in his funeral address before the Mayor and Corporation of Cambridge. No man fills a higher position in the moral and intellectual world in England than Dr. Butler. There are few men in that world who would not prefer to be "Master of Trinity" to filling any other place in church or state. And here is how he described Gladstone, in what I think the finest memorial address which his death called forth:

"My friends, we should speak the truth at all times, and not least now. I put it to you: Am I going a whit beyond the strictest truth in saying that, of all the great men among whom they are now laying the foremost man of our time, there is not one—not even the saintly Wilberforce—whom it is more natural to link in thought with the One Holy Presence, with 'the still small voice'? . . . Critics, friendly and unfriendly, might weigh the varied elements of his rare intellectual structure; its range, its subtlety, its mastery over men; but the verdict of multitudes and of nations has been rather this: He gave us many gifts; but the most precious and the most enduring was himself, his character. He lived and labored with God before his eyes. 'He had the fear of God before him, and made a conscience of what he did.' He loved righteousness and hated iniquity. His heart was with the poor and the wronged and the downtrodden, and dear was their blood in his sight. It is this conviction which at this hour draws us 'with the cords of a man' and makes us all of one mind." E. L. G.

MME. DARMESTETER'S RENAN.—III.

PARIS, August 20, 1898.

Renan was not excessively discouraged by his defeat at the elections of 1870. Though a Conservative was elected at Meaux, there was a marked Liberal tendency in the general elections. The Emperor called Émile Ollivier to the Cabinet. Renan was deceived by the plébiscite of the 8th of May, which proclaimed the satisfaction of seven millions and a half of Frenchmen. After seventeen years of opposition, he accepted Louis Napoleon hardly six months before his fall. In the month of July, 1870, he left France with his friend Jerome Napoleon for a journey in northern waters. Neither of them had the slightest apprehension of war. At Tromsöe, Norway, they learned that war had been declared between France and Prussia on the 19th of July. Renan returned immediately to France. The dream of his life had been a pacific federation of the united states of Europe under the leadership of France and Germany. He was an admirer of German culture. During the war, he wrote in favor of Alsace and Lorraine an eloquent letter to David Strauss, and tried to demonstrate that Germany would be wise in offering France conditions which would not prevent her becoming some day her ally. The true danger to civilization was the Slav, hostile to all liberalism. "Beware," said he, "lest France ally herself with the first tempter, and show endless complacency towards all Russian ambitions; lest she have one object left, a war of extermination against the Germanic race."

Renan's reflections during what Victor Hugo called "l'Année Terrible" are found in his 'Intellectual and Moral Reform,' which appeared almost immediately after the war; a work full of generous and noble thoughts on the possible reconstitution of France, on the education of democracy, on

the conditions of government, on universal suffrage, on decentralization. France paid little attention to the advice given her; the message of the new prophet was not heard in the tumult of conflicting passions. The message itself was too full of doubts, of hesitations; it had not the resolute accent of an Ezekiel. During the Commune, Renan could be seen walking in the beautiful gardens of Versailles, away from his favorite books, and left to himself. The genesis of the 'Philosophical Dialogues' is to be found in that period, though the book appeared only five years afterwards.

"We estimate," says Madame Darmesteter, "the violence of a tempest by the ruin it has made in its course. Let us compare these Dialogues, written in 1871, with the noble serenity of the 'Apostles' or of 'St. Paul,' published in 1869, and we shall perceive what a deep commotion was produced, in the thought of Renan, by the war and the Commune. His disenchantment embraced his own country and the country of the conqueror, and confounded in the same deception the two fundamental types of human society. For democracy, see what it comes to: an unchained Commune, shooting its hostages. And the feudal and military aristocracy of Germany—it despises the law of nations, burning the hut as well as the palace."

In the 'Dialogues' Renan tries to rise above all human miseries; he takes refuge in ideas. This is how Madame Darmesteter sums up his philosophical doctrine:

"(1.) God does not proceed through any particular wills.
"(2.) The universe marches to its ends by a sure instinct, and develops itself by an internal necessity.
"(3.) The Ideal is eternal; it exists; it is not yet materially realized; one day it will be conscious of itself.
"(4.) Participation in the mysterious work of the universe takes place through morals, science, art. All disinterested effort helps to preserve the small residuum of good which alone subsists. It is by the small morsel of ideal which we bring to this reserve of the eternal progress, that each of us lives for ever."

This doctrine of development (which he took from the German philosophy) has been somewhat modified in our time by Darwinism. Renan was, so to speak, a Darwinian before the letter. He very early embraced the theory of the survival of the fittest, and applied it to nations as well as to individuals. Though he was a liberal, he was intensely aristocratic, and believed only in the "happy few." The masses did not exist for him, except as the soil out of which were to grow individuals, the finest specimens of mankind. "What does it matter," he writes, "that millions of stupid beings who cover the planet should ignore the truth or should deny it, if the intelligent see it and adore it?" And in another place he says, "Think of converting to reason one after another the two billions of beings who people the earth! What an idea! The immense majority of human brains is refractory to even slightly elevated ideas."

Renan continued his 'Beginnings of Christianity' in the 'Antichrist.' He visited Italy in 1875 to study the ruins of the Rome of Nero. He writes in the preface:

"I will not conceal from you the fact that the love of history, the incomparable pleasure which is derived from the spectacle of the evolution of humanity, have peculiarly attracted me in this volume. I have had too much pleasure in making it to ask for any other recompense than to have made it. I have often reproached myself for taking so much pleasure in my library while my country is dying in a slow agony. But my conscience is tranquil."

Madame Darmesteter is quite right in saying that Renan's mind was the broadest of our time and the least passionate. It was incapable of passion; in his rare affirmations, he never forgot that, in all human affairs, there is always a side unseen. He saw all sides of an object with the rapidity of the cinematograph, and formed one image from a thousand images. This faculty is often pushed to extremes. Renan evidently goes too far when he imagines Saint Paul returning in his old age to the pagan doctrine of Epicurus. "We should like," he says, "to imagine Paul sceptical, after the storm, abandoned, betrayed by his people, alone, in the disenchantment of age; it would please us to have the scales falling a second time from his eyes, and our mild incredulity would have its revenge if the most dogmatic of men had died in sorrow, in despair (let us say rather in quiet, on some shore or road in Spain), saying also, 'Ergo erravi.'" Madame Darmesteter evidently does not like this dilettantism; she remarks that the 'Antichrist' was written under the influence of a journey to Rome, where Renan saw, in his mind's eye, the Rome of Paul and the Rome of Nero face to face. She reviews the last volumes of the 'Beginnings of Christianity'; she sees in the volume on Marcus Aurelius an image of Renan, who, like the Roman Emperor, ended in detaching moral beauty completely from any fixed theology. Marcus Aurelius was led to write his book by reading that of Epictetus; and it is probably from reading Marcus Aurelius that Renan was led to write his charming 'Souvenirs,' in which he undertook to enumerate all the good influences which had surrounded him from childhood. No book made so much impression in France since the 'Mémoires d'Outre-tombe' of Chateaubriand. It appeared in 1883, and soon afterwards Renan revisited the town of Tréguier; he chose a home in Brittany, near Lannion, the modest house of Rosmapamon, which his children continue to inhabit. The women of the country were taught to admire this great man—"they did not always know the reason why. 'He is a very great saint, sir,' said an old woman." The men glorified him chiefly as a Republican; they had not read the 'Intellecual and Moral Reform.'

After the charming, sentimental, and picturesque 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse' appeared the Study on Ecclesiastes, which Mme. Darmesteter pronounces the vademecum of disenchantment. "The author of Ecclesiastes," says Renan, "is the author of the book of Job, six hundred or seven hundred years old. The eloquent and terrible complaint of the old Hebrew book, the almost blasphemous objurgations of the old patriarch, have become the sadly resigned badinage of a worldly scholar." Cannot something of this sort be said of the 'Philosophical Dramas' written by Renan at various times, at Ischia, at Rosmapamon, and published together in 1888? The Dramas show us the gradual reconciliation of Renan to democracy. "At the time of the Commune," says Mme. Darmesteter, "our thinker did not covenant with Caliban; who would have thought that one day Renan would find him a very good Prince? . . . . He went over to Caliban, a brutal and vulgar champion of liberty and progress." The Dramas have the great defect of not being dramatic; they are, in fact, conversations on a variety of things. What shall we say of the 'Abbesse de Jouarre'? Renan was rather old to write about the passion of love. Mme. Darmesteter calls him a *Cupidon retardataire*. He was ill and suffering much from rheumatism, when he amused himself by going over subjects which belong peculiarly to youth. But his was essentially a many-sided mind; he was a sort of Montaigne—very *divers*, as was said in old French.

In finishing, I cannot sufficiently recommend Mme. Darmesteter's book. It is a very remarkable study of a very remarkable man.

Correspondence.

THE ENGLISH ATTITUDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The admitted beginning of an era of good feeling between England and the United States must indisputably be set down as one of the best results of the war. That cordial sympathy between the two nations has long existed below the occasionally ruffled surface, has not escaped competent observers. It is now clear that, during the dark days when the English Government looked coldly on the efforts to preserve the Union, the great bulk of the English people felt strongly for the Federal cause. The sister of one of the most distinguished of recent English men of letters remarked lately that the English had for a long time liked us—that it was we who seemed eager to provoke them; and it is doubtless true that, but for the supposed need of coddling the Irish by assuming a bellicose air towards England, the era of good feeling might have been ushered in under less suspicious auspices.

In so far as the increased sympathy between the two nations means a closer binding spiritually, intellectually, commercially, it is pure gain to civilization. The essential objects of both are best served by peace; the main interests of both are internal interests—the development of trade, the promotion of education, the diffusion of the means to comfort and happiness. But, unfortunately, however England may value these as her main ends, they cannot be her sole ends, as up to this time they have been ours. Through her colonies she is inextricably involved in the tangled web of European politics and society, and she is compelled, therefore, to be as ready for a military emergency as the most warlike Power in Europe.

In a sense, then, there is something inopportune in the unusual cordiality manifest on this side of the water. The problems arising from the disintegration of China threaten the world with a new and more serious Eastern question. The "open door" for which England contends is repugnant to the policy of the Continental governments, and for the moment Great Britain faces alone the combination at the head of which looms her dreaded enemy, the Muscovite. During the session of Parliament just closed, this spectre was constantly in evidence, and the Government has clearly at no time been free from the apprehension of trouble in the East.

I submit, therefore, that we cannot regard English approval of our conduct and English encouragement towards a policy of colonial expansion as quite disinterested. I have for some weeks relied wholly on English sources for my knowledge of American

events, and I confess that, while I have been delighted with their unstinted praise of our sailors and soldiers, I have been somewhat dismayed by their expectation that we shall appropriate all the Spanish colonial possessions. The wish is perhaps father to the thought; for the proximity of the Philippines to China is uncommonly suggestive. But since the excitement of unexpected opportunity opens to us a dangerous temptation, it behooves us to understand clearly the situation of those whose sympathy and approval may to a degree guide us. It ought to be made perfectly plain to the Jingoes in our own midst, as well as to the organs of public opinion in England, that we will take no step that is calculated to involve us in the complications of the Chinese question.

Anxious as I am to promote disinterested good feeling between ourselves and England, there is one point of which I would not have Americans lose sight. For the last fifty years or more every European nation has boasted a race mission. The English must spread the Anglo-Saxon gospel, the Germans the Teutonic, the Russian the Slavic. Each of them assumes its own unity and identifies its origin and its mission. Nothing could be more illogical than for us to become part of an Anglo-Saxon crusade, as was urged by an after-dinner speaker in my hearing a few weeks ago, unless, indeed, it be to become part of some other race crusade. It is with some such high-sounding title as this that an Anglo-American alliance would be proclaimed and justified. As a matter of fact, we are a nation, but not a race; we are the strange product of many mingled races. We represent, therefore, an idea that goes beyond race to humanity. Our devotion is to an idea; and we should violate irreparably our history and our theory, should we attempt to impose ourselves upon any of the more or less plastic peoples of the earth. Let us by all means aim to enlarge the interests which we share with England; let us continue to grow closer through trade, science, literature, art. But at the same time let us pursue exactly the same policy with other nations, to the end that, by influence and by example, we may become the main bulwark of peace and the arts of peace throughout Christendom.

ABRAHAM FLEXNER.

LONDON, August 19, 1898.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION IN PENNSYLVANIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit an old subscriber to say a word of protest against your diagnosis of the political situation in Pennsylvania contained in the *Nation* for August 25? No proof can be produced to support the assertion that Mr. Jenks is an ally of the Quay machine and was nominated through its influence. The platform was confined to State issues. The convention expressly refused to incorporate therein any endorsement of free silver or any affirmance of the Chicago platform. This course was taken in order to enable the Gold Democrats and other conservative citizens to vote for the nominees without compromising their position on the currency, the tariff, or other national issues not involved in the present campaign. Had the convention been controlled by Quay, it is clear, I think, that a different course would have been followed. At a conference of Gold Democrats from all parts of the State, including, I believe, a majority of the State committee of the Palmer and Buckner organization, this action of the Democratic State convention was accepted as satisfactory for the present juncture, and the nomination of Mr. Jenks was heartily endorsed. Among those who earnestly urged this course were such uncompromising anti-silver men as Mr. Hancock of Venango, Mr. Farquhar of York, and Mr. Bullitt of Philadelphia. I believe that a large majority of the Gold Democrats will vote for Mr. Jenks, and that they will be fully justified in doing so.

State issues are of paramount importance in this campaign. It should be the earnest desire of all good citizens to effect the overthrow of the corrupt Republican domination which has so long disgraced our State, and the crisis is accentuated by the circumstance that the political fate of the most odious and insolent political boss, the most offensive sample of the "one-man power" in politics, is involved in the contest. It seems to me that, with every good citizen, the only question should be, Which of the two opposing candidates has the more hopeful chance of "turning the rascals out"? As to personal fitness, between Mr. Jenks and Dr. Swallow, if training and experience go for anything, the preference should be given to the former; as to following, if we are to judge by facts and figures rather than by guesses and hopes, Mr. Jenks certainly has the advantage. He is the candidate of the Democratic party, and that party last year polled 242,000 votes as its minimum. It was then thoroughly discredited, suffering from the effects of its defeat in the Presidential contest, and it had furthermore handicapped itself by an express and defiant reaffirmation of the Chicago platform, so that it had completely alienated all the Gold Democrats —not merely those who did not vote for Bryan in 1896, but also a number, not inconsiderable, who did. At the same election Dr. Swallow received 118,000 votes, and if to this be added the 15,000 votes cast for Thompson, it gives a total independent vote of 133,000, which included the votes of an unknown quantity of the Gold Democrats. With these figures before us, it is difficult to understand how it can be disputed that Mr. Jenks has prima facie a much better standing than Dr. Swallow—better by upwards of 100,000 votes.

The only objection urged against Mr. Jenks is that he is a free-silver man and voted for Bryan, but I entirely fail to see how his views on the currency or any other national question are of the least consequence in the present issue; for with all such questions the Governor of a State has nothing to do. The question in Pennsylvania is simply one of common honesty. Are our officials to continue to be above the command, "Thou shalt not steal"?

Has not the *Nation* been insistent in urging good citizens not to allow their judgment in State and municipal elections to be warped or confused by party war cries about protection, sound currency, and other matters of national concern? Why, then, should it now contend, contrary to all its former teaching, that an honorable gentleman, whose integrity and capacity in public affairs have been proved, is unfit to be Governor of Pennsylvania because his views on the currency question may be unsound? Finally, is the *Nation* prepared to vouch for Dr. Swallow as a sound-money man? For whom did he vote in 1896?—Respectfully,

ROWLAND EVANS.

HAVERFORD, PA., August 29, 1898.

[The evidence which has been published that Quay desired the nomination of Mr. Jenks, because he considered him a weaker Democratic candidate than Judge Gordon, who was warmly favored by nearly all Independents, seems to us conclusive. While Mr. Jenks is "an honorable gentleman," those Independents most familiar with his character do not believe that he could be depended upon to oppose the Democratic allies of Quay who promoted his nomination. At best, Mr. Jenks seems but a respectable figurehead, while Dr. Swallow is a man of tremendous force; and one could only hope that Mr. Jenks, if elected, would not be subservient, while everybody knows that Dr. Swallow would be the unrelenting foe of the machine. The one supreme State issue in Pennsylvania is whether "Thou shalt not steal" shall be restored as the rule of government. We believe that, as election draws nearer, there will be a growing feeling that Dr. Swallow is the one candidate who represents the right side of this issue.—ED. NATION.]

POLITICS IN A WESTERN UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Board of Regents of the University of the State of Washington will probably have an exciting time at their next meeting, to be held September 14, some of the Regents having declared their intention of resigning if a certain measure, which was postponed for final action from their meeting of August 12, carries. Final action on this measure will probably determine the future relation to the University of a member of the Washington Legislature of 1893.

This legislator has been in very close touch with all the affairs of the University since that time, being, in the years 1894, 1895, and 1896, in his dual office of Secretary of the Board of Regents and Registrar of the Faculty (to say nothing of his duties as lecturer on Forestry and instructor in the History of the Northwest), practically the Board of Regents and Faculty of the University. If the Regents did anything, it was because he inspired them to action. If the Faculty did anything that did not appear to emanate from him and to be done because of him, it was because they were fortunate enough to be able to do it without his knowledge. The secret of this power was the fact that, as a member of the 1893 Legislature, he had been instrumental in securing for the University its first liberal appropriation ($39,000 for two years' total running expenses, and $125,000 for buildings and $25,000 for other improvements).

In the autumn of 1896 he again made the "run" for the Legislature, but was badly defeated. Although he was drawing a professor's salary from the University, he made the "run" on the ground that it was necessary that he be a member of the Legislature in order that the interests of the University should surely receive proper attention at the hands of the legislators, even going to the

extreme of issuing a circular to this effect, and mailing it to the voters of his district, which was the district in which the University was located.

The "Fusionists" determined to oust him from the most lucrative office he had ever held, and at the same time rid the University of him. Accordingly, when Rogers became Governor, he took a high-handed method to accomplish this result. His predecessor in office had appointed three Regents, whose appointments had not been confirmed by the Senate, and a fourth was about to resign to accept a Federal appointment under the McKinley Administration. Gov. Rogers withheld the appointments of his predecessor from the Senate of the 1897 Legislature, and consequently, when it adjourned, he had the appointing of four Regents. These he appointed in March, 1897, making a board with a Fusionist majority (five Fusionists and two Republicans). Since this time the University has had three different presidents, besides an acting president (Fusionist) on its pay-roll; twelve new members in a Faculty of twenty-two members, and at the same time a reduction of the number to twenty; four changes in the conditions for graduation, and various other minor experiences too numerous to mention. Between the first day of April, 1897, and the first day of April, 1898, the Governor appointed seven other Regents (upon three removals from office), making eleven appointments in a little over twelve months. Finally, in May, 1898, the board ousted the Professor of American History; but President number three, who was elected soon afterwards, has recommended that he be reinstated. This recommendation was postponed for final consideration till September 14. The indications are that four members will vote for the recommendation, and that others will have the privilege of carrying out their declared intention of resigning.

It is needless to say that students were graduated in May who had not completed their course in the regular way, that the attendance has fallen off, that there is general unrest in the Faculty and among the people of the State concerning the University. Is there not some way whereby we can take our educational affairs out of the hands of the politicians? W. F. E.

SAINTE-BEUVE ON FRENCH WEAKNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The shameful spectacle which France is offering to the world to-day is the natural outcome of a long process of self-adulation. France has never known herself as others knew her. With all her achievements in civilization, she has always lacked the faculty of self-criticism. *La grande nation* is first in the arts of war and peace, her honor is immaculate—such has been the burden of innumerable songs and patriotic speeches. Nearly half a century ago Sainte-Beuve deplored the tendency of his countrymen to glorify everything French, in a passage which will bear reprinting to-day. In an article on "Des Lectures Publiques du Soir," he wrote:

"Dans ces deux Cours je voudrais que, tout en insistant sur les beautés et sur les grandeurs de la littérature francaise et de l'histoire nationale, on se gardât bien de dire ce qui se dit et se répète partout, dans les Collèges et même dans les Académies, aux jours de solennité, que le peuple français est le plus grand et le plus sensé de tous les peuples, et notre littérature la première de toutes les littératures. Je voudrais qu'on se contentât de dire que c'est une des plus belles, et qu'on laissât entrevoir que le monde n'a pas commencé et ne finit pas à nous.

"Je voudrais qu'en disant nos belles qualités comme peuple, à des hommes qui en sont déjà assez pénétrés, on ajoutât, en le prouvant quelquefois par des exemples, que nous avons aussi quelques défauts; qu'en France ce qu'on a le plus, c'est l'essor et l'élan, que ce qui manque, c'est la consistance et le caractère; que cela a manqué à la noblesse autrefois et pourrait bien manquer au peuple aujourd'hui, et qu'il faut se prémunir de ce côté et se tenir sur ses gardes. En un mot, échauffer et entretenir le sentiment patriotique en l'éclairant, sans tomber dans le lieu commun national, qui est une autre sorte d'ignorance qui s'infatue et qui s'enivre, ce serait là l'esprit dont je voudrais voir animé cet humble et capital enseignment."

But it is idle to expect the voice of a Sainte-Beuve to be heeded in France to-day. Criticism of national follies by literary "pessimists" is just as much out of favor in France nowadays as it is in our own country.—Very truly yours, G. P.

Riseleys, N. Y., September 2, 1898.

Notes.

Macmillan Co.'s formidable list of autumn publications includes a new edition of McCarthy's Life of Gladstone; 'The Life and Letters of Archbishop Benson,' edited by his son; 'Cardinal Newman as Anglican and Catholic,' by Edmund Sheridan Purcell; Sidney Lee's Life of Shakspere, being his article in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' revised and expanded to nearly twice the original size; the first volume of a 'Popular History of France,' by the Hon. Thomas E. Watson; 'The United Kingdom,' a political history in two volumes, by Goldwin Smith; 'Home Life in Colonial Days,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'European History: An Outline of its Development,' by Prof. George B. Adams of Yale; 'A History of Greece for High Schools and Academies,' by George Willis Botsford of Harvard; 'The Sources of Greek History,' by Anna Boynton Thompson; 'A Source-Book of American History,' by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart; 'Japan,' by Mrs. Hugh Fraser, with illustrations; a wholly new edition of Prof. Charles H. Moore's 'Development and Character of Gothic Architecture'; Auguste Mau's 'Pompeii, Its Life and Art,' translated by Prof. Francis W. Kelsey; 'Philadelphia,' by Agnes Repplier, with many illustrations; 'The Philippine Islands and their People,' from personal observation, by Prof. Dean C. Worcester of the University of Michigan; 'Highways and Byways of North Wales,' by A. G. Bradley, with illustrations by Joseph Pennell and Hugh Thomson; 'English Literature, from the Beginning to the Norman Conquest,' by Stopford A. Brooke; 'From Chaucer to Arnold: Types of Literary Art,' by Andrew J. George; 'A Short History of English Literature,' by Prof. George Saintsbury; 'Chaucer's Prologue and the Knight's Tale,' edited by Prof. Mark H. Liddell of the University of Texas; 'Representative English Comedies,' in five volumes, under the general editorship of Prof. Charles Mills Gayley of the University of California; 'The New England Poets,' by William Cranston Lawton; 'Four-footed Americans and their Kin,' by Mabel Osgood Wright and Frank M. Chapman, with seventy-two illustrations by Ernest Seton Thompson; 'Instinct and Reason,' by Henry Rutgers Marshall; 'The Distribution of Wealth,' by Prof. John B. Clark of Columbia University; 'Rise and Growth of American Politics,' by Henry J. Ford; and 'The Evolution of Our Native Fruits,' by L. H. Bailey.

Fall announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'The Life of George Borrow,' by Prof. William I. Knapp of the University of Chicago; a revised and enlarged edition of 'The Life of John Paterson, Major-General in the Revolutionary Army,' by his great-grandson, Prof. Thomas Egleston; 'The Life of Henry Bradley Plant,' founder of the well-known Plant system of railroads and steamships, by G. Hutchinson Smyth, D.D.; 'Alfred Tennyson: His Homes, his Friends, and his Work,' by Elizabeth Luther Cary; 'The Romance of the House of Savoy, 1003-1519,' by Alethea Wiel; 'The Establishment of Spanish Rule in America,' by Prof. Bernard Moses; 'A History of the Dutch People,' from the Dutch of Prof. Petrus Johannes Blok, by Oscar A. Bierstadt and Ruth Putnam; and 'Historic Towns of New England,' edited by Lyman P. Powell, with many illustrations.

R. E. Fenno & Co. will publish 'The Fall of Santiago,' by Thomas J. Vivian; 'The Real Bismarck,' from the German of Jules Hoche, by Mrs. Charles R. Rogers; 'The Story of a Genius,' from the German of Ossip Schubin; a translation of Maurus Jokai's 'Golden Age of Transylvania'; 'Wedlock,' by John Strange Winter; and 'The Romance of a Midshipman,' by W. Clark Russell.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Essentials of Psychology,' by Colin S. Buell.

'The Land of the Long Night,' by Paul du Chaillu, is in the press of Drexel Biddle, Philadelphia.

The Werner Co., Akron, Ohio, announce 'The Story of America,' by Hezekiah Butterworth.

The Christian Literature Co., as we have already pointed out, is doing a good service in publishing an American edition of Max Müller's "Sacred Books of the East," and we notice the appearance of two more volumes. One of these relates more especially to India; it is the late lamented Bühler's translations under the title 'Sacred Laws of the Aryas.' The other belongs to Persia and Zoroaster, being Darmesteter's translation of the 'Avesta.'

Amid the diverse mass of literature on the subject of the Philippines which has appeared in the wake of conquest, to satisfy the curiosity of the newly aroused interest in those distant islands, 'Yesterdays in the Philippines,' by Joseph Earle Stevens (Scribners), is of sufficient merit to deserve a passing notice. Compiled, with the exception of a single chapter devoted to anti-annexation arguments, from the author's letters or journal, the book is of necessity an account of his daily life during his two years' sojourn in Manila, which occurred just prior to the present native rebellion, yet manages to give us a good idea of the city, its peoples and its ways; of the spots of natural interest in its near vicinity; and of some of the more remote islands of the archipelago. Mr. Stevens's powers of observation, sense of humor, and half-serious, half-jesting methods of description, relieve his narrative from the heaviness which is apt to attend a statement of facts; while a number of excellent photographs add greatly to the book's attractiveness. The author's

style, in spite of the absence of self-restraint pardonable in home letters, warrants expectation of excellent performance if Mr. Stevens should ever find another topic.

Mr. Richard Davey's 'Cuba, Past and Present' (Scribners) has no excuse for existence in book form except that frankly avowed in the preface—the momentary absorption of the world in the fate of the island. The book is of English make, the author an ex-journalist of this city, and his style quite wanting in literary distinction of any kind. Five chapters describe his commonplace personal observations in Cuba after emancipation, and he works in a chapter on Nassau, "An Isle of June—A Contrast." The rest is poor history. Altogether, 277 pages of fair type are thus amassed, and a few illustrations help out the illusion. To the credit side should be placed a good index and a clear map of the chief West Indian islands, the Bahamas, and the southern end of Florida.

Those who are interested in the drama, for example, and in the histrionic productions of other nations, will read with considerable interest the chapter on the drama of India, in Frazer's recent 'Literary History of India' (Scribners), which describes also the representation of a modern Hindu play founded on the stories of ancient Sanskrit literature. The book contains much general information regarding India, past and present, as viewed in its literature. Lyrical poetry, however, seems to have come tardy off.

The second volume of the 'Compendium of Geography and Travel (New Issue),' published in London by Edward Stanford, is on North America, and has been prepared by Mr. Henry Gannett of the United States Geological Survey. It is in all respects a very attractive volume to the eye, being provided with copious, fresh, and well-chosen illustrations in half-tone—topographical, ethnological, and picturesque—and especially with a series of maps, general and special, including geology, orography, rainfall, temperature, forests, coal-fields, population, race and nativity, territorial accessions, navigability of rivers, etc. The principal limitation of this survey is the necessity of enormous compression; but exception might also be taken to the arrangement of topics, *e. g.*, of Indians and Alaska in their respective places, and to the arbitrary collocation of the great cities in the chapter with that caption. Abstinence from prophesying would have suppressed the hope on p. 224 that the reign of Tammany is over in New York.

'The Publishers' Trade-List Annual' for 1898 (*Publishers' Weekly*) marks the twenty-sixth faggoting of the publishers' catalogues in a mammoth volume, supplied at a cost little in excess of the binding. Though primarily a trade instrument and help, it has endless guidance to impart to all book-buyers, supplying information not only as to the books actually in print, but as to editions, bindings, illustrations, price, etc.; thus enabling one to make a tolerably safe choice without personal inspection. Such information in the case of standard works is peculiarly convenient, and an old copy of the 'Annual' will long retain its value in this particular.

A third edition of Sievers's classic 'Angelsächsische Grammatik' has just been published (Halle: Niemeyer). Though not the complete revision which Prof. Sievers has long been preparing, the new edition is considerably enlarged and in many ways improved. The phonology has been in part recast, and, throughout, the dialects have been treated in much greater detail. In this latter regard, the distinguished author acknowledges especially his obligations to four scholars, two of whom are Americans—Prof. Cook of Yale (for Northumbrian) and Prof. Brown of Cincinnati (for Mercian).

Lemcke & Buechner send us the second, revised edition of Justus Perthes's 'Deutscher Marine-Atlas,' a thin volume showing in five charts the German navy's foreign stations; the German coast line and its defences, with a side-map of the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal; the German protectorates; and Germany's foothold in Eastern Asia. These fresh and authoritative delineations are preceded by statistics respecting the imperial navy at home and abroad, with a chronicle of its doings 1872-1897, the text of the Fleet law of 1898, and other valuable matter.

We are glad to learn from a circular that the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* is now sufficiently prosperous to dispense with what we may call its preferred class of subscribers at five dollars, and to ask but two dollars from all alike. This periodical is one of the few wholly original American ventures of recent years, and was so wisely conceived that it has undergone scarcely any change of scheme or scope. Its typography is beautiful, and its contents must appeal to every alumnus with irresistible force as binding his past to the present, and as revealing every quarter the vast proportions of the intellectual machinery known as the University.

Rockall, an isolated rock in the north Atlantic about 160 miles west of the Hebrides, is described exhaustively by Miller Christy, F.L.S., in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for August. At its base it has a circumference of about 250 feet, and its "summit (which is more or less pointed, and is always whitened by the dung of sea-birds) rises to a height of about seventy feet above the surface of the water. Its western face is absolutely perpendicular, and all its other sides are almost precipitous." This fact, together with the prevalence of the Atlantic swell, makes a landing well-nigh impossible. The first recorded visit was by Capt. (then Lieutenant) Basil Hall, in 1810, who has left a graphic account of his adventures on that occasion. A scientific expedition sent out in 1896 was unsuccessful in landing, but made soundings and dredged on the neighboring banks. The rock of which the eminence is composed seems to be different in character from all other known rocks, and it is proposed to call it "rockallite," which is defined as "having the structure of the 'granite porphyries,' but belonging to the extreme variety of the soda-bearing acid rocks." Precise information in regard to the ornithology of the rock has not yet been obtained, but among the twenty species of birds observed on or near it in 1896 was the Great Shearwater *(Puffinis gravis)*, whose breeding-place is still unknown. Some excellent photographs of the rock, which is often taken by passing seamen for a ship under sail, are given.

The official programme has been published for the twentieth session of the International Literary and Artistic Association (Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale). The Congress will be held at Turin, from the 20th to the 28th of September, inclusive. Three Italian cities have previously entertained the Association, viz., Rome, Venice, and Milan; but only a limited number of Italians have thus far participated in the proceedings, which is the more noticeable because of the considerable literature upon literary property by Italian writers. Sig. Ferrari reports to the present congress on copyright in Italy. The "Programme des travaux et des fêtes" provides recreation in the usual social functions, and an all-day excursion to the valley of Aosta, including visits to the châteaux of Verrès and Isogne, and maps out a liberal schedule for work in seven sessions, with a round dozen papers to be read and discussed. The subjects included are: The Moral Rights of Authors, by MM. Eduard Mack and Jules Lermina; Art Industries under the French Law of 1793; Protection to Scientific Works; Deposit of Copies, by M. Lucien Layus, delegate of the Paris Circle of Publishers; Property Rights in Historical Documents; Newspaper Copyright; Posthumous Works, by Prof. Röthlisberger of the Berne Copyright Bureau; and Protection for Architectural Works. Topics continued from former sessions are: The Possible Unification of the Laws Relating to Literary and Artistic Property; *Contrat d'édition*, and the much discussed but slow-progressing project of a new Russian copyright law. Reports are also expected on the state of copyright matters in various countries; the "rapporteur" for the United States being Mr. Paul Oeker of California.

The American Economic Association, now in the thirteenth year of its existence, offers seventy-five sets of its publications, eleven octavo volumes each, bound in cloth, at $21.75 per set, or at $27.25 bound in half morocco, shipping charges to be added. Orders should be sent to Prof. W. F. Willcox, Secretary of the Association, Ithaca, N. Y. Each volume has an index, and there is a series index to the whole.

Christen Andersen Thyregod, one of the leading Danish "peasant poets," died July 31. He was born near Veile, Jutland, November 12, 1822. After working on a farm, he enlisted in the army, but, having been discharged on account of ill health, he studied and became a teacher in 1849. Although he did not begin to publish until comparatively late in life, he became one of the most voluminous Danish authors, one collection of Tales and Legends extending to eight volumes. Thyregod's main object in writing was to furnish intellectual nourishment for his fellow-peasants.

—There is a good deal in the September *Century* about the possessions we have acquired by the war. Whitelaw Reid's article on "The Territory with which we are Threatened" derives most of its importance from the fact that the writer, as Peace Commissioner, speaks with some authority. What he says about Cuba and Porto Rico—that we must hold them and at the same time keep them out of the Union—might have been predicted, but what he says about the Philippines could not. His view is, that while "we may have to hold the Philippines," we are not in honor bound to hold them "if we can honorably dispose of them"; but knowing what we know and what we have made plain to the world about Spain's government, "we cannot honorably require them to go back under it again." It would be "permissible" to "trade them for something nearer home," and "it is quite possible that some way out of our embarrassing possession may yet be found"; the fact being that "many of

our people do not much want it." This is very interesting. As a publicist, Mr. Reid maintains that there is nothing in the contention that keeping the Philippines is inconsistent with the Monroe Doctrine; but it is not as a publicist that he commands attention. If there is something in keeping these islands inconsistent with his own views and instructions, that will be quite enough for those of our people who do not much want them. An entertaining illustrated article in the same number on "The Malay Pirates of the Philippines," is by Prof. Dean C. Worcester, who has been among them. These pirates seem to inhabit at least one island of the group, and are not yet well adapted either for American citizenship or to provide a market for our products. When a Moro (these pirates are Mohammedans in faith, and have a Sultan) suffers from ennui, he bathes in a spring, shaves off his eyebrows, and takes a solemn oath that he will die killing his enemies; and then, with his kris, or barong, runs amuck, killing in his final "good time" a large number of people before he is killed himself. When Mr. Worcester got leave from Gen. Arolas (called "Papa" by his loving subjects) to go into the interior, a Moro named Toolawee was sent with him as a guide. This guide had a good reputation and behaved very well, but his views of business were new to Mr. Worcester. When they got into the woods, he said, "Papa told you if you met armed Moros outside the town to order them to lay down their arms and retire?" On Mr. Worcester's replying in the affirmative, the good Toolawee suggested that Papa did not understand his people as well as he, Toolawee, did; that they were all really bad, and that the best plan would be to kill all they met, after which Mr. Worcester could take their arms and clothing in the interest of science, while he would cut off their heads, shave their eyebrows, show their skulls to Papa, and get a reward for killing *juramentados*. "Thoughts on American Imperialism," by Carl Schurz, is a solid contribution to the settlement of the question raised by Mr. Reid.

—The leading illustrated article in *Scribner's* is Richard Harding Davis's account of the Rough Riders' fight at Guasimas. This engagement, or most of it, he actually saw, having been on or near the firing line from the time of its beginning until its end—a fact which gives his paper a good deal of historical value. According to his account, there was no falling into an "ambuscade," for the troops were thrown forward with the deliberate purpose of "developing" the enemy; but when we come to the question whether this was in obedience to orders, Mr. Davis's statement needs to be read with a good deal of attention before its exact significance appears. The Rough Riders did, he says, "in their anxiety to be well forward," make a forced march by night to Siboney, "in a spirit of independence"; but this does not affect the fact that their next forward movement—on Guasimas—was made by order of Gen. Wheeler, who, however, in giving this order, "disarranged the original order in which the troops were to move forward, as it had been laid down by Gen. Shafter before the transports arrived at Baiquiri." In explanation of the failure to throw forward skirmishers, he declares that this was practically impossible, the only line of advance being in single file along a beaten trail, through an otherwise impassable jungle. All the precautions possible were taken: two Cuban scouts were placed in the lead; then, a hundred yards behind, came a "point" of five picked men, and then Capron's troop of sixty men in single file. Gen. Young, with the First and Tenth dismounted cavalry, advanced by another trail, but between the two trails there was a valley, and his column could not be seen at all until, at Guasimas, the two detachments came together. Mr. Davis therefore gives no account of the formation in which Gen. Young's advance was made. The affair is summed up in the statement that one thousand American troops dislodged four thousand Spanish troops strongly intrenched in rifle pits, in a mountain pass behind thick cover, and routed them. The loss on our side was very small, and this fact rather diminishes the effect of Mr. Davis's article, some of which is pitched in a key that needs a Waterloo or a Gettysburg for its subject. His description is very good when it is restrained, but his foible is the picturesque. A competent military criticism of the operations he describes would be necessary to supplement what he tells us. He labors, by the way, under the "yellow" delusion that "howling" and profanity are indications of bravery. This idea comes direct from the editorial sanctum, not from the field of war. It is interesting just now to know that our men called the transports "prison hulks," and an inimitable Spanish story is that of the prisoner who explained the defeat at Guasimas by the charge that the Rough Riders disregarded all the rules of war in advancing instead of falling back when fired on. "That is not the way to fight, to come closer at every volley." The rule is, when fired on, to retreat.

—In *Harper's*, Mr. Bryce's article, called "Some Thoughts on the Policy of the United States," has already attracted so much attention that it would be going over ground no longer new to criticise it here. It is important, not merely for its arguments, but as a reminder that our next friend in England is no Imperialist. The illustrated article that is most entertaining is "The Romance of a Mad King," by the Rev. Alexander Mackay-Smith. This gives an account of the palaces of King Louis II. of Bavaria, which were the means, first of ruining and then of reëstablishing the financial position of the "Bavarian Nation." There is no doubt that the King was a madman, yet, curiously enough, his lunacy did not do a tithe the harm to Bavaria that many another king's sanity has done to his country; the fees charged for admission to Linderhof, and Neuschwanstein, and Herrenchiemsee, bringing in a plentiful supply of money to replenish the exchequer which his folly had emptied. His devotion to art was less costly than his devotion to war would have been, though it must be confessed that the final financial scheme popularly attributed to him—that of selling or hypothecating Bavaria for so much cash down to a well-known firm of French bankers—cannot be justified by any theory of statecraft that we know of. It is said that the exhibition of a royal letter inquiring how much he could obtain for the property was what led immediately to his deposition. Tourists have every cause to be grateful to him, for he provided them with sights of a sort not to be found outside Bavaria—sights, too, of which a perfectly sound mind would never have dreamt. Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart contributes a paper on "The Experience of the United States in Foreign Military Expeditions," which is full of valuable information. It recalls the fact, too often forgotten, that the old Democratic party, just before the civil war, became filled with imperialistic longings, evidently the result of a desire to divert public attention from domestic politics and the slavery question. In 1852 we undertook to protect American vessels loading guano in the Lobos Islands against Peruvian interference; in 1854 we bombarded Greytown; in 1857 we sent naval vessels to both sides of the Isthmus to teach the haughty Columbians a lesson; in the same year we censured Commodore Paulding for sending the filibuster Walker home for trial; in 1859 we sent a naval and military expedition to Paraguay, and about this time the venerable Buchanan, so weak at home, set on foot a scheme which would have made him "the dictator of Latin America." In the period from 1836 to 1860 there were some twenty-five cases of armed intervention abroad. Then came the civil war, and when the effects of that conflict had begun to die out, a new period of Jingoism set in. The only difference is in the name of the party which, when at its wits' end to direct attention from its own misdeeds, suddenly goes wild over our interests and responsibilities abroad.

—In the *Atlantic*, Prince Kropotkin is the subject of an article by Robert Erskine Ely, while the Prince himself contributes the first instalment of "The Autobiography of a Revolutionist." Very pleasant reading it is about "Old" Russia, the Russia of the fathers but not the sons—the Russia divided from the past by enfranchisement, by nihilism, by socialism, by dynamite and democratic aspirations, and by the ruin of the old aristocracy. Between the lines we seem to get for the first time sufficient means to make out the real place of the Prince in the world in which we live, which is rather that of a literary and scientific than a naturally political man. In the case of a man of such versatility it is easy to make mistakes, but it is hard for us to imagine a man who is an accomplished mathematician and a leading Anarchist being *au fond* really political. His life of self-sacrifice and honorable toil, his amiable temper and lofty aims, his generosity and romanticism, all stand out in bold relief against the somewhat dingy background of the present industrial world. Passing over the "Unpublished Letters of Carlyle," which do not add much to our knowledge of that writer, a paper with the curious title "A Lawyer with a Style," by Prof. Woodrow Wilson, gives an account of Sir Henry Maine and his writings. Its implication, that most lawyers have no "style," or that a style is a thing that can be "put on," as "style" is in the Bowery, will probably puzzle some members of the bar; the only lawyers of reputation who have no style whatever are the authors of the New York Code of Procedure, in which case the usual explanation is that they have endeavored to express ideas which they do not themselves comprehend. Of course, a literary style is not a legal style. William Roscoe Thayer writes about Bismarck, and Élisée Reclus has an interesting article on "The Vivisection of China."

THE ICELANDIC HAMLET.

Hamlet in Iceland; Being the Icelandic Am-

bales Saga, edited and translated, with extracts from five Ambales Rímur and other illustrative texts, for the most part now first printed, and an introductory essay, by Israel Gollancz. (Northern Library, Vol. III.) London: D. Nutt.

The Icelandic 'Saga of Hamlet' (*Ambales Saga*) is, from a literary point of view, poor stuff. It was written, in a detestable style, by some tasteless scribbler of the seventeenth (or, perhaps, the late sixteenth) century. The anonymous author seems to have had, in the first place, a confused and fragmentary knowledge of the old story, and he has taken a childish delight in stuffing out his narrative with foreign proper names, with tales of trolls, giants, robbers, and Saracens, with long-winded battle-pieces, and, in short, with all the paraphernalia of the *lygisögur* of his debased period. Yet that there was once a genuine Hamlet legend in Iceland is incontestable. The earliest mention of his name occurs in a skaldic strophe usually ascribed to the tenth-century Icelander Snæbjörn Galti ("the Boar"). The stanza is an almost hopeless riddle. It must, however, allude to an anecdote (preserved by Saxo Grammaticus) of Hamlet's pretended madness, and it serves, therefore, as a kind of voucher for an essential feature of the versions that have since become so famous. These are all derived, mediately or immediately, from Saxo's 'Danish History,' written some two hundred years after the time of Snæbjörn. The late "Ambales Saga," of which Mr. Gollancz has now made the *editio princeps*, is also, in all probability, from the same source, much as one would like to discover therein some trace of an independent Icelandic tradition.

Mr. Gollancz, who is now Lecturer in English at the University of Cambridge, is well known to our readers as the editor of the deservedly popular "Temple Shakspere." His services to letters include also editions of Cynewulf's 'Christ,' of the Middle English 'Pearl,' and of the 'Codex Exoniensis.' He is a ready writer and a scholar of varied attainments, but, if we are not mistaken, the handsome book before us marks, with the exception of a brief essay, his first excursion into Scandinavian territory. We regret that we cannot altogether congratulate him on the results.

Let us first consider the text and the translation, which are conveniently arranged on opposite pages. In the first place Mr. Gollancz has taken the shortest possible cut: he has made a diplomatic reprint of a nineteenth-century manuscript. This procedure is enough to take away one's breath. There are three manuscripts of the seventeenth century in the Arna-Magnæan Library, and from these a satisfactory text could easily have been constructed. If Mr. Gollancz did not think the saga worth so much trouble, he might at least have chosen one of the Arna-Magnæan codices to print from. If he still did not think the saga worth so much trouble, why did he print it at all? The 'Ambales Saga' is an unvenerable piece of recent antiquity. One good edition would have sufficed for a hundred years. If Mr. Gollancz was not ready to supply such an edition, he should, in all conscience, have withheld his hand. There was no haste. The immediate needs of scholars were met, two years ago, by Dr. Otto Jiriczek's 'Die Amlethsage auf Island,' which gives the fullest kind of analysis, with careful indication of the variations of incident shown by the three earliest manuscripts. In any case a diplomatic print of this modern copy, preserving not merely its bad spelling and bad grammar, but its absurd capitalization and punctuation, would be a strange spectacle. Under the circumstances, we cannot see that the editor has any defence.

The translation is of a piece with the text. A good English version of an Icelandic saga is, to be sure, a rare thing. For some reason, the translators commonly feel under an obligation to archaize in style and language; hence, too often, an affected jargon, repugnant alike to English and to Icelandic. Mr. Gollancz has not avoided the snare. "There lived a king hight Donrek," he begins; . . . "he was passing rich and mighty, what with his folk and a many brave retainers." This is tiresome and affected; but, if it were skilfully carried out, it might become pardonable in the long run. It is not skilfully carried out. Genuine archaisms, sham antiques, and frank modernisms are shuffled together, in defiance of consistency and good taste. "Fell adown," "pulled him aback," "otherwise than she was erst," "whenas," "mostwhiles," "blithe of cheer," accord ill with "later on," "his neck was very stiffened," "gave himself a nasty fall." Bad style, however, is not the worst fault of the translation. It is careless and inaccurate. Not to speak of small omissions or of the familiar device of vagueness in hard places, it abounds in actual errors, some of which are of the most elementary character.

The severity of this judgment requires us to cite examples. Nothing is easier; the only difficulty is in making a selection. The saga says that certain lands held the Christian faith; the translation, turning a nominative into an accusative, makes a present of the lands to a certain young prince (p. 5). *Er*, 'which,' is rendered "whenever" (p. 17). "Adam-stone" should be "adamant" or "diamond" (p. 31). "What terms will reconcile thee to life?" should be, "On what terms wilt thou make peace?" (p. 41). "Look into her eyes" should be "look upon her with his eyes" (p. 45). "But anon Dixin came up to him [Vilhjalmur] and asked him after King Balant; he said the king was now a prisoner, and told him how he had brought King Malpriant from off his horse." This is completely muddled. It should run: "Anon Didrik came to him; Vilhjálmur asked him after King Balant, and he [Didrik] said he [the king] was now a prisoner. Vilhjálmur told him then how he [Vil.] had brought King Malpriant from off his horse" (p. 63). Farther down on the same page "Vilhjamur" should be "Vallanus." "Stayed there" should be "ceased not" (p. 73). "Each was on the point of falling" (p. 93) should be "Now one and now the other was," etc. "Tied it to a string" should be "tied it to a stone" (p. 131). One or two of these disfigurements may be misprints. Most of them, however, are simply blunders, which show that Mr. Gollancz overestimated his knowledge of the language when he undertook a translation even of this easy text.

Mr. Gollancz has succeeded better in his introduction, which, though rambling and in places recklessly padded, is both interesting and learned. That portion which is novel is devoted to an exceedingly clever attempt to rehabilitate Hamlet as an historical character. The Anglo-Danish romance of 'Havelok the Dane,' preserved in Old French and Middle English, has some general features and a number of particular traits which resemble Saxo's account of Hamlet. The equation has been fully, yet cautiously, discussed by Mr. H. L. D. Ward. Havelok himself is nowadays unhesitatingly identified, on better evidence than usual, with the famous Anlaf (Olave) Curan, Scandinavian King of Dublin and of Northumbria, defeated by Athelstan at Brunanburh in 937. Unfortunately for these combinations, nothing is known of the historical Anlaf's youth, nor are there any but the most general and elusive comparisons to be made between him and Saxo's Hamlet. To operate with his romantic representative Havelok in equating Anlaf and Hamlet is, therefore, as dangerous as it is tempting. What is needed is some bit of independent evidence to connect the historical viking hero directly with the melancholy Dane, either in name or in deeds. Such a link Mr. Gollancz thinks he has found. Anlaf's father, Sitric (Sigtryggr) Gale (or Gaile), is recorded as having slain in battle the Irish king Niall Glundubh. Now, there is extant a piece of Irish poetry, ascribed to Niall's widow, in which Niall is said to have been killed by the foreigner *Amhlaide*. *Amhlaide* corresponds to *Amlóthi*, the Old Norse form of *Hamlet*. Hence, Mr. Gollancz infers, Sitric was known to the Irish as Hamlet, or as "the foolish," that being the meaning of *Amlóthi* so far as we can ascertain. He derives Sitric's surname, "Gale," hitherto unexplained, from O. N. *galithr*, "mad"; assumes a blending, in popular story, of the father, Sitric, with the son, Anlaf, etc., etc.

At this point Mr. Gollancz wavers a good deal and contrives to be pretty vague. We gather that he would like, if he quite dared, to give the following genealogy to the Hamlet story: First, a Germanic myth of Orwendil and his son is carried from Scandinavia to Ireland, where it is developed into a primitive form of our Hamlet story; the hero's real or assumed stupidity becomes an important trait, and he receives the name (probably Celtic) *Amlaidhe*, "the fool." It was this form of the story that was known to Snæbjörn, the Icelander. The same surname is given to Sitric by the Irish and is later transferred, by confusion, to his son Anlaf Curan. Some time in the eleventh century the Hamlet story as we know it in Saxo is finally developed, by the combination of the mythical elements already mentioned with historical facts about Sitric and Anlaf.

There are the gravest difficulties, both linguistic and historical, in the way of these theories. Almost every step is beset with pitfalls. We have no space for an elaborate discussion. Suffice it to say that the interpretation of *Gaile* as "mad" is very daring; that, if no Germanic etymology for *Amlóthi* is discoverable, nobody has yet found a native Celtic etymology for *Amlaidhe;* that there is no good evidence that Sitric was ever called *Amlaidhe* or *Amlóthi*, still less that Anlaf ever received that surname. Finally, the mysterious Snæbjörn stanza, which presupposes a developed Icelandic tale of Hamlet (Amlóthi) well known in Iceland in the tenth century, not more than thirty years later than the Irish lament in which "Amhlaide" is mentioned, stands, as it appears to us, squarely across the path of the Anlaf argument. However, Mr. Gollancz is entitled to our admiration for his courage. Much discussion will be roused by his essay, and, in the end, good service will be done. There are other matters of interest in the introduction, but we must pass on.

A long and valuable appendix furnishes students of the later Icelandic literature with some fifty pages of inedited *rímur*. These attest the popularity of the story in Iceland in the 17th and 18th centuries, but throw little or no light on the saga itself. There are also a list of manuscripts, a few short prose texts, and some other pertinent apparatus. We notice one bad misprint at p. 280, by which the British Museum MS. of the 'Ambales Saga' is dated "thirteenth century," some three hundred years before the composition of the saga itself.

A word in closing. We have felt compelled to call attention freely to the shortcomings of Mr. Gollancz's text and translation, but we are anxious not to be misunderstood. The book is, in some respects, discreditable to a scholar of his position and repute, but it cannot be neglected by students of Hamlet. The text, though bad, is generally intelligible, and the errors in the translation, though numerous, do not affect its general availability. The mechanical execution of the volume is admirable.

Introduction to the Study of Sociology. By J. H. W. Stuckenberg. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1898.

Outlines of Sociology. By Lester F. Ward. The Macmillan Co. 1898.

These two books are remarkable chiefly for the fact that the authors deal with extraordinary fairness with the question which lies on the threshold of their study: Is there any such thing as a science of sociology? Comte and Spencer are generally recognized as the fathers of this branch of learning, and they labor with great ingenuity to prove the claim of sociology to a place in the hierarchy of the sciences. Most of their followers adopt in whole or in part the views advanced by them. Dr. Ward and Mr. Stuckenberg, on the contrary, not only throw grave doubts on the Comtean and Spencerian speculations, but expressly disclaim for sociology the position of an established science. "All sociologists," says Mr. Stuckenberg, "are agreed that no sociological system thus far developed can claim to be thoroughly 'scientific'" (p. 273), and Dr. Ward, after pointing out (p. 143) that "until a group of facts and phenonema reaches a stage at which these can be generalized into laws, which, in turn, are merely the expressions of the uniform working of its underlying forces, it cannot be appropriately denominated a science," adds, "Psychology and Sociology have scarcely reached it." In other words, sociology is not exactly a science, like astronomy or chemistry, but it is a branch of knowledge which is possibly on the way to become such.

Nothing could be franker than this; but the effect produced by the elaboration of such a position by a teacher will not be to procure followers. Both authors write too often as if their aim were not to inform us what sociological science is, but to explain what a capital thing it would be if it only were such. They destroy the false gods of Spencer and of Comte, and give us nothing in their place to worship. This, at least, is true of Mr. Stuckenberg. Dr. Ward has an elaborate philosophy of his own, which, as far as we can make out, is a propaganda, involving the improvement of man's lot on earth; but this is less a scientific system than a practical aim, in which he is entirely at one with every one who is interested in social problems. His book can hardly be taken as more than a series of essays on human society—many of them no doubt interesting, but not in any true sense systematic; while Mr. Stuckenberg's book is a mass of criticism and analysis, some of it very good, but all, to our mind, absolutely inconclusive. We have known Spencerians and Comteans; we cannot even conceive of a Stuckenbergian. To any one who is familiar with the thousand and one speculations about society which the ingenuity of man has evolved, both volumes will be interesting, but as embodying a branch of learning to be pursued by the young and untrained, we must confess to finding them worse than useless, for they leave the student, where they found him, in the dark.

We have been particularly disappointed in finding that Mr. Stuckenberg withdraws his assent even from Comte's law of the "three stages." After showing that Turgot anticipated Comte in suggesting it (p. 30), he declares that it is "not a law of history," and makes the extraordinary remark that "perhaps the positive method is as faulty as the others in claiming absoluteness and universality." Comte's law is the statement of the observed fact that there are three stages in the explanation of phenomena—the religious, the metaphysical, and the positive or scientific. It may be that many phenomena have, from the dawn of history, been studied in the positive way; but it is a strange idea that the positive method, once reached, can be improved by an infusion of metaphysics and theology. At any rate, Mr. Stuckenberg's proposal would leave us absolutely nothing of Comte's discovery.

Of Herbert Spencer's great discovery that society is an "organism" both authors make minced-meat. This is not difficult, for it is pretty well understood now by every one who has given any attention to the subject, that the statement is a mere figure of speech. Dr. Ward's chapter on the "Relation of Sociology to Biology" will be found to deal a death-blow to this overdrawn analogy, and we do not well see how the innumerable errors which have sprung from it can have a much longer life.

The fundamental difficulty which we find with both books, as with nine-tenths of most current sociological speculation, is that their authors have never yet carefully defined for themselves exactly what they mean by the term "society." This is fatal to any sociological system, because society covers so vast a field. Political economy is concerned with part of it, but is political economy a division of social science, or is there a social science which explains political economy? Dr. Ward seems to think that there are two kinds of political economy, an "old" and a "new," and that sociology rules over both. Malthus's "Law of Population" would be considered by most people as highly sociological, but our author would apparently relegate it to the "old" economy. Society evidently signifies associated human beings. When we speak of the welfare of society, or the development of society, we mean the welfare shared by numbers, or the common development of their laws, customs, and institutions. Sociology would therefore mean, and in the mouths of Comte, Mill, and Spencer it did mean, the discovery of the laws which regulate this development. Comte's law, the supposed law of the supersession of status by contract, the theory of the development of individual out of common ownership of land, Buckle's historical theory—all present sociological questions; but it is a striking fact that the discussion of them or knowledge of the learning relating to them does not appear to be regarded by sociologists as falling within their province. What, then, are they about? Apparently writing essays about society, the materials for which they draw from the researches of others in the fields of economics, law, history, or anthropology, and bring forward in the light of some more or less ethical theory about improvement or evolution. Mr. Stuckenberg and Dr. Ward both say that, thus far, no science has resulted; but we may venture to go further and to predict that from such a method no science will ever result. That there are laws which govern the development of society we firmly believe, but they cannot be found out by any one who believes in a judicious mixture of theology, metaphysics, and positivism, nor by any one who is concerning himself with the question, What ought society to do?

The Diplomatic History of America: Its First Chapter. 1452-1493-1494. By Henry Harrisse. London: B. F. Stevens.

Mr. Harrisse's writings have from time to time roused a good deal of opposition, but no one can quarrel with him for allotting the "first chapter" of American diplomatic history to Spain and Portugal. In ten pages he dismisses the papal grants which were made to the latter country from 1452 to 1484, and then reaches the real subject of his monograph, to wit, the negotiations between Spain, Portugal, and the Holy See which followed Columbus's landing at Palos. The study centres about 1493-4, and has three branches: firstly, the bulls issued by Alexander VI. in 1493; secondly, the treaty of Tordesillas; and thirdly, the practical delimitation which was made in pursuance of papal behest and international agreement. In connection with this last subject Mr. Harrisse considers the views of several cosmographers, among them Ferrer, Enciso, the Badajoz Junta, Ribeiro, and the maker of the Cantino map.

Ferdinand and Isabella, when they heard that land had been found, at once applied through Carvajal and Medina, their envoys at Rome, for a grant of the same. The papal chancery was prevailed upon to act with unusual speed, and about a month after instructions left Barcelona the bull *Inter Cætera* was issued, May 3, 1493. Accompanying this went a shorter bull, *Eximiæ Devotionis*, which was nothing more than an abstract of the first, and next day a third instrument containing territorial definitions made its appearance. By this the Atlantic dominion of Spain, which, according to the two bulls of May 3, might have commenced, strictly speaking, with the very seaboards of Europe, and extended uninterruptedly westwards (excluding, however, the possessions of Christian princes), was made to begin to the west of a meridian one hundred leagues west and south of the Azores and of Cape Verde. To be sure, the Azores and Cape Verde are neither in the same latitude nor longitude, but the promptness with which Spain applied for and got a charter is beyond question.

It has often been stated on the word of Barros, Zurita, and Herrera, that a controversy arose at Rome over the inordinate

concessions to Spain which were made in the bulls of May 3. Mr. Harrisse criticises all three of these authorities, and is convinced that no pressure, Portuguese or otherwise, influenced Alexander VI. in framing the grant of May 4. To say nothing of the fact that a delay of more than twenty-four hours would have been required after the Pope once changed his mind, the references to India in the third bull show that it was drawn without Portuguese aid. The reason why the Pope specified a hundred leagues west of the Azores and Cape Verde seems to have been that he was unwilling to invalidate the grants of his predecessors, Nicholas V. and Sixtus IV.

Whether or no Portugal was so alert as to remonstrate with Alexander on the 3d of May, she was very much irritated, and was already preparing to maintain her rights over the lands whose discovery Columbus himself had related to João II. on the evening of March 9, 1493. Her protests bore better fruit at Barcelona than at Rome. By his fourth bull of 1493, dated September 25, Alexander VI. still further extended Spain's rights over the new territories, and left Portugal a bare route to India by the Cape of Good Hope. Little detail has come down regarding the parley which ended in the famous treaty of Tordesillas, but on June 7, 1494, Spain consented to recognize a line drawn 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands as a normal boundary between the two spheres of colonial possession. Both parties agreed that the limit should be scientifically fixed by a joint commission within ten months, and that the Pope should be asked to recast his bulls in the sense of this private contract. "A noticeable clause is that not only the contracting parties swear on the Holy Cross to obey the articles of agreement, but, in case of their violating it, they bind themselves never to ask the Pope or any prelate for absolution of such act."

Mr. Harrisse's unequalled knowledge of American cartography is seen to full advantage in his discussion of the actual demarcation line. In only one of the early reckonings did this fall to the west of 46 degrees 36 minutes from Greenwich. Ribeiro locates it between the east and west mouths of the Amazon. The most easterly point is the 42 degrees 30 minutes of the Cantino map.

We leave aside Mr. Harrisse's contention that Alexander VI. merely meant to give Spain and Portugal the lands discovered by each (within the boundaries indicated), to say a word upon his defence of the bull from ridicule. During the Venezuelan trouble, he reminds us, England called this instrument "comical," and yet she once acknowledged it freely. "Nay, during several centuries her historians believed, and a number still believe, that the rights of Great Britain over Ireland had precisely the same origin as the rights claimed by Venezuela over a part of British Guiana. And so it is, historically." Here follows a long analogy based upon Henry II.'s relations with Ireland, Pope Hadrian IV., the bull *Laudabiliter*, and John of Salisbury. We imagine that popular misapprehension on this point is less grave than Mr. Harrisse thinks. Few people are unaware that, during the Middle Ages, a papal sanction was of great international importance. The point is that the basis of political authority has radically changed, not only since 1155, but since 1493. That the *Times* on February 6, 1896, should call Alexander VI.'s apostolic letters "comical" and "ridiculous" is not strange if one considers that to-day no Roman Catholic country would recognize a papal document of the fifteenth century which attacked its current interests. We also doubt whether it could be proved to satisfaction that decrees of the notorious Borgia ever claimed the same reverence in England which had been given to those of Nicholas Breakspeare.

One seldom has the opportunity of setting Mr. Harrisse right on a matter connected with his favorite period. We must object, however, to his statement on p. 47 that Henry VII. married "the daughter of Edward III."

The Great Polar Current: Polar Papers. De Long, Nansen, Peary. By Henry Mellen Prentiss. New York: F. A. Stokes Co. 1898. 12mo, pp. 153.

Mr. Henry Mellen Prentiss is a gentleman who is (as he informs us) thoroughly read in Arctic literature, and at various times has written to prominent Arctic experts, to the newspapers, and to periodicals letters or essays containing the fruit of his cogitations thereon, or speculations as to the whereabouts of the *Jeannette*, or Nansen and other explorers. Mr. Mellen has been so struck by the accuracy of his own forecasts, printed and unprinted, that he has gathered them into this very pretty little volume for preservation in more permanent form. His friends will value this evidence of his foresight, and Arctic bibliography will have another entry.

The articles so collected evince a wide and intelligent reading and an alert mind, but not a grasp of underlying scientific principles. The superficiality of the author's study is shown by his supposition that the *Fram* and the *Jeannette*, by their drift, established the existence of a great Polar current in the sea north of Siberia. This was no doubt Nansen's original hypothesis, and is a prevalent popular opinion, but an error nevertheless. A careful platting of the drift of the *Jeannette* shows that the floe in which she was fixed followed the direction of the prevalent winds with no marked exception. The greater part of the drift of the *Fram* was of the same nature. Now, as the motion of a sailing ship before a fair wind is no proof that she also has a favorable current, neither does the drift of the ice in these cases prove anything of the kind. So far as the currents of the Polar Sea are proved to exist and accounted for, they are chiefly convection currents modified by tide and river flow. The drift of the polar ice under the influence of the winds produces results which agree with those which might be brought about by the hypothetical current; but since we have proof of the action of the wind, and know that it is sufficient for the purpose, it is entirely unnecessary to invoke the assistance of currents of whose existence and direction we know nothing whatever.

The subject of Arctic currents is beset with difficulty. They can hardly be observed except in ice-free regions, and there only for brief intervals. We know that those which have been observed are more or less dependent on the tides, with the exception of the East Greenland current. We know that the Polar Sea forms a basin closed (practically) except to the North Atlantic. We know that it receives a considerable influx of river water, besides its own precipitation, and a certain amount of sea-water from the northeasterly drift between Spitzbergen and Norway. There is only one way out for the accumulated water, and that is between Spitzbergen and Greenland. Aided by convection, a strong and permanent current is established here. How far north its influence extends is unknown. This is the lip of the pitcher, toward which the steady pressure of the circumpolar winds (proved theoretically by Ferrell and practically by the *Jeannette* and the *Fram)* carries the floes of the Polar Sea. What else there may be in the way of currents is still conjectural. It is true, however, that our author errs in company with many learned newspapers, and our criticism is rather of a widespread misapprehension than of his amiable little book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, Prof. C. M. The Historical Development of Modern Europe. Vol. II. Putnams. $2.50.
Berkowitz, Rev. Henry. Kiddush; or, Sabbath Sentiment. Philadelphia: The Author.
Cheyne, Rev. T. K. Jewish Religious Life After the Exile. Putnams. $1.50.
Driver, Prof. S. R. The Parallel Psalter. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $1.50.
Ellis, E. S. Klondike Nuggets, and How Two Boys Secured Them. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Gallon, T. Dicky Monteith. Appletons. $1.
Gaullier, Henry. The Paternal State in France and Germany. Harpers. $1.25.
Hayley, H. W. The Alcestis of Euripides. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Kidder, F. E. Building Construction and Superintendence. Part II. Carpenters' Work. New York: W. T. Comstock. $4.
Laidlaw, A. H. Soldier Songs and Love Songs. W. R. Jenkins. $1.
Warren, Rev. H. W. Among the Forces. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Wilkins, Miss Mary E. The People of Our Neighborhood. Doubleday & McClure Co. 50c.

Educational Review.
Edited by NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.
September
ARTICLES.—Psychology and education, by HUGO MUNSTERBERG; Contemporary education in France, by GABRIEL COMPAYRE; The use of higher education, by WILLIAM T. HARRIS; The older and newer colleges, by CHARLES W. ELIOT: Examinations, by FRIEDRICH PAULSEN; The teaching of psychology, by HIRAM M. STANLEY.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 15, 1898.

The Week.

The final acceptance by Senator Gray of his appointment as peace commissioner completes the list. The commission as it stands consists of three members of the Senate foreign-relations committee; Mr. Day, the immediate representative of the President; and Mr. Reid, who is also in a certain sense a Presidential representative. A few weeks ago he was thought to be a tremendous expansionist, but a magazine article published by him since, coupled with the cessation of expansionist articles in his newspaper, have shown that he is susceptible of change. Mr. Gray was a strong opponent of Hawaiian annexation, and is put on as a representative of the Democratic party (itself as a whole, so far as known, rather against expansion). Messrs. Davis and Frye are fire-eaters, and what they would like is known. Mr. Day's views on the subject of retaining the Philippines are supposed to be those of Mr. McKinley, and what these are is known only to Mr. McKinley himself—if, indeed, to him. Whatever the result, any treaty which Mr. Gray should refuse to sign would go through the Senate with a "black eye," and would hardly give that unanimous delight throughout the country which it is Mr. McKinley's peculiar function to stimulate.

The Chief of the Treasury Bureau of Statistics, Mr. Austin, has just returned from Porto Rico, and has made public admission of the melancholy fact that the island has been already pretty well "taken up." Its population is now "more dense than that of Massachusetts," and the prospect of materially increasing its productiveness is "not flattering." Where there is no waste land, Americans do not readily go, and probably Porto Rico will not be changed very much by annexation, for the substance of the law and customs of the place will remain Spanish, whoever collects the taxes or pays the clergy their salaries. Mr. Austin is quoted, however, as mentioning one reason for annexation not hitherto thought of, which has not only a political but a geological interest: "Torn by great natural movements from the mainland of which this chain of islands doubtless formed a part, she is now restored by another great natural movement, which is reuniting the continents and countries and islands in a system of republics having one great purpose of coöperation and mutual advancement."

President Jordan of Stanford University has written a letter on the subject of Philippine annexation—a supplement to his recent address to the graduating class of the University. "The vast majority of the people of the Philippines," he says, "are utterly indifferent to all questions outlasting the present moment. The most of them have never yet heard of Spain, still less of the United States, and the native tribes are as well fitted for American institutions as so many monkeys would be." He gives three main reasons against all assumption of imperialism by the United States, viz.: "(1) Dominion is brute force; (2) dependent nations are slave nations; and (3) the making of men is greater than the building of empires." He considers the project of dividing the Philippines, taking one island and leaving the rest to Spain, or giving them to some other Power, chimerical. Yet he thinks that it is not practicable to turn them back to Spain. In his view, the situation is the familiar one where one road leads to hell and the other to damnation.

According to the Manila correspondent of the London *Times*, telegraphing on the 9th, Aguinaldo has got possession of almost the whole island of Luzon, except that portion occupied by the American troops, and besides this he holds more than nine thousand Spanish prisoners, several thousand rifles, some cannon, a large quantity of ammunition, and several small armed steamers. The insurgents are even encroaching upon Manila itself, and making it necessary for Gen. Otis to remind them that they must keep their distance. According to the same correspondent, Aguinaldo's intention is to possess himself of all the rest of the Philippines while we hold Manila, and thus strengthen the case for our withdrawal from the islands before the peace commission. He has evidently picked up some knowledge of "*uti possidetis*," and means to find out what there is "in it for him." One thing is perfectly clear, that it will be impossible for us to insist on retaining the Philippine group on the ground of military possession, if we are not in possession. The situation is bad for trade.

Our Commissioners in Hawaii are finding out a good deal about the wishes of the natives respecting territorial government, and incidentally much else. One difficulty is met everywhere. The natives say, and with undoubted truth, that annexation of their islands was a "war measure." So they ask if, when the war is over, annexation will be over too. Senator Cullom explains this point to their darkened minds. He always begins by addressing them as "fellow-citizens." This, with his likeness to Abraham Lincoln, never fails to awaken applause. But the Hawaiians do not seem greatly interested in our peripatetic orators. They are said not to like Morgan's speeches in the least, which, in so far, is a striking sign of their fitness for self-government. The real reason of their indifference to our Commissioners, however, was that their ex-Queen was also travelling about the islands. Towards our Senators (we are following the *Sun's* dispatch) they showed only "childlike curiosity," but they flocked about their Queen with the greatest enthusiasm, offering her fruit and flowers by the canoe-load, and paying her every imaginable tribute of affection anl loyalty. All this is said to have greatly "impressed" the Commissioners, as one would think it would. And our religious annexationists should be impressed by the fact that the natives refused to go into "the great white church of Kailua, the oldest Christian church in the islands." They had a foolish notion in their heads that this church was somehow a symbol of the foreign power that had robbed them of land and nationality.

What the Hawaiian planters expect of us in the way of government is also being impressed upon our Commissioners. These growers of coffee and sugar are not at all strenuous on questions of suffrage or representation, but they want their taxes lightened, and "improvements" to help them to make their crops productive. For example, they would like the United States to build at once a good road (if not a railroad) from the coast to each man's plantation, and to establish ("subsidize" is the word they use) a line of steamers between San Francisco and Hilo. Here at least are signs of our paternal government being welcomed and appreciated as it deserves to be. But what a ridiculous pretension is that of the 21,616 Chinese resident in the islands. They have had the impudence to petition our Commissioners that their existing property and personal rights under Hawaiian law be not abridged. If their fellow-citizen, Senator Cullom, is not equal to setting them right on this point, a copy of the speech of their other fellow-citizen, Senator Hoar, should be read to them so that they may understand the real situation. It is one of the rules of the colonial game that 21,000 Chinese have no rights which 3,000 Americans are bound to respect; and the sooner our various subject races find this out, the better for them.

President McKinley has made one of

those compromises dear to his heart in his disposition of the War Department scandal. What was wanted was a thorough investigation, which would cover the whole field, by men who would command the confidence of the nation. What is granted is only permission to have a partial inquiry made, by a body of men the composition of which is not yet settled, and which will have no power to enforce testimony. By the terms of the official announcement, the inquiry is to be restricted to "the conduct of the Commissary, Quartermaster, and Medical Bureaus of the War Department during the war, and the extent, cause, and treatment of sickness in the field and in the camp." This takes it for granted that there is nothing to find fault with outside of these three bureaus, and that the office of the Secretary of War is beyond criticism. In view of the fact that it is the management of the War Department by Secretary Alger which has aroused public sentiment to the practically universal demand for an investigation which would really investigate, it is a fatal blunder to remove the conduct of the chief offender from the scope of the inquiry. Under such conditions the ablest and fairest board could not do work which would command the public confidence, and the present outlook is that the President will not succeed in securing a commission which will personally carry great weight. Moreover, half-way work in the line of investigation will not end the matter. Whatever the President's commission may do, Congress will undoubtedly order an inquiry next winter which will cover the whole field. The Administration will very likely use its influence to prevent any action by Congress, but it will not be able to succeed. The Democrats will press the issue, and the Republicans will not dare to resist the demand. Indeed, Republican Congressmen are already pledging their constituents that they will call for an investigation by the House of Representatives next winter.

How did Alger ever get into the cabinet? This is a question which was asked with languid curiosity by everybody when he was appointed Secretary of War, and which is pressed with much more earnestness now that he has involved the Administration in contumely. There was nothing in Alger's career as a soldier in the civil war to entitle him to consideration, for he had been dismissed from the army after making a wretched record. There was nothing in his political relations to require his recognition, for he was utterly "played out." There was no reason of personal friendship, for it is well known that Mr. McKinley never liked him. What, then, explains the mystery of his "pull"? An editorial article in the Hartford *Times*, written by a man who seems to "know what he is talking about," thus tells a story which, as the article says, "has been 'current on the inside,'" and which is entirely credible:

> "There is 'a politician on the shelf' in Ohio, named Charles Foster, who, as Secretary of the Treasury in Harrison's cabinet, was regarded as about the weakest man who ever held that place. He was reputed to be a millionaire banker, but, after retiring from the cabinet, his various enterprises went to smash, and he entered the lists of the 'financially ruined,' his neighbors sharing his losses to a very large extent. In his efforts to pull through his embarrassments, Foster received certain financial aid from his friend Russell A. Alger, the Michigan lumberman. And how was the debt paid? Foster, as an ex-Governor of Ohio, ex-member of Congress, and ex-Secretary of the Treasury, still had a few friends in the Ohio Legislature, and by the control of these votes he was able to serve notice on McKinley and Hanna that in order to elect the latter a Senator it would be necessary to give Alger a place in McKinley's cabinet."

As the September election in Vermont has long proved a trustworthy political barometer as to the drift of public sentiment throughout the country, the first feature of last week's election to engage notice was the maintenance of the Democratic vote at the level of two years ago, while the Republican vote had fallen off 25 per cent. But there was another element in the case which is of great interest, alike as an evidence of independent voting and as proof of a change of sentiment regarding the best treatment of the liquor problem. The Democrats elected nearly 50 Representatives to the Legislature, as against only 17 in 1896, and the majority of these members owe their success to support from Republicans who at the same time voted for the Republican candidate for Governor. Thus, Norwich stood 135 Republican to 61 Democratic for Governor, but elected a Democratic Representative on the issue of substituting a license law for the present policy of prohibition; Rockingham went Republican for Governor almost two to one (441 to 229), but Democratic for Representative; and Bennington Republican for Governor, 720 to 443, but Democratic for Representative by 132 majority. In the city of St. Albans, where the Republican candidate for Governor lives, the majority of the party for the head of the State ticket was over 500, but so many Republicans were in favor of the repeal of the prohibitory law that, if about 60 more had joined him on this issue, the Democratic candidate for Representative would have been elected.

Four years ago this month the Maine Republicans polled 82,596 votes for Governor, and the Democrats 34,350. Returns from 150 towns, casting about 40 per cent. of the total poll, now show only 23,662 Republican votes, against 30,160 in 1894, while the Democratic vote is fully maintained—12,242 now, against 12,175 then. As the more remote towns are heard from, the percentage of Republican loss increases, so that the latest indications are for a Republican plurality of only about 22,500 this year, against 48,246 four years ago. In other words, the unorganized and demoralized Democracy, at the end of a spiritless campaign, hold their own, as compared with the last election midway in a Presidential term, while the Republicans, strong in machinery for "getting out the vote," and presumptively strengthened by the war record of their national Administration, lose 20 to 25 per cent. This is practically the same thing that happened in Vermont a week before. The moral of the Maine election, reinforcing as it thus does that in Vermont, is plain. It shows that the "tidal wave" which rose in the congressional elections of 1894 and swept everything before it in the national contest of 1896, has lost its force, and that the current already sets the other way. It demonstrates that the war as a piece of political strategy was worse than a blunder. It is a warning to Republicans that the next House is in doubt.

Commissioner Evans's annual pension report showed a remarkable increase in pensions granted, but, Lord love you! the Grand Army makes no account of this, and is raging against "comrade William McKinley" for keeping up an "iniquitous rule" which prevents worthy men from getting pensions. It seems that there are some cunning "technicalities" enforced by the iniquitous rule—such as requiring a man to show that he was ever in the army—and it was largely, says the Grand Army report on pensions, to abolish these technicalities that the Presidential campaign of 1896 was fought and won. Yet, to the amazement and indignation of veterans, here is comrade William McKinley enforcing the very rule that roused their wrath against non-comrade Grover Cleveland. Yet they charitably hope—which is their adroit way of expressing a threat—that when comrade William "is once relieved from the mighty matters of national and world-wide importance which now command his attention, he will see that justice is done."

An English naval officer expresses his admiration of one minor feature of Admiral Sampson's operations. This was the daily issue on the flag-ship of bulletins for the information of the squadron. The system was originated by Capt. Chadwick, it seems. On a small hand-press the bulletins were printed, and distribution made as far as possible throughout the fleet. All that could be told without injury of the movements of vessels, the whereabouts of the enemy, the general plan of operations, etc., was told; the idea being, of course, to appeal to the intelligence of the men as well as to rely upon their unquestioning obedience to orders. This is

only a recognition of the fact that the men at the guns and in the engine-rooms think and reason as truly as the men on the bridge, and can be counted upon for greater alacrity and more effective coöperation if the officers do not make a mystery and a monopoly of their information. It may be true that, as the sailor said who was captured with Hobson, men in the American navy do not know, and do not seek to know, the reason of the orders given them to execute; but there can be no doubt that they will appreciate every tribute to their intelligence, and will fight the better for knowing what they are expected to do and why they fight.

Sagasta evidently has the Cortes well in hand. He makes the Senate sit in secret session, which of itself is a great discourager of eloquence bent on rousing the country. He also, as was foreshadowed, refuses to lay before the Cortes any of the official documents relating to the war or to the negotiations for peace. To do so would be "inimical to the public interests." All that he wants of the Cortes is that it pass a bill enabling him in a constitutional manner to alienate national territory. Do that, he says, and then I will prorogue you instanter, and will summon you again and tell you all when peace is finally established. It is clear that the Cortes will be compelled to acquiesce. The reason is that the country is absolutely indifferent. Señor Moret, late Minister for the Colonies, has been travelling about in the interior a good deal, and he says the people care for nothing except to be let alone and allowed to work and given no more fighting to do. Moret also affirms that the final terms of peace, no matter how hard they may be, will be accepted by the country and the Cortes. There will be much muttering by Carlists and Republicans, but the inevitable will be bowed to in the end; Sagasta will get his way and secure endorsement for all his measures, and then retire to let who will undertake the reorganization of the finances.

The news from the Sudan is not all happy and glorious. The little bit of anxiety which came from the news that the Khalifa's gunboat had been driven off by a French force at Fashoda, is now increased by the news that the French force at that place has been reinforced, and that they may have to be turned out by hook or by crook. This is all the more disquieting because the public, some time ago, was led to believe that the French-African disputes with England had been amicably settled, and that no more trouble in that quarter was to be feared. If the story of the occupation of Fashoda be true, however, it would appear either that the French Foreign Office had not full control over its subordinates in Africa, or that Lord Salisbury had been again imposed on by sweet words. This trouble has, however, hung on so long that the British public is rather out of patience, and it would take very little, on the top of the national pride in the triumph of the army in the Sudan, to precipitate some kind of hostile action on the Nile. The revelations, too, in the Dreyfus affair have begotten in England a certain mixture of disgust and contempt for the French nation, which will make peacemaking difficult, if anything has gone wrong. There is, also, a small Abyssinian cloud on the horizon which is causing some uneasiness. French or Russian intriguing to get Menelek to interfere with Kitchener's triumphal progress is strongly suspected, and Menelek has 200,000 good fighting men on Kitchener's flank, and is of a jealous temperament.

The rioting and massacres in Crete will sharply remind the British Government that imperialism has its drawbacks as well as its glories. If you want constant occupation for soldiers and ships, and an unending succession of vexing questions in government and of international complications, there is nothing like imperialism for giving them to you. The only wonder is that the troubles in Crete did not come to a climax sooner. For more than a year has the concert of Europe been trying to settle upon a government for that unhappy island, but it has not yet been able to agree. Consequently there has been only a very remarkable kind of temporary condominium, or international police to keep order—so many British marines and ships, so many French, Russian, and Italian. Germany became disgusted with the absurd situation some time ago, and withdrew her contingent. Doubtless the rioters will be put down speedily and order restored; but it is not only the Mussulmans who will say that the present system of governing Crete is intolerable, and that the concert of Europe must soon find a better one or take its hands off entirely.

The Czar's proposals of disarmament are not the first that have been laid before Europe. In 1864 Napoleon III. took up the matter. When opening the French Chambers in that year, he spoke of Europe as in a condition which was "neither peace with its security, nor war with its happy chances," and said he would strive to secure an international congress in which "self-interest would disappear before a supreme arbitration." All the Powers responded favorably to Napoleon's advances except England. Lord John Russell was then in office, and doubted Napoleon's sincerity. It was his opposition which brought the whole plan to the ground. But England, in her turn, made a proposition five years later for reducing military forces. Lord Clarendon, alarmed at the growth of the French and German armies, opened communications with various countries to see if a simultaneous diminution of armed forces could not be made. France agreed to reduce her army by 10,000 men if Germany would do the same; but Bismarck refused to do anything, maintaining that the German army was smaller than the French in proportion to population. So this scheme fell through also. Speaking of it later in the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone made some remarks which are not without pertinence now:

> "Lord Clarendon believed—and I shared his belief then, as I still share it—that if you could gather the plenipotentiaries of Europe round a table to hear a discussion on disarmament, their meetings would end in no substantial result, and that the only way in which a measure of disarmament can be initiated is in detail. It is to take advantage of some occasion when particular countries are in face of each other, burdening their own people, exhausting their own resources, and endangering peace, to endeavor to prevail on them, relatively to these particular circumstances, to pursue a more rational course. . . . To address other Powers on this subject is a very serious step. It was necessary that we should stand *recti in curia*, and that we should not be met with the remark, 'What are you doing yourselves? You preach the gospel of peace, but are your hands free from the stain of blood?'"

The assassination of the Empress of Austria will bring Europe once more face to face with the old problem, what to do with the Anarchists. If they were a discontented sect or party with definite grievances, there might be some way of dealing with them, but the difficulty is that they cannot say definitely what ails them. They cannot go further than to declare that they hate everybody who is better off than themselves, and that they are ready to die in order to show it. As the people who are better off than themselves include the wealthy and respectable and industrious of all climes, it is hard to know what reply to make. This particular kind of human being has been held in check since the earliest ages by fear of death and torture, but we have abolished torture, and in many places death, as punishments, and the Anarchists apparently do not fear death. Hell used to be supposed to have a deterrent effect on such people, but hell has become a kind of joke which they enjoy as much as others. Advice or counsel they reject if it comes from the class to which society has as a rule assigned the function of giving advice—that is, the educated and well-to-do and elderly; the class, in short, which is content with the world as it now is. There is no doubt that this tragedy will send a thrill of horror through every palace in Europe. It seems to mean that even women, if highly placed, will have to be surrounded by police when they walk abroad, or live like the Pope in a huge walled garden.

HOW TO DO IT AND HOW NOT TO DO IT.

Before the extraordinary Egyptian campaign of Gen. Kitchener passes from memory, the real significance of it for students of the art of war, such as Americans in a body are now supposed to be, should be dwelt upon again and again. It was a masterpiece of mathematics that Kitchener executed, as fine a bit of scientific application of means to ends as ever Moltke exhibited. Of course, no one expected that the Dervishes would come out of their intrenchments and away from their few Krupp guns and try the old game of rushing a British square bristling with machine guns. But Kitchener was as ready for that as he was for assaulting the works of Omdurman, if it had proved necessary; and the precision of his artillery fire was only a part of the deadly and fated precision and smoothness with which his whole plan moved on to triumphant execution.

Now the thing for us to observe is that this splendid stroke of war was the result of months and years of the severest and most skilled preparation—a preparation, furthermore, left absolutely unhampered by political influences. Sir Herbert Kitchener was chosen to head the expedition because he was the one man pointed out by experience and special services in Egypt as precisely fitted for the work. Then he was given a perfectly free hand in planning the campaign and selecting his lieutenants. The enormous difficulties he had to overcome were surmounted so easily that we are apt to forget how enormous they were. Major Arthur Griffiths details some of them in his article in the *Fortnightly*, written, of course, before the event at Khartum was known. There was, first of all, the tremendous obstacle of distance. From the base at Cairo to the arsenal and storehouse at Wady Halfa is 800 miles; thence to Berber is upwards of 300 miles more. Along this line of 1,100 miles had to be carried every ounce of powder, every gun, every ration, by boat and improvised railway and on camel-back. Our shipping troops and supplies to Santiago and Porto Rico was child's play in comparison. And the fierceness of climate was almost as great as that we had to face in Cuba. Where the battle was finally fought, the mercury reaches 100 every day. But everything was provided in advance with such foresight, preparation went hand in hand with execution with such marvellous intelligence, that Kitchener was enabled to announce long beforehand the day of his capture of Omdurman. In the result, he was, we believe, but one day out in his reckoning—but that was one day ahead of his schedule! For that he doubtless had to thank the rashness of the Dervishes in putting their trust in prayer and Allah and marching out to be mowed down instead of awaiting assault.

But the crucial point for Americans to observe in all this wonderful exactness of preparation is that there was no bedevilling of the campaign with politics. Major Griffiths says that Kitchener was left absolutely the choice of his officers and aides.

> "He has ever tried to get the best assistance possible; he is a judge of character, and he has been very fair and public-spirited in the use of his patronage. A service which offers large promises of promotion and distinction has been eagerly sought after. *Great pressure, political and social*, has been brought to bear upon the man who really controlled nominations; for the Sirdar's recommendations have been invariably respected at the War Office. But in no case has aught but merit availed, and the result is that the officers now serving in Egypt are 'the pick of the basket,' the brightest and best in the Queen's service."

Here we see that human nature is not different in England from what it is here—the "pull" in politics is just as eagerly sought there as here; but the great fact is that, in military matters, it is not allowed to work. Secretary Brodrick was just as much beset by "social and political pressure" as was Secretary Alger, and the blandishments that were lavished upon Miles and McKinley to secure appointments to the army by favor were tried equally upon Kitchener. The difference was not in exemption from "pressure," but in the way of meeting it. Not one subordinate was forced upon Kitchener. Not a single officer was detailed for service on any ground but that of merit. No wonder the campaign went off like clockwork. There were no politicians "monkeying" with the works.

The contrast we present is painful, but it is necessary to rub it into the public mind, and show how politics worked out its native mischiefs in the disasters which have marked the mismanagement of our War Department. Otherwise we shall be falling into the same ditch the next time. Compared with the way in which "political and social pressure" simply broke its teeth on the military authorities in England, look at our Capt. Alger and Major Foraker and Lieut. Sewell and Capt. Brice and Major Griscom and Lieut. Hobart, and all the rest. We do not pretend to have got the titles of these young men straight. Whatever their rank, they might just as reasonably have been appointed field marshals and done with it. The point is that competence and merit were thrown to the winds, and politics and the social "pull" given free sway in the army. The result was never for a moment in doubt. Army experts prophesied the breakdown which came in the very departments to which these favorites were assigned. Doubtless, the President and the Secretary of War thought they were very astute in making appointments to conciliate all forms of sentiment; but what they were really doing was to create the conditions grimly summarized by a sick and starving soldier of the regular army: "There's been too much d——d politics in this war. Too many young fellers are strutting around Washington with shoulder-straps on who don't know their business."

Khartum and Santiago write a contrast in campaigning which Americans may take to heart. We are certainly in for a larger army establishment for some time to come. Already there is welcome talk by army authorities about the urgent need of reorganizing the bureaus and departments. A transport system must be built up in such a way as to make *Seneca* horrors impossible. More perfect dovetailing between the commissariat and the medical service and the Quartermaster-General must be devised. Gen. Wheeler has spoken strongly about the more pressing demands of the army in the field as such. But when all is done we shall not get rid of the curse of the army until we get politics out of it. Perfect the machine as you may, a few blundering incompetents, foisted into office through political and social influences, will wreck it. The English War Office has shown us how to do it, just as Alger has given a perfect demonstration of how not to do it. If we would have an army that can go through war and come out with as fine a record and as free from scandals as the navy, we must make it like the navy in being the home of skilled intelligence and absolutely free from the slime of politics.

THE CASE OF THE CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILROAD.

The opinion rendered by the Interstate Commerce Commission in the matter of the differential rates claimed by the Canadian Pacific Railroad illustrates in a very striking way the confusion that now prevails in our railroad law. The case originated in the determination of the trunk lines in the Northwestern part of the United States to obtain what they regarded as a fair share of the business to the Klondike region. Before this business arose, the Canadian Pacific had been allowed by some roads a "differential rate" on through passengers of from $5 to $7.50, and had made a regular treaty with its chief rival, the Great Northern Railroad, for various mutual considerations. Then came the decision of the Supreme Court pronouncing illegal all agreements concerning rates; and as the rush to the Klondike began soon after, the rivals of the Canadian Pacific began to sell tickets at from $10 to $15 less than their tariff rates, the concessions being made by increasing the commissions of ticket agents. The Canadian road retaliated by reducing its rates still lower, until a first-class ticket from Boston to Seattle was sold in March, for $35, and all the roads, of course, lost much of the profits of the unusually large business of the season.

At an early stage of the fight the Canadian road offered to submit the question of differentials to arbitration, provided the old rates should be meanwhile restored, but the other lines declined the proposal. It was then renewed without any condition, and was considered favorably by all the roads except the Great Northern, whose abstention prevented the adoption of the plan. Meanwhile the United States roads had obtained from the Interstate Commission the suspension of the "long and short-haul clause," in order to lower their through rates as much as they pleased. There had previously been a very remarkable episode, to which the Commerce Commission does not allude. It was the surreptitious insertion in the Dingley tariff act of a clause which would have practically excluded the Canadian roads from doing business in this country. This proceeding is commonly supposed to have been instigated by the Great Northern Road, and was rendered unavailing only by a construction put on the clause by Attorney-General McKenna, which was by no means the least remarkable feature of the whole affair. As a last resort the United States roads appealed to the Commerce Commission, and the Canadian Pacific Road consented to appear before that body and to have the whole controversy investigated. The commission, of course, had merely advisory powers in such a matter, but all the roads seem to have wished that these powers might be exercised.

The commission now finds that there was nothing outrageous in the conduct of the Canadian road, as charged by its rivals. While there may have been reasons why the differential in this case should not have been granted, yet in claiming it the Canadian road did nothing more than had been done by all the others. Its rivals, the Northern Pacific and Great Northern, the commission declares, "cut their rates in wilful violation of the law, and thereby not only abolished the differential, but took a substantial differential for themselves." Nor does the commission see anything wrong in the present attitude of the Canadian Pacific Road respecting the settlement of the question. It refuses to hold that a Canadian road should in no case charge less than a road in the United States, as by so holding the benefits of Canadian competition might be destroyed. Whether the Canadian roads should be allowed to participate in the business of this country is a broad question, the determination of which should be left to the High Joint Commission, now in session at Quebec, and to Congress. The claims of the United States roads that the Canadian Pacific enjoys special privileges from our Government by reason of exemption from taxes, and that on the general principles of the protective policy our roads should enjoy special favor, receive little consideration from the commission.

Coming to the main question of differential rates, the commission finds that at present the conditions under which the Canadian Pacific operates are so favorable that it labors under no relative disadvantage. There is no reason, therefore, why the former differential should be allowed. But, the commission points out, it has no power either to allow or to disallow the differential in dispute. It insists that it must be distinctly understood that it cannot recommend the settlement of this controversy "by the making of any agreement, involving arbitration or otherwise, which is in violation of the anti-Trust law, as interpreted by the United States Supreme Court." Here is the crux. The decision of that court in the Trans-Missouri case stands squarely across the path of settlement of this and every other controversy about railroad rates. That decision prohibits all agreements between railroad companies concerning their charges, whether they be reasonable or unreasonable. Its scope is so broad that no step in the direction of terminating railroad wars is legal. So far as the law is concerned, the existence of controversies over rates is not recognized. Every railroad must fix its rates without agreement or understanding with any other, and the very idea of arbitration is absurd. Were arbitrators to recommend any agreement concerning differentials, it would be illegal for the railroads to accept their decision, and it would be encouraging the violation of law for the arbitrators to render it.

While this is technically true, it must be said that the consequences of this unfortunate decision are so absurd as practically to nullify its force. The railroads come before the Commerce Commission and openly state that they have made agreements to maintain certain rates, and ask the aid of the commission in enforcing these illegal agreements. The commission extends this aid to a certain extent by suspending the long-and-short-haul clause, and practically recognizes differential rates as proper, whether lawful or not. Here, as in many other cases, it is a deplorable fact that our legislatures enact laws of such character as to make it impossible to do business without violating them, and a very large part of the trade of the country is, if not illegal, at least extra-legal. This result constitutes an instructive commentary on the desire of the Interstate Commerce Commission to enlarge its jurisdiction. It complains that its decisions have not the authority of the judgments of a court; but have they not as much authority as the judgment of the Supreme Court in the Trans-Missouri case? The appeal of the great railroads to this commission in the Canadian Pacific case is very significant. It was practically a submission of the question to arbitration, and it may be doubted if the Commerce Commission can be of more service in any other capacity than in that of a board of arbitrators. If they accept this office and discharge it well, the railroads will resort to them, and will be driven by public opinion to accept their awards. It is true that their awards will have no legal validity, but neither do the agreements of the railroads have any legal validity. As such agreements are made and will continue to be made, in spite of laws prohibiting them, there seems no impropriety in submitting questions arising under them to a tribunal whose mandates have no legal sanction.

THE CURRENCY MOVEMENT.

The payment of gold in large amounts into the Treasury for regular public dues has now become a phenomenon of first-rate importance. How rapidly the use of gold for this purpose is increasing may be judged by current returns of Treasury balances. During the whole month of August, the Government's gold reserve increased $26,400,000; during the first week in September, it made a further increase of $23,700,000. It is, in fact, now rising at the rate of three to four million dollars daily, and if a heavy gold import movement presently begins, in the face of the harvest demand for small currency West and South, we may expect to see the public dues paid almost entirely in gold. The Treasury's gold reserve has long since passed the highest figure of its history. In March, 1888, this reserve touched $218,800,000; it is now above $230,000,000, and is rising rapidly. This is so striking an incident in itself, and contrasts so curiously with the constant drain of gold from the Treasury between 1890 and 1896, that it deserves some special examination.

We find two superficial explanations advanced to account for this singular situation. It is said, to begin with, that our foreign trade has for two years yielded so large a credit balance in our favor that gold imports in quantity have made that form of money the most available for use in banking settlements. Second, it is alleged that the Treasury is now absorbing, through its revenue and bond subscriptions, so large a total sum of money that it has left in circulation not enough currency other than gold coin to provide for the current needs of trade.

Now it is true, of course, that the use of gold in quantity for settlement of Treasury dues is encouraged by the increase in the stock of gold on hand. But it does not follow, because the banks have plenty of gold on hand, that they will necessarily use it for such payments. All other things being equal, they would certainly prefer to use the legal tenders, which are readily portable

and thus more convenient for delivery. Nor is it true that the Treasury has absorbed so large a part of the country's paper circulation that not enough is left for the needs of trade. As a matter of fact, the Treasury's balances of silver certificates and legal tenders is less by $15,000,000 than it was a year ago this week.

The truth of the matter is not difficult to discover. There is a relative scarcity of legal tenders outside the Treasury, and this in spite of the fact that the Government has reduced its holdings of such money. The New York banks a year ago held $102,130,000 legal tender, or twice as much as at the present moment, and yet within four weeks, when interior trade grew active during the harvest season, they lost fully one-third of such legal-tender holdings. Naturally, under such circumstances, the banks are reluctant to part with legal tenders to the Government, when it is "small money" which the West and South always demand for the use of their autumn trade. This fact explains why the banks are settling their public dues in gold, of which they hold $56,000,000 more than they held twelve months ago, and not in legal tender.

But the question still remains, What has become of the surplus legal tender—the fifty millions lost by the New York banks, the fifteen millions by the Treasury? The answer is, that interior trade, interior wealth, and interior bank deposits have so far enlarged under the prosperous business of the last two years that constant use in their own channels of industry is found by the West and South for a vastly larger sum of money. Much of this smaller currency has gone into the pockets of the more prosperous inhabitants of those sections, and is staying there. A good deal has been retained by the interior banks to strengthen their cash reserves against the largely increased deposits of local customers. Much also was sent in the summer season for deposit with larger city institutions, whence it can readily be recalled. By last month's showing of the Comptroller of the Currency, such deposits were $30,000,000 larger than they were a year before.

All this movement is perfectly natural. When trade is active and individual profits large, more actual money is needed, and more will be obtained, than in a season of dulness and business losses; and this rule equally applies to nations, sections, States, and towns. The simple record of clearing-house exchanges for all points outside of New York city showed in August a gain of 9½ per cent. over August, 1897, and in 1897 the same month's gain over 1896 was no less than 20 per cent. Nothing is more entirely normal, under such conditions, than the withdrawal of paper money from both the Eastern banks and the public Treasury, and its retention in interior circulation. Nothing, again, is more natural than that the Eastern banks, thus depleted of their currency reserves, should draw on the outside world to replace such loss with gold, and should use the gold for settlements with the Treasury.

Should there now occur, as we hardly apprehend, a genuine scarcity of legal tender, something may yet be heard of the advocates of an increased Government paper-money circulation. The Treasury notes of 1890 were authorized in response to a similar demand, under rather similar conditions. But the authors of the act of 1890 forgot that under our present laws Government currency, once issued, cannot be reduced in volume, whereas the trade which fully employs that currency to-day may shrink in another year to the most meagre proportions. This was precisely the result of the experiment of 1890. Instead of sending legal tenders to the interior, the Eastern banks, in a year or two, were overflowing with surplus currency returned from the West and South, where trade no longer called for the increased supply. Instead of importing gold from Europe to supply a vacuum in our Eastern currency supply, the city money markets were so overcrowded with reserves that gold flowed steadily out across the ocean. Instead of using gold for every kind of payment to the Treasury, the banks employed for the purpose the superfluous and constantly increasing legal tenders, with the resultant crumbling of the Treasury's gold reserve.

What has happened once may happen again, and is extremely likely some time to happen unless the currency system is adapted to the legitimate needs of trade. In a country of so vast extent as ours, and with such diversity of interests, we shall be constantly swinging from one evil to the other—confronted one year with a domestic currency too small for the needs of a year of heavy trade, and another year with a paper circulating medium so utterly out of proportion to such requirements as to force a wholesale expulsion of standard money from the country. There is, it seems to us, no possible escape from such a situation save in the adoption of such a currency as will adjust itself to a season's trade requirements, and no one has yet discovered any such system except through bank-note issues.

"THE SEA POWER."

KESWICK, ENG., August 30, 1898.

There could not be a better proof of Capt. Mahan's literary skill than the way he has roused both England and America about the value of the "sea power." A great many of his readers really think he has made a great discovery, and that not only is he an acute historian and charming narrator, but that he is, in a certain sense, the revealer to the world of the secret of national supremacy. He has, in the eyes of many people, made it clear that the true road to national greatness is the construction of navies large enough to give the command of the sea, and thus insure a full line of transmarine possessions, islands, forts, and coaling stations. No matter how much territory, how many ports and vessels you may have, if you do not have some foreign possessions, to be held by the aid of the "sea power," you are "nowhere," as the boys say.

Now the state of things is simply this. At the beginning of this century, Prussia discovered the "land power"—that is, that there was no national greatness, or even safety, without putting all the young men of the country under arms. The success of this was so great, as a military measure, that it went on growing in favor until it finally won the battle of Sadowa. Every nation, except England, then followed suit. All began vying with each other in the number of men they could put in the ranks of a standing army. There had to be more cavalry, or more artillery, or more infantry, because some neighbor or presumed enemy had more, and the game of competition went merrily on until it was brought to a standstill by the want of more young men and the need of hands for the ordinary business of life. It is safe to say that in France, Italy, Germany, and Russia to-day there is not a young man to spare from the work of agriculture and manufactures. Europe is literally in arms. The "land power" has been brought to its last possible limits. And no wonder.

No matter what may be said about the "sea power," it requires a good deal of special pleading to make the world think meanly of the "land power"—that is, of great masses of infantry, cavalry, and artillery. All the great wars of the world down to Waterloo were carried on by land power—Alexander's, the Barbarian invasion of Rome, the Mohammedan overthrow of Greek civilization, the English triumphs in France in the fifteenth century, Marlboro's triumphs in the Low Countries, Napoleon's conquest of Europe. Napoleon's greatest victories were won after he had lost his navy. Last of all, the Germans fought their way to Paris while the French were in complete possession of the seas. Of course, all this may be explained away, and some sort of rôle conceded for the sea power; but the world has been persuaded by the experience of three thousand years, not that God is "with the big ships," but that he is with the "big battalions," and has gone on cultivating the big battalions until the whole system has broken down, by its own weight, and produced the recent extraordinary invitation from the Emperor of Russia to stop it for the sake of civilization, just as we are beginning the mad race.

This invitation did not come, however, until there had been ten or twelve years' vigorous cultivation of the "sea power." About fifteen years ago the European Powers began trying to outdo each other in the building of ironclads and inventing new guns. Within ten years America has joined in the struggle, and we are yelling with triumph over our new navy, and Captain Mahan is trying to show us that the more of it we have, the better off we shall be. But is there any historical foundation for this belief? I venture to assert that it is not the number of the ships or guns which has given the sea power to any people at any

time, but the character of the people themselves and the government which owned the fleets. For three centuries the Spaniards had the sea power and a great colonial system, and were all the while marching steadily to their ruin. The great Armada that was fitted out for the invasion of England at the close of the sixteenth century was the greatest display of sea power, considering the state of navigation at the time, ever made, and how did it end? It was speedily disposed of by a few free Protestants in small ships—that is, by character and institutions. A few years later—that is, in 1607—the Dutch, then a poor, small people which had just emerged from a hideous war with Philip on account of their religion, faced the Spaniards on the sea, and the Spaniards had still the "sea power." The Spanish Admiral had a large fleet, and was cruising off Gibraltar to keep the Dutch out of the Mediterranean, and was so sure of victory that he invited one hundred and fifty Spanish gentlemen to join him, to see the enemy get his thrashing. The fight lasted eight hours. Here is Sully's account of the result, and he was a contemporary:

"The Dutch remained victorious, and found the victory had cost them only two ships and about 250 men. The Spaniards lost sixteen ships, three consumed by fire, and the rest sunk by the cannonade; also, 35 captains of ships, 50 of the volunteer 'gentlemen,' and 2,800 soldiers and sailors. . . . All Spain was filled with horror."

We see here it was the Armada and Trafalgar and Manila and Santiago over again. For four centuries the Spaniards had a splendid sea power—estimated by the number of ships and weight of artillery, greater than the rest of Europe put together—and what good did it do them? It simply developed pretensions and invited attacks which hastened their ruin and destroyed the national character. While they were building big ships and burning heretics, Englishmen were learning the lessons of freedom and industry and science and literature and toleration, and we see the result. Spain had a fine fleet at the outbreak of the late war, and it inspired apprehensions even among our naval men. People were afraid to hire houses on the coast for the summer. It appeared that both officers and crews "knew how to die"—that is, they knew how to let themselves be slaughtered like sheep—but what else did they know? No wonder we are fêting Cervera. He could not have served us better if he had drawn a salary from us. Conquering such men is very like whacking seals on the head at the Pribyloff Islands.

Now why did England begin to excel in the "land power" in the fifteenth century? Why were Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt great victories, even against tremendous, almost ridiculous, odds? For precisely the same reason that she now excels in the "sea power." Bacon gives it in the 'Essays.' I am unable to cite the passage at this moment, for I have no books at hand, but it is easily found. He says the superiority of the English soldiers to the French was due to the fact that in England the yeoman, the farmer, who took down his bow and bill to follow the King to his wars, was more of a man, more independent and self-respecting than the French peasant; that in England the common man counted for more, the gentleman for less. The men who, as Latimer said, "made all France afraid," were men like his father, who brought up his family in decency, gave them an education, feared God and honored the King, and respected himself—not a poor, down-trodden peasant, dragged to the field by his seigneur. It is this which has for centuries been the salvation of England. She owes her superiority, in short, to her freedom, her laws, her spirit of justice, her love of industry; not to the "sea power." The sea power has come, owing to the spirit which repelled the Armada, not the ability to repel the Armada or fight Trafalgar to the sea power. It is only recently that England has had what it is now the fashion to call the "sea power"—that is, superiority in number of ships and sailors. She has, of course, apparently made this a necessity by the extent of her possessions, but it is not by it she has won the possessions.

To this, too, I take it, America owes that skill in the use of the navy, and that goodness of American troops in the field as shown at Santiago, according to all observers, not to drilling and manœuvring or getting ready for war. How is it we have such readiness to fight and even such eagerness to fight in a good cause? Why do other Powers shrink from getting into a quarrel with us? Simply because a century's peaceful industry has given us tremendous resources, and because our education and system of government and institutions have given us a population of remarkable independence, morality, and sense of justice. Suppose we had been drilling for two centuries, and putting all our young men in barracks, or sending them to sea to work guns, should we have been one-quarter as formidable antagonists as we are to-day?

Reflections like these are suggested by Mr. Goschen's calling, in Parliament, the other day, for eight new battle-ships, avowedly because Russia was building four, and our entrance into the game to build six. After this, has come the Emperor of Russia's amazing proposal that the mad race should stop, just as we are beginning it; that the peoples of Christendom should turn their attention and talents, not to the work of destroying each other, but of averting disease, prolonging life, promoting the arts and sciences, or, in other words, making the lot of man on earth less and not more miserable. He acknowledges that the use of national savings for the past fifty years to promote "land power" and "sea power" is all a mistake; that it is time to stop it and think of things more becoming to our religion and civilization. E. L. G.

THE CAMBRIDGE SCIENTIFIC CONGRESSES.

WIMEREUX, PAS-DE-CALAIS, FRANCE,
September 1, 1898.

The week ending August 28 saw two international congresses at Cambridge—the Zoologists and the Physiologists—each celebrating its fourth meeting. These two congresses are distinct in all respects from one another, and it was only by accident that they met at the same place. Indeed, they seemed—especially the Physiologists—to wish to emphasize their difference, having separate organizations, separate programmes, separate membership requirements, etc. The Physiologists—fearing, possibly, the ubiquitous anti-vivisectionist—met with closed doors, not even extending the courtesy of admission to the Zoölogists, save in exceptional cases. The foreigners felt that this was a serious curtailment of their advantages and profit. It would have been better had the congresses met in different weeks in order that a scientific man might attend both if he wished without conflict of hours and interests.

I shall accordingly confine myself to the Zoölogical Congress. It was presided over by Sir John Lubbock, who took the place of Sir William Flower, the President elected at the meeting three years ago at Leyden. Sir William was unable to preside, and upon his nomination Sir John was elected by the council to take his place. The general meetings were held at the Guildhall in the forenoons, and the four sections—for General Zoölogy, Verterbrates, Invertebrates except Arthropoda, and Arthropoda, respectively—met in various rooms in the University laboratory buildings. The programmes were not crowded, and the discussions were of considerable interest. Passing over the more technical papers of the sections, I may report briefly upon the proceedings in the general sessions.

The congress was opened on Tuesday morning in the Guildhall with short addresses by Sir John Lubbock and by delegates of several of the countries represented (Milne-Edwards, France; Schulze, Germany; Hubrecht, Holland; Marsh, United States; Solensky, Russia; Mitsukuri, Japan). The Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Hill, Master of Downing College, and Professor Newton of the Cambridge committee, responded. Vice-Presidents were elected, including Prof. Marsh of Yale University. A report was presented by Dr. Stiles of the United States Embassy at Berlin on behalf of a committee on zoölogical nomenclature appointed at the last congress. This report was laid before the meeting, and the committee was continued at its request. A committee also reported on the action of the last Postal Congress at Washington, providing that zoölogical and botanical specimens should be transmitted as merchandise, and this intelligence was received with marks of gratification by the congress. A further committee reported on the prizes established in 1892 by the Emperor Alexander III. of Russia and the Tsesarevitch. It has been determined that one prize (called the Emperor Alexander III. prize) shall be awarded every three years by the Zoölogical Congress, and that the other (called the Emperor Nicholas II. prize) shall be awarded alternately by this congress and by the Congress of Prehistoric Anthropology. The first of these prizes has already been awarded once, to Dr. Scharff of Dublin. The committee reported on the current competition, awarding the Alexander III. prize to E. de Pousargues of the Museum of Natural History in Paris, for a memoir on "The Ruminants of Central Asia" (the topic put in competition), and the Nicholas II. prize to Dr. E. Hecht of Nancy, for an "Étude des Nudibranches" (the topic advertised being the Marine Invertebrates).

On Tuesday afternoon in Section D two interesting papers were presented on the Color of Lepidoptera. Dr. C. Piepers investigated the evolution of their color, and E. Bordage reported interesting experiments on the relation of the color of their chrysalis to that of the environment. The general discussion on Wednesday was on the "Position of the Sponges in the Animal Kingdom." Mr. Minchin of Oxford presented letters, etc., showing that Dr. Dobie should share with Dujardin the discovery that sponges belong to the animal kingdom. This discussion was remarkable for the divergence of views brought out, and revealed the present uncer-

tainty attaching to the whole question. Others who took part were Vosmaer of Utrecht and Saville Kent of Queensland. In the afternoon Prof. Haeckel presented the principles of phylogenetic classification enunciated first in his 'Generale Morphologie' and later (1896) in his 'Systematische Phylogenie.' His lecture served as an introduction to the discussion to be spoken of below. An important paper before Section C on this day was that by Prof. Vejdowsky of Prague, on phenomena of fertilization and division in the eggs of Rhynchelmis, with demonstrations. Another of his was on a peculiar sense-organ of certain leeches, consisting of "a large projecting epithelial cell, the base of which is embraced by a cup-shaped muscle-cell."

The general session on Thursday was devoted to a consideration of the "Origin of the Mammals." Prof. Seeley of London and Prof. Osborn of New York opened the discussion. Their papers were valuable as résumés of the present state of knowledge on this question. Both held to a reptilian origin, Prof. Osborn emphasizing the convergence of the mammals to the insectivora in the Jurassic age. In the debate which followed, several well-known men took part. Prof. Hubrecht of Holland claimed that the evidence from embryology is most important, especially as having negative or control force, and from it upheld his well-known theory (expounded in his Princeton lectures two years ago) of the origin of the mammals from viviparous ancestors. This was vigorously opposed by Prof. Adam Sedgwick of Cambridge, who was inclined to throw over the evidence both from embryology and from palæontology; to consider the fossils, as he said, as "sisters and cousins and aunts" rather than as fathers and grandfathers of the present mammalian forms, and to place their real ancestors in some period quite prefossiliferous. He thinks the embryological record so defective that the principle of recapitulation formulated in Von Baer's law can hardly be appealed to. Examples cited by him are the lack in the embryo horse of polydactylic indications, the absence of feet in embryonic snakes, and of teeth in embryonic birds. This accentuates the attitude taken by Sedgwick several years ago in his paper on Recapitulation. Both Marsh and Hubrecht suggested that some points of agreement between mammals (as in the teeth) may be due to progress or adaptation in parallel lines rather than to direct descent. Haeckel expressed confidence in the embryological method.

It has always seemed to the present writer that the dependence of the palæontologist on the bony structures, and their inability to take any account of the soft parts, which are not preserved in the fossils, is a great limitation; while the very fact that the embryological record is defective, showing gaps and folds, becomes a new source of information to the embryologists. Sedgwick himself has pointed out that these defects of the record are to be referred to certain causes which are in many cases adaptive. So, while embryology may have its difficulties, it would still seem to be on the whole the most reliable resource, provided Von Baer's law is even approximately true. Furthermore, it is not in the bony parts that a complete record of progressive changes would be preserved in either field of investigation, but in the softer parts with which embryology alone would deal. A bone would often have to be entirely sacrificed or very much changed in effecting a new adaptation, while a soft part would yield and retain something of its earlier form through many generations. It is interesting to note that all the three illustrations given above as cited by Sedgwick to show defects in the embryological record are bony structures (*i. e.*, toes, feet, and teeth). Yet I am not sure that he did not cite other cases as well.

The following morning, Friday, every one turned out to hear Haeckel on "Our Present Knowledge of the Descent of Man." Prof. Haeckel is a large, serene, gracious, engaging personality, and was the most interesting figure in the congress, quite apart from his reputation. His lecture was a popular presentation of the general theory of evolution, with allusions to Darwin proper to the time and place, and also to Herbert Spencer, with whom he sides with much emphasis in support of Lamarckianism. It may indicate the present attitude of the philosophical mind at Cambridge to say that Mr. Spencer's name was received with no applause, indeed, almost with coldness, just after Darwin's had been vigorously clapped. While mentioning this, I may add that the allusions to Francis Balfour, also a Trinity man, who lost his life a few years ago while climbing in Switzerland, were greeted in all cases with enthusiasm little less than that shown for Darwin. No doubt, in Balfour's case—important as his work was—the local tradition is very much alive.

Haeckel's address dwelt upon the evidence accruing from comparative anatomy and palæontology to the theory of evolution. Under each head his remarks were very general. He cited Virchow's dictum as that of a man who had no right to speak. As illustrating the descent of man, he showed a series of skeletons, beginning with the lemurs (after Huxley) and coming up to man. His most interesting point, though not a new one, was that the distance, anatomically considered, between the lower apes and the anthropoids is less than that between the latter and man. As showing a certain extravagance attaching to many of Haeckel's opinions, I may cite his remark that unless the inheritance of acquired characters be granted, we must go back to "mysticism and Moses." Everybody knows that many of the most competent zoölogists—I think a decided majority—have given up the Lamarckian view of heredity and still remain evolutionists. Haeckel exhibited a chart in which the spectrum appeared in parallel columns with the phylogenetic procession of animal forms; the violet, starting from black, illustrating the midnight of earliest time, when the so-called protophyla alone existed, and passing up through the gathering dawn of the intermediate colors to the brilliant red daylight of the primates and man. Incidentally, also, he pronounced in favor of considering the Pithecanthropus of Dubois as a genuine "missing link" between the anthropoid apes and man, and declared very wisely, after saying that perhaps 1,400,000,000 years have been needed for the evolution process, that he had no "intuition" as to the exact period.

Following this, in the same session, Dr. Dubois read his paper, called "Remarks on the Brain-Cast of Pithecanthropus Erectus." This will probably prove to be one of the most important communications made to the congress. It will be remembered that Dr. Dubois showed the remains of this remarkable specimen, found in Java, at the last congress, held in Leyden in 1896, where the most diverse opinions were expressed as to its place and age. Of those pronouncing upon it, three said it was an ape, three said a man, and six maintained that it was an intermediate form—a "missing link."* Dubois now reports that detailed study, especially of the skull—of which he presented to the congress a cast—had fully confirmed his conclusion that the Pithecanthropus is a missing link. He compared the skull as to its capacity, dimensions, etc., with those of other famous specimens in great detail. He has also examined one thousand femurs from different races, and finds his specimen to represent a lower form. He thinks the lower limbs were adapted to tree-climbing as well as to ground locomotion—a fact which goes well with the relative brain development. The creature had a large occipital region in the brain, and there are indications of human characteristics in the sulci of the frontal region. Yet, on the whole, he found characters belonging to the apes rather than to exceptional (*i. e.*, microcephalic) men. Certain of his inferences as to the creature's brain drawn entirely from skull indications—as, for example, its probable capacity for rude speech—will no doubt be received with great caution by anthropologists. M. Dubois has discovered by later search an additional tooth belonging to Pithecanthropus. Unfortunately, discussion was curtailed on this paper by mismanagement, the time being allowed to a schoolboy-like dissertation with pictures of gorillas, and taken from Dr. Dubois, much to the disappointment of an audience assembled mainly to hear him.

Apart from the meetings there was much of interest in Cambridge. A large number of social events filled in the afternoons and evenings, and were continued afterwards in London; the museums and other collections were arranged for visitors; interesting excursions were prepared for the members. The weather was superb. The University recognized the presence of the two congresses by conferring honorary degrees upon the following distinguished men: Bowditch (Harvard), Milne-Edwards (Paris), Haeckel (Jena), Kronecker (Leipzig), Dohrn (Naples), Golgi (Italy), Hubrecht (Utrecht), Kühne (Heidelberg), Marey (Paris). Besides Prof. Bowditch, some of the American professors and instructors who attended the congress of physiologists were: Atwater (Wesleyan), Jastrow (Wisconsin), Lee (Columbia), Lombard (Michigan), Lusk (Yale), Porter (Harvard). Among the zoölogists were Profs. Mark (Harvard), Marsh (Yale), Osborn (Columbia), Watasé (Chicago), Baldwin (Princeton).

While writing about zoölogy I may say that in this little village, Wimereux, three miles from Boulogne-sur-Mer, there is established one of the most important marine zoological stations in France. It was founded in 1874 by Prof. Alfred Giard, then of Lille, now of Paris. He is known as one of those who have done most to spread evolutionary ideas among the French zoölogists. The laboratory of Wimereux is open to French and foreign students of marine life, having had also among its number professors from many countries. It was founded by a grant from the Sorbonne, with which it maintains its connection. A remarkable collection of specimens is kept in the building.

*These numbers are given by Haeckel. Any importance attaching to them depends upon who the authorities were.

The work of the laboratory is published in an annual *Bulletin Zoologique de France*, familiar to biologists. At present the annual income is inadequate and the building far too small; but the Minister of War has given to Prof. Giard the old fort of Ambleteuse, near Wimereux, to which the laboratory is soon to be transferred. J. M. B.

CARDUCCI'S LEOPARDI.

PISA MARINA, August, 1898.

Only here amid the fragrant pinewoods, the odorous ever-golden gorse, in the silence unbroken save by the rhythmic utterances of the ever-sounding and mysterious sea, have we been able to begin to make acquaintance with the new, real, genuine Leopardi as revealed by Carducci in his 'Considerations on the Spirit and Form in the Poetry of Giacomo Leopardi,' and more luminously still in the first volume of the poet's own "Literary and Philosophical Thoughts" deposited in his *Zibaldone di Pensieri* hour by hour and day by day throughout five and twenty years of his sad life of nine and thirty. The Recanati commemorative festivals held on the anniversary of Leopardi's birth (June 29, 1798) seemed to clash with one's associations with the melancholy poet, "Italy's sad son," who, according to the Mazzini-inspired Swinburne, knew all things Italian "save Italy"; and one could not but recur bitterly to the remembrance that this garlanding the tombstone could not atone to the weary poet for his uncrowned brow, nor the resounding laudations of posterity solace the genius-fed spirit for the cold, harsh unrecognition of his contemporaries. Yet, with the recently published volumes in our hands, we can almost bless the jealous love of Antonio Ranieri, Leopardi's faithful friend during life, who kept hidden from the public this depository of his thoughts till a Carducci should be at hand to interpret them.

Carducci's merit lies in an "accepted duty" imposed on him, by all suffrages, when, on the death of Ranieri's heirs, Leopardi's manuscripts became, under the terms of his will, the property of the National Library of Naples. A nephew of the poet, Giacomo, son of Pier Francesco Leopardi, contested Ranieri's right to dispose of the manuscripts which belong to the family; but the interminable litigation resulted only in the compilation of a minute inventory of the papers which remained in the possession of Ranieri's executor, Santamaria Nicolini, until April, 1897, when Senator Filippo Mariotti, President of the "Society for the Study of Italian History in the Marches," after obtaining the consent of the family, proposed the nomination of a committee for the examination and the publication of such of the manuscripts as should be deemed opportune. The Minister of Public Instruction, Gianturco, accepting the manuscripts at the hands of the family in the name of the nation, they were deposited in the Casanatense Library in Rome, and the committee, after taking cognizance of the 4,526 pages containing the "Thoughts," decided on their publication.

To Carducci fell the task of editorship at a moment when he was more than usually overwhelmed with work, just completing his thirty years' study and commentary on Petrarch, and his preface to Alberto Mario's political writings, all of which had to be suspended. "Truly a grand poet, our greatest poet of this century, our Leopardi," he wrote to us in February; "but why should the weight of his four thousand four hundred and forty-four thoughts fall on my shoulders?" But the accepted duty soon became a labor of love—every "thought" was read, and the first volume printed with an entire index to the matter that will occupy four, and with a preface which leaves one with a thirst for the volumes yet to come. That there will be an American if not an English edition of the "Thoughts" we have no doubt; never was there a greater *embarras du choix* for a would-be selecter. The general impression left by perusal is wonder and admiration at the profound wisdom, the sparkling wit, the humor so rare in Italian writers, together with the sound judgment, healthy morality, pure patriotism and admiration of patriotism manifest in this so-called poet of despair.

"Leopardi hymned the elegy of human suffering, of the travail of the universe; but before classifying him as the poet of pessimism, of nihilism, we must agree on the signification of these terms. 'Giacomo,' wrote his brother Carlo to F. Mariotti, 'was melancholy by nature, and, realizing the power of melancholy and of irony, turned them to use in his writings,' and these few and simple words give us the clue to the origin of his poetry. Deprived from his earliest years of the air of living life, of healthy, vein-fitted, muscular vitality, he gave himself up to study, in order to ground, to strengthen and train himself for the future man of letters, seeing nothing greater or higher than literature. His mind and genius developed precisely at the moment when the cloud of vague sadness which the French agree to call the *mal du siècle* condensed round literature. Not from 'this' or 'those' writers, but from one and all together, he took, as Dante has it, his first impress."

Ill health, uncared for, untended by a harsh, bigoted, unloving mother, who rejoiced that her children should die young and be taken from the evil of the world; increased by his intense devotion to study, his passionate love of beauty in the abstract, beauty in nature, beauty of the human face and form, his thirst for woman's love and the realization that it would never be accorded to his unlovely person—fostered and augmented his melancholy, which nothing in his uncongenial surroundings modified. "God," he wrote at twenty-four years of age, "has created our world so beautiful, men have made so many beautiful things, that all save idiots thirst to see and know. The world is full of marvels, and I for eighteen years keep asking, Must I live and must I die in this cavern where I was born?"

In this "cavern" he dwelt with the ancients for a time exclusively; here he made acquaintance with the world of two thousand years ago, and from that lost ancient world he deduced the difference of the present world in which he lived an alien. Later he made acquaintance with Rousseau, Chateaubriand, De Staël, the Werther of Goethe, Foscolo's Ortis, Sterne, Byron's poems in translation, Lamennais's 'Essay on Indifference.'

"Those who seek in the poet only negation, belief in the predominance of evil, who admire him only when and where they find the pessimist, should be warned that they have attained only to half-truths. Nay, it is more interesting and useful to seek and study the efforts Leopardi made to resist and repel this tendency before letting himself be carried away by sentiment and infirm thoughts to final conclusions. He never erected pessimism, negation, into a system; his poetry, with its incoherencies and exceptions and contradictions, is the intimate drama of his morbid sensitiveness, of his education so cruelly constrained and restricted, of his personality continually offended, of his lofty intellect so stubbornly upright, of his soul naturally benevolent and generous. . . . His moral philosophy, delineated in his letters, and now further revealed in his Thoughts, shows that he regards virtue, love, glory, the effective basis of country, humanity, art, as illusions, but necessary and natural illusions. Thus, those who have faith in the higher ends of civilization, and who hold with the poetry of Sophocles, Virgil, and Dante, know what to expect in Leopardi's."

In examining the poet's work of art, Carducci, repeating that its motive is human suffering, which, step by step, soars, spreads and confounds itself with the travail of the universe, finds its operative forces in a sensibility excited to passion, a representative imagination which attains to enthusiasm, a melancholy pervading but not perturbing—with a judgment secure in its proportions and its equilibrium, a healthy taste for form and color, with an exquisite musical sense, combined with a perfect classic culture.

"In his poetry you find nothing mechanical, rhetorical, or conventional; the poet, absolutely master of himself, writes when and of what he pleases, for himself and his ideas: most noble his matter and his manner. Psychologically and historically, his work may be divided into two parts: the first from 1816 to 1826, from the 'Approach of Death' (1816) to his epistle to Carlo Pepolo (1826); the second, from April 13, 1828, when he wrote the 'Risorgimento,' to 1837, when he died. The first period is characterized by psychological struggle and continuous progress in art; the second by attainment to original perfection in art, but also by soul struggle and discouragement. The first period embraces four different and distinct phases—elegiacal, patriotic, idyllic, classical."

Each of these phases Carducci examines with the master poet's touch, tracing the enthusiastic hopes, beliefs, and faiths of Leopardi's earliest years and poems, following their decline or rather hopelessness, but concluding:

"The idea of a cause, a force, a providence, or a mind outside of and distinct from matter, Leopardi, according to my idea, never eliminated, whether he called it God or Fate, Destiny or Nature. . . . Even in the strange ode to Ahriman, to the malignant power which reigns and rules, hidden, to the detriment of the human race, it is not a nullity; a first cause still is recognized."

From another point of view he writes:

"I end by regarding 'La Ginestra' as Giacomo's greatest work—this not only for its poetic value, which possesses the mathematic exactitude, the profound intuition, of Dante, together with the mild austerity, the sad serenity, and the vast comprehension of Lucretius; but for the informing thought on which he, speaking a more daring and determined language than heretofore, sets the true and final seal of his personality. He has flung off the grim power of Ahriman and has returned, as a philosopher must, if not to God and Fate, to Nature. Nature he neither praises nor deems a friend; nay, he hopes to see the human company, society, leagued against her, for the protection, welfare, and happiness of all. Thus Leopardi ended his sad poems, admitting the sadness of life, but suggesting the only remedy—a powerful sense of human solidarity in the presence of Nature's indifference. Whisper low: Giacomo was in touch with socialism."

The pages that enthrall us in this enchanting little volume are those which revindicate Leopardi's love of Italy, his passionate desire for her redemption, the anguish he felt at his own impotence to promote it, his keen appreciation of any effort or chance that might avail her. Ninety of Carducci's 216 pages are dedicated to the three patriotic canzoni, "All' Italia," "Sopra il Monumento

di Dante," "Ad Angelo Mai," and he reminds the modern detractors of Leopardi's patriotism that his love and pride of country exhale even from his earliest letters. "My country is Italy. I burn with love for her, thanking Heaven that I was born Italian." "Oh, fatherland mine, I cannot shed my blood for thee, thou art not! In what work, how, in what fashion, can I spend my sweat, my sufferings, my blood?" This hymn to Italy, so cruelly derided by Tommaseo and so little understood by De Sanctis, inflamed the patriotic conscience and forefelt the sentiment of duty and sacrifice that inspired two heroic generations. Carducci quotes the verses: "None fight for thee? None of thy sons defend thee? To arms! arms here! Even alone will I combat and die for thee. Oh, Heaven grant that my blood may kindle fire in Italian breasts," and then continues:

"Ah, this artificial? ridiculous? comic? It was said in Recanati that when Giacomo's *canzone* was published, Vitto Fedele, Carbonaro, after reading it, exclaimed, 'O not alone shall you die for Italy'; and Fedele, arrested during the Roman conspiracy of 1830, condemned to death, but with sentence commuted to the galleys, died two years later in the fortress of Civita Vecchia. 'With Manzoni in church, with Leopardi in war,' said other patriotic volunteers. Comic? ridiculous? artificial? Poets, true poets, are seers; they foreshadow the soul of their country! In the young poet's verses there is already a history. *And the yet unborn years Daniel remembered.* There is the history of the adventures, now dispraised, now glorified, of Young Italy—the Bandiera brothers and their followers shot to death in a flower-clad valley under the July sun; Pisacane rowing up to death under the sun of June. Settembrini, the illustrious galley-slave of Santo Stefano, had already gently admonished his friend, De Sanctis, that this poem was quite other than 'a schoolboy's effusion.' 'Leopardi represents our times, De Sanctis, mine. His verses kindled the fire, we recited and repeated them, and for many who fell for our beloved and sacred country they were their last words in life. And those youths had just quitted school; some came from your own school, O friend beloved.' Again, in 1848, the Roman National Legion passing through Ancona to fight the Austrians on the Po, halted at Leopardi's house, where his favorite sister welcomed them. 'Ah,' wrote one of the volunteers, 'if the city sent a cannon with his name inscribed on it, his great soul would direct every shot; he would forget all past griefs, and rejoice that his native city had decreed him such a monument.' This is how Leopardi was held in 1848. Afterwards came the critics."

The odes to Dante and to Monsignor Mai are reviewed and expounded from the point of view of their patriotic inspiration and aspiration and their influence on contemporary patriots. In the year following their publication, the revolutions in Naples and Piedmont initiated the series of failures that resulted in final success. But Leopardi would not have been content with mere political emancipation; he foresaw the necessity of moral, material, and intellectual regeneration. J. W. M.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will publish shortly 'Glimpses of Modern German Culture,' by Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard; 'Modern French Fiction,' by Prof. Benjamin W. Wells; 'Essays on Work and Culture,' by Hamilton W. Mabie; 'American Bookmen,' by M. A. DeWolfe Howe, with illustrations; 'Drypoints and Drawings,' by Paul Helleu; 'The Hittites and their Language,' by Lieut.-Col. C. L. Conder; 'The Life of Napoleon III.,' by Archibald Forbes; 'Holland and the Hollanders,' by David S. Meldrum; 'Africa: Its Partition and Its Future,' by Henry M. Stanley and others; and 'Hawaii in Time of Revolution,' by Mary H. Krout.

Further announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are: 'Final Proof; or, The Value of Evidence,' by Rodrigues Ottolengui; 'Mexico and the United States,' by Matias Romero, Mexican Minister to the United States; 'Renaissance Masters,' by George B. Rose; 'The Groundwork of Science,' by St. George Mivart; 'Earth Sculpture; or, The Origin of Land-Forms,' by Prof. James Geikie; and 'Catering for Two: Comfort and Economy for Small Households,' by Alice M. James. Also, in the series of "Heroes of the Nations" and "Story of the Nations" respectively, 'Bismarck and the New German Empire: How it Arose and What it Displaced,' by J. W. Headlam, and 'The Story of the West Indies,' by Amos K. Fiske.

D. Appleton & Co. add also 'Cannon and Camera,' from the seat of war in Cuba, by John C. Hemment, war artist at the front; 'Puerto Rico,' an illustrated handbook by Frederick A. Ober and others; 'Stories of Our Navy in Time of War,' by Franklin Matthews; 'The Gospel Writ in Steel,' by Arthur Paterson; and 'David Harum,' a story of American Life, by the late Edward Noyes Westcott.

Macmillan Company announce 'The Memoir of Bismarck,' by Dr. Moritz Busch; 'Paul, the Man, the Missionary, and the Teacher,' by Orello Cone, D.D.; 'De Soto and his Men in the Land of Florida,' by Miss Grace King; 'Tales of the Enchanted Isles of the Atlantic,' by T. W. Higginson; 'The Two Magics,' by Henry James; and Zola's 'Dr. Pascal,' translated by Mary J. Serrano.

From Francis P. Harper we are to have 'The Wild Fowl of the United States and British Possessions,' by Prof. Daniel G. Elliot, profusely illustrated; 'Forty Years a Fur Trader on the Upper Missouri: The Personal Narrative of Charles Larpenteur,' edited by Dr. Elliott Coues, forming No. 2 in the American Explorer Series; a reprint of Silas Wood's rare 'History and Sketch of the Town of Huntington, Long Island,' edited by Wm. S. Pelletreau; 'The Early Wills of Westchester County, N. Y., 1664-1784,' abstracted and annotated by the same editor; 'The Romance of Book-Collecting,' by J. Herbert Slater; 'Weather Lore,' a collection of proverbs, etc., by Richard Inward, President of the Royal Meteorological Society; 'The Free Library,' by J. J. Ogle, and kindred works in a series edited by Dr. Richard Garnett of the British Museum.

'The Poems of Richard Realf,' edited by Col. Richard J. Hinton; 'Catherine of Siena,' by Arthur T. Pierson, D.D.; and 'The Cyclopædia of Classified Dates,' edited by Charles E. Little, are among the forthcoming publications of Funk, Wagnalls & Co.

Fleming H. Revell Co. will issue immediately 'Korean Sketches: A Missionary's Observations in the Hermit Nation,' by the Rev. James S. Gale.

Besides Victor Duruy's 'General History of the World,' translated by Prof. Grosvenor of Amherst, T. Y. Crowell & Co. will issue shortly Brunetière's 'Manual of the History of French Literature,' translated by Ralph Derechef; 'Municipal Monopolies,' edited by Prof. Edward W. Bemis; 'Loom and Spindle,' old-time factory life described by Harriet H. Robinson; and 'Great Books,' by Dean Farrar.

Copeland & Day, Boston, announce 'Literary Likings,' essays by Dr. Richard Burton; 'About Music,' two volumes of essays by William F. Apthorp; and two books of verse, 'Labor and the Angel,' by Duncan Campbell, and 'The Wayfarers,' by Miss Josephine Preston Peabody.

A study of the 'Ohio Tax-Inquisitor Law,' by Mr. T. N. Carver, is published by the Macmillan Co. for the American Economic Association. Mr. Carver regards this law as "a last attempt to buttress up the decaying general-property tax, which, in spite of the practical difficulties in the way of its administration, is still popularly regarded throughout the United States as the ideal tax system." Such being the regard in which this system is held, it is not apparent why it should be called "decaying," unless because of the corruption which it encourages. The "inquisitor law" has the same tendency, and deserves condemnation as promoting bribery, even if it results, as Mr. Carver shows, in the taxation of a considerable amount of intangible property which might otherwise escape.

The "Künstler-Monographien" of Velhagen & Klasing, Leipzig, of which we have frequently spoken, were very happily conceived as thin volumes in tasteful limp cloth binding, and this model has been followed in a new series of popular "Monographien zur Erdkunde," called specifically 'Land und Leute.' From Lemcke & Buechner we have the first number, on Thüringia, a district lending itself admirably to the project by virtue alike of its scenery and its imperishable associations with great men and great events. These are beautifully illustrated by copious half-tone and other plates, and the text (by A. Stobel) runs on in somewhat dithyrambic vein, as befits the land of Goethe and Schiller and Luther, of Wieland and Herder and Fritz Reuter. There is a geological map of Thüringia, but none political, which seems a shortcoming. With a modern map, surely, each of these monographs should be provided, and with an index. They would then unreservedly commend themselves for pleasurable geographical instruction. The next issue will be Cuba.

The tenth volume of Jules Lemaître's 'Impressions de Théâtre' (Paris: Société Française d'Imprimerie et de Librairie) exhibits all the qualities which have made the impressionist critic famous, and is as entertaining and instructive as any that have yet appeared. There is a solidity, too, about the studies, a decisiveness about the judgments, a resolute way of stating convictions—even though certain to prove unpalatable to dramatists and public—that give additional weight to the opinions of the critic. The article on the much over-praised "Cyrano de Bergerac" contains, as nearly as may be, the impression that play makes on thinking hearers and readers not carried away by the wave of Rostand-Coquelin success. The reply to Brandes, on the Ibsen question, is not only witty, it is just, and the review of Geoffroy's work as a dramatic critic both sound and useful.

M. Henri Michel, in 'Le Quarantième Fauteuil' (Paris: Hachette), has collected the articles published by him in the *Temps* on the various "receptions" of successful candidates by the French Academy. Many of them were worth preserving, and, for the sake of these, others less valuable may be read.

But there is getting to be altogether an over-abundance of republished newspaper articles.

M. Lanson's 'Corneille' (Paris: Hachette) is a valuable contribution to the literature of the subject, not only in so far as the dramatist is concerned, but also in respect of the evolution of tragedy in France and the part played by Corneille in moulding it. The biographical portion is necessarily brief, but M. Lanson has utilized all the space at his command for a close study of the tragedies, their composition, their characteristics, and the influence they had on men of the day and of later generations. According to him, there are two distinct forms of the French tragedy—that of the fifteenth century, of which Jodelle is the creator, and that of the seventeenth, of which Corneille is the father. These two forms are separated, or linked, by the tragi-comedy. This whole question is well discussed, as well as that of the fundamental element of Corneille's drama—the force of the will; and M. Lanson, in a series of very able pages, shows how the triumph of the will led to the very coldness and lack of interest of the later tragedies. Highly to be commended also are the reflections on the present mental state of France—reflections which have been made somewhat differently by others, but which it behooves responsible writers to impress more and more on their readers.

M. Remy de Gourmont publishes 'Le Deuxième Livre des Masques' (Paris: *Mercure de France*), illustrated, as was the first, by the admirable drawings of M. F. Vallotton. The appreciations of this writer will not readily be accepted by most readers, who, from their own study of the authors lauded, will feel unable to endorse all the fine things M. de Gourmont says of them; but every one will enjoy the portraits, which are excellent, characteristic, and striking. They form the more valuable portion of the work.

Too many persons prefer legend to history and romance to fact. To such as these the solid work of M. Frantz Funck-Brentano, 'Légendes et Archives de la Bastille' (Paris: Hachette), will not commend itself, but to the other and growing class which prefers truth to fiction, the book is very welcome indeed. It upsets the popular, widespread, and deep-rooted notion of the character of the Bastille and of the storming (or alleged storming) thereof, and, inferentially, casts ridicule upon the national fête-day of France. M. Funck-Brentano gives us first the history of the Bastille, or royal château, which eventually became a prison for ordinary criminals, but nevertheless always preserved a character of superiority over other prisons, in that it was the most comfortable, the most pleasant, and the most liberally administered—so much so that prisoners not infrequently begged to be allowed to remain. This novel view is supported by documentary evidence drawn from the archives now preserved in the Arsenal Library at Paris. M. Funck-Brentano discusses the incarceration of literary men, the imprisonment of Danry, better known as Latude, of whom he has a very poor opinion, and finally the taking of the fortress-prison, which he ruthlessly but wisely strips of its sham heroism and republican grandeur. A most interesting chapter is that on the Man of the Iron Mask (the mask was of velvet and not of iron). In this chapter he pronounces upon the prisoner's identity. The whole work is of the greatest interest and admirably written.

Mr. Edward W. James's *Lower Norfolk County (Virginia) Antiquary* (Richmond: George M. West) is edited in the true spirit of respect for recorded fact and with a nice discrimination in selection. For its own section it is an invaluable aid to genealogical research. In the current issue, No. 2, Part 3, it offers two lists of special interest, one being of harp and piano owners, Portsmouth, 1855, from the Commissioner of the Revenue's report, but without (what would have been curious) an indication of the respective instruments. However, out of eighty-two, fifteen were rated at a valuation below $100, and may perhaps stand for harps, if not for all. This would be an extraordinary proportion in any Northern city of corresponding population. The other list is of property-owners in Norfolk County on the eve of the civil war (1860), and in it figure a noticeable number of mulattoes and blacks, destitute of real property, however, and not overabounding in personal; but one Mary Ann Wilson (a black woman) stands up well even among the whites with $500. Records of church confession of unchastity such as are copiously paralleled at the North even in the Quaker denomination, and of witchcraft are other features of the *Antiquary* this month.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number seven, contains the notes of several expeditions by R. Ludwig into a region in northeastern Venezuela, known as the Caños, which appears to be rich in largely undeveloped natural resources, mineral and agricultural. Extensive deposits of sulphur, for instance, were found, which, though only a few miles from the sea, were unutilized from the lack of roads and means of transport. In an interesting communication, Dr. O. Baumann, the well-known African traveller, chronicles the latest crossing of Africa by a traveller. This is the sand-flea, or jigger, which buries itself in the flesh, generally of the feet, and, if neglected, causes a putrefying sore, often fatal. It was brought to Ambriz on the west coast in 1872 in the sand-ballast of a ship from Brazil. Thirteen years later the doctor found it at Stanley Pool on the Congo. The Emin Pasha relief expedition carried it to the Victoria Nyanza, where it proved a great scourge, "destroying whole villages." In 1897 it had reached the east coast and is now found on the island of Zanzibar, from whence it will probably continue its travels to India and the South Seas. Some interesting figures are given showing the significant increase of the freight traffic on the Transcaspian Railway. The largest single article carried west was cotton, mainly from Fergana. The amount transported last year, more than two hundred million pounds, was about a third of the whole amount consumed in Russia.

The woodchuck, or ground-hog, on his destructive side has long engaged the attention of farmers, who like not his burrowing in their truck gardens or in their hayfields. Science has found it somewhat difficult to come to their aid. In the latest Bulletin of the Bussey Institution of Harvard University, vol. ii., part vii., Prof. F. H. Storer gives a chapter to the subject, and appears to think that certain "torches" which he describes meet the emergency. Foxes and skunks may also be kept down by the same agency.

The Department of Geology and Natural Resources of Indiana has published its twenty-second annual report, setting forth in part the work accomplished during 1897. The report includes papers of economic value relating to the clay and petroleum industries, together with official reports on mines, natural gas, and illuminating oils. The most important feature of the book is an illustrated catalogue of the birds of Indiana, with an account of their habits, by Amos W. Butler. The utilization of convict labor in making road material is advocated by W. S. Blatchley, State Geologist. He advises the purchase of an extensive bed of shale and the erection of a paving-brick factory, to be worked by inmates of the penitentiary at Michigan City. Nearly a thousand of these able-bodied men now march about for exercise, and are maintained in idleness by the industry of honest citizens, because the labor organizations of Indiana are opposed to their competition. This plan considers the employment of convicts only in the preparation of material, and it is claimed that a year's output will suffice to pave almost one hundred miles of roadway; all grading, teaming, and brick-laying to be done by free labor.

The *Boletín* of the Geological Institute of Mexico, number ten, is devoted to a bibliographical list of books and scientific papers relating to the geology, metallurgy, and mines of Mexico, issued between 1556 and 1896. The 1,953 titles are catalogued in two parts—an author-index and an alphabetical list of memoirs, reports, and anonymous works. There is also a subject-index and an index of places mentioned.

The oldest academy in the United States is at Old Byfield, in the town of Newbury, Essex County, Mass. It was established in 1763 by a bequest from Lieut.-Gov. William Dummer, and has been known ever since as Dummer Academy. Of late years the institution has somewhat languished, but in 1896 a new departure was taken and there is good promise of success under the efficient management of the present teachers. The buildings and equipment of the school, however, require to be renovated, and the trustees have determined to raise a fund of $25,000 in order that this "ancient and honorable" institution may not be distanced by modern competitors. It has a noble list of officers and alumni, and has many claims to the aid which a committee from the Harvard faculty, after visitation, recommends. Those who wish to contribute may communicate with Mr. J. H. Ropes, No. 34½ Shepard Street, Cambridge, Mass.

—Some years ago we called attention to the remarkable accuracy, good sense, and critical acumen displayed in Prof. Calvin Thomas's edition of the First Part of Goethe's "Faust" (Boston: D. C. Heath). It is a pleasure to state that the Second Part, which was published last winter, shows the editor fully up to the high standard set by himself. We do not recall a single essay, either in German or in English, that gives as lucid and succinct a synopsis of the various phases through which the Faust conception passed in Goethe's mind from 1800 to 1831 as is given in the first half of Prof. Thomas's Introduction. Nor are we acquainted with a saner or more truly enlightened analysis of the poem as a whole than that contained in those chapters of the present edition entitled "The Completed Second Part" and "The Didactic Element." It is not surprising, but none the less grati-

fying, to find in Prof. Thomas a strong advocate of the poetic as against the speculative interpretation; to hear him say of the "Mummenschanz": "To impute to it as a whole any profound allegorical or 'philosophical' meaning, is simply to mistake the character of Goethe's art"; to see him pass by with utter silence Veit Valentin's pseudo-scientific expectorations about a supposed mysterious connection between *Homunculus* and *Helena*. And it is a genuine delight to come across such bits of striking and wholesome language as: "What, then, does *Homunculus* 'mean'? The question is absurd. As well ask what *Puck* means, or *Robin Goodfellow*, or *Jack-the-Giant-Killer*"; or this: "*Helena* is not Greek art, nor an embodiment of any other abstraction whatever, but a legendary personage. The symbolism is not to be grasped by the help of a 'key' or of logical analysis, but by the poetic imagination; and it will suggest more or less to the reader according to his familiarity with the underlying legend, with Greek poetry, with mediæval life and history, with the great classico-romantic controversy. One who knows or cares little about these things will not find the 'Helena' very interesting."

—It is only natural that the soundness and soberness of Prof. Thomas's judgment should at the same time be his limitation. There are not a few instances in either of these two volumes where his very clear-headedness seems to have prevented him from entering into the deeper import of Goethe's conceptions. That the "Urfaust" version, "der trockne *Schwärmer*," for the later reading, "der trockne *Schleicher*," should be made to vindicate famulus *Wagner* from the charge of soulless pedantry, is well-nigh Wagnerish. To dismiss the mysterious grandeur of the mothers-scene as a "bit of solemn fooling" betrays a state of mind quite out of tune with *Faust's* ecstatic exclamation: "Das Schaudern ist der Menschheit bestes Theil." And not even an attempt is made to follow the inner process of *Faust's* gradually rising superior to the empty formalism of *Mephisto's* artifices. But these defects, as we have said, are so closely bound up with the signal merits of Prof. Thomas's method of interpretation, and they are so entirely overshadowed by his achievements, that it would be injustice as well as ingratitude to dwell upon them. The fact remains that now for the first time we have an edition of "Faust" which makes it possible for the student to approach the poet himself without having to wade through a sea of scholastic formulas, and which, at the same time, embodies the result of all those historical and philological investigations which, during the last thirty years, have shed new light on Goethe's ethical and artistic development.

—Speaking of "Faust," we cannot forego mentioning a little volume of poems by Prof. Hugo Münsterberg of Harvard, which display a personality of truly Faust-like temper. If we mistake not, these poems—they are published under the title, 'Verse von Hugo Terberg' (Grossenhain: Baumert & Ronge)—belong in the same category with the new dramatic productions that cluster around the names of Hauptmann and Sudermann, as well as with the lyric effusions of a Johanna Ambrosius. Widely apart as they are, both in tone and in subject-matter, from the strains of the Prussian peasant-poetess, they have the same intense subjectivity, impulsiveness, earnestness, joyfulness, and power. They are another and most welcome evidence that the days of the academicians and faultless rhymesters are counted in Germany, and that lyric poetry, too, like the drama, is coming to be an expression of the fundamental problems of modern life. Where there is so much to admire, it is hard to select; but thoughtful readers will probably agree that the two poems "Nach dem Diner" and "Staub" deserve the prize—the one as a thrilling picture of the social cataclysm whose coming we instinctively feel, the other as a truly titanic vision of the soul's struggle for infinite activity. It is sincerely to be hoped that Prof. Münsterberg, though now living amid non-German surroundings, will not cease to consider himself pledged to German literature.

—At a convention of Scandinavian philologists recently held in Christiania, Prof. Sophus Bugge of the University of Christiania read a very interesting paper on the origin of the Runes. Since Prof. Wimmer of the University of Copenhagen, in 1873, published his book on the 'Origin of Runic Writing' (a German, revised translation of this work appeared in 1887 under the title 'Die Runenschrift'), it has been considered scientifically established that the runes were developments of Latin characters with which the Teutonic tribes at an early age had become acquainted. Now Bugge has reached another conclusion. It is an established fact that runic characters were used by Goths, as well as by Anglo-Saxons and other Western Germanic tribes, besides the Scandinavians, and we know the Anglo-Saxon, Gothic, and Scandinavian names of the runes. There is, too, an historic connection not only between the names but also between the signs and sound values which the runes have with the different Germanic tribes. The signs had their origin in the written characters of Southern nations, and it is proved that some of them are developed from Latin characters. Consequently, the runes must have originated with a Teutonic tribe that directly or indirectly had become acquainted with Latin characters, and from them they must have come to other Germanic tribes, and at the same time the names of the runic characters were borrowed by one nation from another. The tribe which originated the runes could not have been the Scandinavians, and hardly any West Germanic tribe, but must have been the Goths, who employed the runes earlier than any other tribe can be shown to have used them. Although the runes presuppose knowledge of Latin characters, it is wrong with Wimmer to draw the conclusion that they originated exclusively in that alphabet. Prof. Bugge believes that they also presuppose knowledge of the Greek alphabet, and there is, in fact, nothing improbable in assuming that the authors of the runic alphabet knew both kinds of characters. Several of the runic signs may have developed from Greek characters, and the name of one of the runes may be derived from the name of one of the Greek letters. As a medium we may assume Celtic Gauls who knew both Greek and Latin writing.

—In the Gothic translation of the Bible there are not a few Celtic words, some of which may have been borrowed in Europe; but one word points in another direction, the word for disciple, which, as it is used exclusively in the Christian sense of the word, must have been borrowed from Christian Celts, none other than those living in Asia Minor, the Galatians. With them the Goths came into contact, and in an expedition to Asia Minor in 267 A. D. they made some Galatian prisoners. On the other hand, there is a certain similarity between names of runic signs on one side and of Armenian and Georgian characters on the other. There had been contact between Christian Armenians and Goths at the time when the latter were converted to Christianity; in the Gothic translation of the Bible there are words of Armenian origin, and the Goths in 267 probably also took Armenian prisoners. On the other hand, the apostle of the Armenians was familiar with Greek civilization, and the Armenian alphabet as well as the Georgian was patterned upon the Greek. Prof. Bugge's conclusion, therefore, is that the runes were invented by Goths in southeastern Europe a few years after the expedition of the year 267, and that they probably resulted from the efforts of a few men, or perhaps one single especially gifted man, who built his system on information obtained from Christian prisoners from Asia Minor, at least one of whom must have been a Galatian and one an Armenian. The chief difficulty lies in making this theory agree with the facts established by archæology as to the first use of the runes by the Scandinavians. How long a time would be needed for the migration of the runes from the Goths of Southeastern Europe to Scandinavia? Some authors have suggested 200 years, but such a long time seems excessive. Runic inscriptions are found in the oldest Danish moor finds, which by Danish archæologists are attributed to the fourth century A. D., and assuming that supposition to be correct, Bugge's theory would be possible. But other authorities date the age of those finds further back, and if they are right his theory would be subject to difficulties.

—An exceptionally interesting number of the Consular Reports for August opens with an elaborate paper upon coffee, the methods of cultivation, marketing, cost, and profits, together with the world's production and consumption, by our Consul at Santos, Brazil, Mr. F. D. Hill. The present annual production he estimates at twelve million bags (1,584,000,000 pounds), of which Brazil furnishes three-quarters. The United States is the greatest consumer in the world, taking about four and a half million bags. Coffee is by far the most important of Brazilian exports, its money value in 1895 having been $140,000,000 out of a total of $180,000,000. "Everybody has gone into coffee-raising," so that the common necessaries of life are imported. The Consul holds that there is now an overproduction, which is the main cause of the serious fall in prices. This report is followed by an account of some of the efforts made to improve the condition of agriculture in Russia by the establishment of schools for instruction in agriculture, gardening, the care of cattle, the dairy industry, forestry, etc. In the province of Ekaterinoslav alone, in 1895, out of 500 elementary village schools 227 had gardens of more than an acre each, in which were over a hundred thousand fruit-bearing trees and bushes, and more than two hundred thousand forest trees and bushes. Fifty-five thousand of these were given to peasants for planting. Dairy schools for boys and girls, not exceeding twelve in number, "may be established on all private estates where a regular dairy industry is carried on, where

there are not less than eighty milch cows, and where each cow gives not less than 2,700 pounds of milk annually." This permission, which carried with it a treasury subvention, has been availed of to the full extent of the funds set apart for this purpose, while a number of schools have been founded and are maintained by private contributions. The Consul at Chefoo, Mr. John Fowler, calls attention to the importance of our trade in North China, which he estimates at more than eight million dollars a year, or three times the amount of that in 1890.

BROWNSON.

Orestes A. Brownson's Early Life, from 1803 to 1844. By Henry F. Brownson. Detroit: The Author. 1898.

A more unattractive volume than this, so far as its exterior semblance goes, we do not often see, but the contents deserve a better visual presentation. Dictated by filial piety, they do not exaggerate the part the father played in Transcendental times. There is, indeed, much of adverse criticism, but this is little more than a reflection of the father's Roman Catholic superiority to the "confusions of his wasted youth." We have here a very interesting book, quite indispensable for those who would fully comprehend the Transcendental movement and the men who shaped its destinies. In most histories of the movement and biographies of its leading spirits Brownson is touched evasively, quite as much as if his career and its final outcome were discreditable to the Transcendentalists as if they were so to himself; so that, if any antique song were sung for him, it would be:

> "Oh, breathe not his name!
> Let him lie in the shade."

John Quincy Adams bracketed him, in one of the famous passages of his Diary, with Emerson and Garrison as deserving of the most absolute distrust. The Rev. O. B. Frothingham, in his 'New England Transcendentalism,' characterized him briefly and effectively. But it is evident from this volume, as it was to many in advance of it, that his early reputation has been too much obscured by his recession from the "come-outers" into the Roman Church. It is quite possible that this obscuration is more accordant with his real merits as a thinker and reformer than was the standing he enjoyed before his recession, but there can henceforth be no doubt that his standing was for a time that of a conspicuous leader, much followed and admired, and the fact is an important one in our general estimate of the Transcendentalists. The web of their life was of a mingled yarn, good and ill together. The range was wide from Emerson and Hedge and Parker to some of those whom Emerson described so happily in his "Historic Notes" and "Chardon Street Convention." In the present Life of Brownson we get not only the measure of his character and performance, but much vivid impression of other leaders through their relation to his thought and work.

Orestes Augustus Brownson was born in 1803 and died in 1876. He barely escaped being called Daphnis Augustus, his twin sister being called Daphne Augusta, and this outbreak of classical nomenclature was prophetic of something wider than the boundaries of the Congregational body in which he was born and had his earliest religious education. In his nineteenth year he became a Presbyterian after "dashing [his] speculative brains against the rocks of infidelity" on his way from his first moorings. Extracts from his journal show how easily he mastered the conventional jargon of Presbyterian piety, but hardly a year had passed before he was as glib in his appropriation of Universalist formulas. That he did not become a Universalist preacher until 1826 was owing to a terrible sickness which covered a good part of the years 1824 and 1825. He kept up his Universalist connection until 1829. But he wore his new faith with a difference from his coreligionists. His chameleon style reflected that of Thomas Paine, and his thought took on the practical color of Franklin's. Especially were his views of the Bible and of revelation heretical from the Universalist point of view. For a time his furious anti-Calvinism condoned his heresies, but in 1829 we find him under suspicion, and, as he was never slow in changing front, in December of that year the celebrated Fanny Wright was able to announce that he had "held out to her the hand of fellowship and become attached to the *Free Enquirer*," the organ of her opinions. He had already, in the *Gospel Advocate*, come bravely to her defence against malign aspersions. He now accepted cordially her views of marriage as a purely voluntary arrangement, terminable at will; but his son does not believe that he or any of the writers for the *Free Enquirer* had the courage of their convictions and lived up to them. He also accepted her doctrine of the state education of children, their parents to surrender them at an early age to public care, and he became an eager advocate of the doctrines of the Workingmen's party, of which Fanny Wright was the inspiring soul. In support of this party, which was not by any means so agrarian as its enemies represented it, Brownson established in western New York the *Daily Sentinel*, but in the autumn of 1830 he was already tired of the new party, and gave his influence and that of his paper to the Jackson candidate for the governorship.

In February, 1831, he began preaching in Ithaca, N. Y., as an independent minister. He had already preached there as a Universalist. His new creed was a Religion of Humanity, apparently entirely innocent of Comte's. His doubts of God's existence were first excited by reading Paley's 'Natural Theology.' But " a voice within the breast" renewed his waning faith. Apparently his infidelity for the next few years was much grosser in others' apprehension and in his own than in reality. At the present time it would not disqualify him for the ministry of an orthodox church, but relatively to the orthodoxy of 1830-34 it was strongly marked. In January, 1834, a new monthly religious magazine appeared called the *Unitarian*. James Freeman Clarke was one of the contributors. It was an attempt to make Unitarianism speak in the vernacular. Brownson's first article, in an early number, was on "Christianity and Reform," and in the later numbers he wrote upon the Saint-Simonians. These articles showed his drift. He was still full of that sympathy with workingmen which carried him into the workingmen's party. But he had become consciously a Christian, in some intellectual fashion satisfactory to himself. The Unitarians received him with a cordiality which is an interesting comment on their ecclesiastical dealings with Emerson, Parker, and others. But Brownson's mind was nothing if not oscillatory, and, when he first allied himself with the Unitarians, it was avowedly as a converted infidel. As such he was put on exhibition, but very soon his construction of Christianity began to grow more liberal, and his 'Charles Elwood,' published in 1840, was quite as radical in its positions as Theodore Parker. It was written two or three years before its publication, and before that event Brownson had already begun to swing the other way, and this tendency was continuous until his conversion to the Roman Catholic belief.

For some ten years, however, he was in more or less close affiliation with the Unitarians. A son born to him in 1834 was named for Dr. Channing, for whom he always had the greatest reverence, while the tone of Channing's letters to him shows a respect for his intellectual ability which was widely shared among the leading Unitarians. A nice glimpse of Channing's delicate asceticism is conveyed in the pages which tell of Brownson's intending to preach for Channing in the afternoon and going home to dine with him. The dinner proved so meagre that Brownson was obliged to sally out and fortify himself at a hotel for his impending task. In the letters of Channing and Ripley and other Unitarians to Brownson, we get very interesting reflections of their ideas, hopes, and plans. Evidently the Unitarians who took kindly to him were not those who represented the "Unitarian orthodoxy " which Channing deprecated and deplored. Brownson wrote much for the Unitarian *Christian Register* and *Christian Examiner*, and with a force and feeling that were attractive. As a preacher he was not less effective than as a writer. But the intellectual and moral restlessness of his earlier career did not much abate during the years of his Unitarian affiliation. The brilliant and superficial Frenchmen, Constant, and Cousin, and Jouffroy, attracted him, and he expounded their teachings with the warmest sympathy and assimilated these with his own thought. He was associated with Ripley in publishing their writings. He was in correspondence with Cousin, and it would appear that he was as influential in introducing this French element into the Transcendental movement as Ripley was in introducing the German, while it is evident that the French element was quite as important as the German, being much more capable of reproduction in a popular form.

Brownson had charge of Unitarian parishes in Walpole, N. H., and in Canton, Mass., but he craved a freer hand, and in 1836, removing from Canton to Chelsea, he established in Boston a Society for Christian Union and Progress. So unsectarian was the Unitarian temper, so far as Channing could effect it, that this movement had much Unitarian sympathy and coöperation. The objects of the society were to advocate and practise free inquiry, to effect the improvement of the manual laborer, to contend for a better morality than the churches generally approved. Some of the sympathy which Brownson received evidently veiled the satisfaction of the more conservative in having all the discontented brought together in one Adullam's cave. But the cave-men did not agree well among themselves, and it was no bed of roses on which Brownson found himself as the leader of his unique organization. He was always distinctly an anti-abolitionist, but the pro-slavery mobs of 1835 and 1836 aroused him to some splendid indignation. In the latter year he assumed the edi-

torship of the Boston *Reformer*, which had been a Jacksonian paper. His motto was, "No party but mankind"; but his closer affiliation with the Democratic party was steadily progressive, and in 1843-'4 we find him in frequent correspondence with Calhoun, and endeavoring to further the latter's aspirations for a Presidential nomination. From this correspondence one would not imagine that there was such an institution as slavery in the United States. Calhoun is consciously the political reformer, reprehending Van Buren and all his wicked ways. Many readers will be surprised to find Calhoun habitually calling his party "Republican" so late as 1844, and speaking of "States-rights Republican principles." Brownson's political relations with Mr. George Bancroft assured him for several years a political office, the charge of the Marine Hospital in Chelsea.

If his biographer had been purposely confusing, he could not have arranged his matter in a worse manner. Different lines of development are carried on separately, so that we do not see their mutual relations, and can with difficulty make them out. It is evident, however, that Brownson became a good party Democrat and a Roman Catholic almost simultaneously. The book finds its natural climax in his being utilized by his friend Isaac Hecker (later the Paulist Father) to get a fat office for a common friend. The royal road to Rome which Brownson travelled was in remarkable contrast with Newman's long-drawn agony. He had ten times as far to go and went ten times as quickly. He was easily the victim of mere logic, and as he had decided that between Reason and Rome there was no middle ground, and as he did not wish to be a rationalist, there was not much to give him pause. He did, however, stick at the eternal damnation of all his Protestant friends. But the Roman Catholic bishop would not budge an inch, and this conduct on his part, by a delightful paradox, was the last straw which broke the back of Brownson's indecision. If the bishop had wavered, he tells us that his hesitation would have infected his church, and he (Brownson) might never have been saved. Here is a good sample of the working of his mind. He was ever quick at finding reasons for the thing he would willingly believe. No man was ever more driven about by every wind of doctrine. His passion for argument was far in excess of his desire for truth. Imperfectly educated, he never acquired a consistent body of culture or of information. His roots were in the air, not in the ground. They caught at every passing mood or vagary or system of philosophy or social enterprise. His intellectual brilliancy blinded his contemporaries to the defects of his intelligence. His vogue was for a time remarkable, but from our present vantage it would be hard to understand if we could forget the genial optimism of the time and its too generous expectations. His stable equilibrium in the Roman Catholic church was possibly the exhaustion of the intellectual tramp, and possibly it resulted from that cerebral ossification which frequently accompanies the hardening of other tissues when the old age of youth is past and the youth of old age is well begun.

Congressional Committees: A Study of the Origin and Development of our National and Local Legislative Methods. By Lauros G. McConachie. T. Y. Crowell. 1898. Pp. xiv., 441.

Mr. McConachie's book is one of those pieces of work which, while many degrees removed from finality, are nevertheless of considerable usefulness, and make a welcome addition to the store of positive knowledge in their special field. Compared, as it naturally will be, with Miss Follett's 'Speaker of the House of Representatives,' it strikes one at once as less thorough and less mature than that admirable monograph; at the same time, it is unmistakably the product of diligent and independent research, and its accumulated facts are grouped with no little skill. We have not space to follow Mr. McConachie very far into the details of his treatise, but shall confine ourselves, instead, to a brief review of his treatment of three topics of primary importance in his inquiry. The first concerns the origin and strictly historical development of the congressional committee system; the second treats of the composition of the committees; while the third has to do with the effect of the system upon the general course and spirit of legislation.

On the first point, that of the rise and growth of the committee system as we now have it, Mr. McConachie's book, notwithstanding the promise of its title, has less that is new and important to say than upon either of the remaining topics just named. The development of committees in the English Parliament, and the distinctive characteristics of parliamentary procedure, at this point, as taken over by the colonial assemblies, are but cursorily treated, while the interesting field of colonial legislative methods, of which as yet we know but little, is barely skirted. This is the more to be regretted because the committee system, like everything else of value in our institutional life, has its roots in the past, and, in spite of the changes which it has undergone, has in the main been tenacious of precedent. Of the colonial legislatures, those of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, as Mr. McConachie points out, helped most to determine the course of congressional procedure, while Jefferson's 'Manual,' still venerated though little used, gathered up for a later time the scattered precedents and usages of both England and America. Throughout the volume, however, we miss the careful tracing of cause and effect, the orderly exposition of a legislative development in which nothing merely happens. We see, for example, how the expansion of national business has both multiplied committees and circumscribed their field of operations; but only occasionally are we permitted to see anything of the vital connection between the two, or to watch the significant process by which Congress has advanced from the nominal to the real heart of the national administration.

When he comes to deal with the composition of the committees, however, Mr. McConachie is at once more detailed and more satisfactory. If the congressional committee be considered simply as a useful device for expediting business by securing, as a basis for final action, a preliminary examination of important matters, nothing, apparently, could be less scientific than the selection of committee members primarily on geographical and party grounds; yet it is one of the commonplaces of our history that the claims of personal ability, as a ground of choice, have seldom been of other than secondary importance. Geographical location, party service, and the demands of powerful "interests," have long been determining influences, with the first of these as the strongest; as Mr. McConachie puts it, in the contest between ability and locality, the latter has won. The early form of State representation, indeed, itself a heritage from the days of the Confederation, soon broke down in the House of Representatives with the increasing size of that body; but in the practice of appointing, as a general rule, but one member from a State on the same committee, the principle continued to be recognized. Naturally, the struggle for place has produced some curious situations, among them the often-noted preëminence of particular States in the actual control of legislation. Greeley, in his brief term of congressional service, assigned the leadership, as exercised through advantageous committee appointments, to Massachusetts and Maine; Mr. McConachie awards it at present to Maine, Illinois, and Iowa. That the adherence to State representation in any form, as a guiding principle, should also work inequality was, of course, inevitable; and Mr. McConachie has done good service in showing, by a critical examination of committee lists, how great the inequalities have become. In his view, the rural States have always been over-represented on important committees, while the great industrial and commercial States have yet to receive an equitable allotment of opportunity and influence.

Mr. McConachie's discussion of the influence of the committee system on the general course of legislation in Congress is often interesting, though hardly profound. So far as the House of Representatives is concerned, there is essential opposition between the committee system and the principle on which the House itself is constituted. The committees struggle for permanency, while the basis of House membership is a biennial term. To this opposition between constitutional necessity and political interests is due, accordingly, in great measure, the centralization of directive power in the committee on rules, the acknowledged preëminence of a few committees (like the ways-and-means, judiciary, appropriations, and foreign-affairs), and the consequent control of legislation, and even of the political destinies of individual members, by a small and compact body of leaders, with the Speaker at their head. For most practical purposes, the House has, in fact, ceased to be a deliberative body, and has become little more than a machine for registering the decisions of its committees. The Senate, indeed, mainly through its peculiar constitution and unrestricted debate, preserves the form of free deliberation, but its trend is clearly in the direction long since taken by the House.

Mr. McConachie sees clearly enough this strong centralizing tendency, and is inclined to think that it has some evils in its train. His suggested remedies are, first, the choice of the Speaker by popular vote; second, popular election of the Senate; third, publicity of committee proceedings; fourth, the adoption of the closure by the Senate; and, fifth, the development of the committees into "little legislatures," each with a special habitation and its own corps of officials. For none of these changes are other than the familiar arguments advanced, nor can we think that the author's discussion

makes the wisdom or the expediency of any of them more apparent. The last alone has the merit of relative novelty. The real safeguard thus far against undue centralization, and a very effective one, as Mr. McConachie himself points out, is in the fact of frequent elections, and the opportunity they afford for the expression of public approval or dissent. It is a watchful public sentiment that Congressmen most fear; and the tendency so to order the conduct of affairs as to compel support and approbation rather than censure, while at times checked, is, on the whole, unmistakable. Here, then, is the real problem of the committee on rules—to devise a procedure under which, without undue repression of the minority or total abolition of debate, legitimate popular demands for legislation may be met. In this sense, the committee on rules is the mirror of Congress, and its problems are substantially identical with those of the larger body, whose nominal servant, but actual leader, it is.

Mr. McConachie has done much of his work so thoroughly, and has made available so large a store of facts, that one can but regret his failure to present his material in more concise and definitive form. As a whole, his book is the product of industrious compilation rather than of wide investigation and careful thought. He still harks back to the Germanic forests, though he spares us the usual reference to clashing shields, while his reflections on the future of the United States suggest a confidence in our political sufficiency and high-mindedness which his researches do not always sustain. His method of citing the congressional documents is not to be commended: such an indication as "1:1, C. A., 1:58, Aug. 6, 1789" (p. 267), has nothing but brevity in its favor. We note a few slight misprints, the most important being "Henderson" for "Emerton," on page 7; in general, however, the book is well put together, and the index is fairly full.

The Life of Judge Jeffreys. By H. B. Irving. With three portraits. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

Mr. Irving extends his scope somewhat beyond the traits and actions of the notorious judge, by seeking "to reproduce the general features of a period during which the proceedings in the courts of law were intimately associated with the history of the nation." The announcement, "I have formed a rather different estimate of Jeffreys's life and character from that generally accepted," promises an effort at extenuation, and we are further given to understand that the author's opinion has been formed only "after consulting all accessible authorities, both printed and manuscript, some of which have not been hitherto made use of." When to width of survey and novelty of result is added a style which at times savors of Hepworth Dixon's 'Lord Bacon,' one need not fear that he will have little food for comment.

There are certain limits within which an apologist of Jeffreys must keep. It is a simple matter to show up Lord Campbell's inaccuracies; to prove that he is romancing in his story of Jeffreys's boyhood where his materials are scant. But while the future chancellor may not have begun the world by cheating his schoolfellows at marbles, or have driven his father to exclaim, "George, George, I fear thou wilt die with thy shoes and stockings on," a large residuum of authentic and damaging fact must be taken account of. For instance, he was a minion of Louis de Querouaille and Danby, a court tool in the conduct of intrigues against the City of London which he served, an outrageous partisan on the bench, an habitual drunkard, whose share in the "debauch of wine" at Alderman Duncomb's was an uncommon performance even in the seventeenth century, and, finally, a man of such brutality that in condemning Lady Lisle to be burnt alive he could speak thus: "When I left his Majesty, he was pleased to remit the time of all executions to me; that wherever I found any obstinacy or impenitence, I might order the executions with what speed I should think best; therefore, Mr. Sheriff, take notice you are to prepare for the execution of this gentlewoman this afternoon."

Mr. Irving seems to feel that Jeffreys has been hunted by Whig historians in an unfair way. To continue the figure, he has not been treated as decent and honest game like a lion or wild boar, but has been worried to death like a 'coon by a pack of snapping curs. We admit that Mr. Irving has good ground for urging the need of a modern, critical study of the Sidney trial and the "Bloody Assizes," but he should have been careful (looking at the matter solely from the standpoint of pleading) not to let the tinge of Tory sympathies lend a particle of color to his pages. In Jeffreys's case, popular opinion represents the cumulative effect produced on the mind by so many facts of the same tendency, and by such unmistakable facts, that it would survive proof of much more vilification in detail than Mr. Irving advances. Justification according to any decent standard of public morality is impossible, and indeed Mr. Irving does not attempt it in the abstract. What we really should prefer is a calm statement of the causes which have led Jeffreys to be transformed from an historical culprit to a vulgar villain. A portion of these Mr. Irving incidentally supplies. Our chief objection is that he belabors Jeffreys's enemies in polemical fashion, and thus begets the idea that the Judge has been seriously injured, rather than that the degree of his offences has been exaggerated.

Having indicated the respect in which Mr. Irving falls somewhat short of what is exigible from the modern critic, we pass to his first line of defence. He sees in Jeffreys not so much the cruel hireling of a stupid, marble-hearted king as the efflorescence of a bad system. The seventeenth century was a time of fierce political hatred, and judges were expected to aid their factions from the bench. Whigs were no better than Tories, and persecuted their enemies through the advantage which the Popish Plot gave them no less than the Tories persecuted theirs when turning the Rye House plot to advantage. "As far as political morality goes, in the choice of means and an enlightened appreciation of their opponents, in freedom from prejudice and the grievous assaults of party passion, Shaftesbury and Russell and Sidney can hardly be accounted more temperate and scrupulous than Charles or Sunderland or Jeffreys."

Among the special points which Mr. Irving urges on Jeffreys's behalf are the following. He was not "a man of obscure and ignoble origin, an uneducated declaimer, violent and ignorant, whose shortcomings may be comfortably attributed to the mysterious consequences of want of breeding," but "well born, well educated, and gifted." At the Temple he was not a toper and boon companion of rowdy associates to the exclusion of all study. "Drink and low company cannot, even in Charles II.'s reign, explain the extraordinary rapidity of Jeffreys's rise." He was a favorite of Sir Matthew Hale. His rash marriage at nineteen is a tribute to his good-nature or his honor. His portrait by Kneller at the age of thirty (now in the National Portrait Gallery) is likely to work "a revulsion in favor of the Judge, such as no apologizing or whitewashing can achieve." He had a sense of humor "which lightens the darkest passages of his misdoings." Roger North, who certainly cannot be accused of favoring him, testifies that "when he was in temper and matters indifferent came before him, he became his seat of justice better than any other I ever saw in his place." Mr. Irving accepts Lingard's view of Jeffreys's conduct during the Sidney trial. "He showed that he was able to control the impetuosity of his temper, adopting a courtesy of language and a tone of impartiality which no man would have anticipated from his previous character." And coming to the reign of James, Lady Lisle was guilty of treason under existing law. Jeffreys would not humor the King by becoming a Roman Catholic, and on the celebrated—or infamous—Western Circuit, he was tortured by one of the most painful diseases.

Mr. Irving suggests that if we judge Jeffreys "by modern standards and without a due appreciation of the difference between the present and the past, we may commit an impertinence." On the other hand, so long as the seventeenth century furnishes a Sir Matthew Hale, there is danger in levelling down to the standard of Sir William Scroggs. Mr. Irving has written very cleverly, but we cannot altogether acquit him of special pleading. It would be unfair to make such a charge without supporting it by at least a single example, so that in closing we shall quote his full comment on the portrait which we have already mentioned:

> "His picture is the likeness of a refined and delicately made young man, the head small and covered by thick brown hair, the eyes large and dark, the nose rather long and straight, the upper lip short, the mouth finely curved. His hands are peculiarly small and delicate in shape. If only a sufficient number of people visit the National Portrait Gallery there is likely to be a revulsion in favor of the Judge, such as no apologizing or whitewashing can achieve. That specious thing known as the 'verdict of history' has never received such a decisive and simple rejoinder as in this portrait of Jeffreys. Whether it will be effective depends on the popularity of the National Portrait Gallery."

We can see no evidence of virtue in the excellent plate which illustrates this passage. If Mr. Irving simply means that the visage is delicate and not prima facie that of a ruffian, we agree. Otherwise it might belong well enough to Tito Melema.

The Origin and Growth of the Moral Instinct. By Alexander Sutherland. Longmans. 1898.

Mr. Sutherland has condensed into these two handsome volumes the abundant fruits of no little industry and learning. He has taken pains to write lucidly and in the most non-technical language practicable; and his

preliminary explanations and summaries take his readers into his confidence and laudably facilitate the comprehension of his argument. The result is that he has succeeded in producing a thoroughly readable and interesting book—no slight commendation of a work extending to nearly 800 pages! A more difficult question arises when we ask how far his book achieves conclusiveness in its arguments and fulfils the promise of its title-page.

Mr. Sutherland's main contention, of which the severest critic would not deny the ingenuity and suggestiveness, is that the moral sentiments arise in the family life, whence they slowly filter into the sphere of positive law, which originally aimed, not at justice, but at the preservation of some sort of social order. The moral sentiments in their turn are developments of the sympathetic emotions which are engendered by the family, and these owe their growing strength to the fact that they most effectually minister to the preservation of the race. In a monogamous and united family supported by both its parents, the chances for the survival of the offspring are by far the most favorable. But any parental care, however slight in extent, has a proportionate effect. This is interestingly illustrated by tables showing how among vertebrates, from the fishes upwards, the number of offspring which has to be produced to maintain the race is gradually diminished in proportion as parental protection becomes more efficient. A codfish, which casts her eggs upon the waters to chance it, has to produce over 6,000,000 a year; in the shark, which has adopted the viviparous habit, or the stickleback, which builds a nest and protects it, a few dozen are sufficient, with an enormous economy of parental tissue. And so the process may be traced throughout the higher orders, until in man a point is reached when a child is produced on an average only once in two years. Thus numerical fertility diminishes and with it the physical strain on the parent, while the offspring's chances of survival are improved. And as the immoral, unsocial, and unsympathetic are continually being eliminated, we are led to the orthodox conclusion of optimistic evolutionism, viz., that the establishment of a millennium when everybody will be happy (because his instincts will prompt to the fulfilment of every duty) is simply a matter of time. The divine event to which the whole animate creation moves is the realization of the very bourgeois ideal of the perfect family man!

The amplest appreciation of the ingenuity with which Mr. Sutherland works out many parts of his argument must not prevent a critic from pointing out that this sort of thing has been done before, and that its plausibility depends mainly upon a (no doubt very natural) selection of the facts on which the evolutionary argument is made to rest. As, however, Huxley's Romanes Lecture has shown, it is possible to form a very different estimate of the moral bearing of biological facts, and the despair of that great apostle of evolutionism was not so much based, perhaps, upon temperamental bias as upon a more extensive survey of the facts. At all events, it is not difficult to point to several serious lacunæ in the evidence on which Mr. Sutherland relies. His theory avowedly concerns itself only with vertebrate history, the invertebrates being, not unreasonably perhaps, ignored as differing too much in the principles of their structure. Again, no mention is made of the possibility of degeneration and parasitism, and this must seriously affect the soundness of many of Mr. Sutherland's arguments, *e. g.*, from the habits of existing savages, who are in many cases degenerate and in all have failed to progress. All that he really shows is that a large number of the facts may be serially arranged in such a manner as to illustrate his theory; he does not show that arrangements pointing in other directions are not equally plausible, or that the whole mass of facts submits to any consistent interpretation.

The reason of his failure in this respect is that, in spite of the admiration for Darwin expressed in his preface, Mr. Sutherland's notion of biological history is in reality Spencerian rather than Darwinian. The influence of Spencer is perhaps most apparent in his concluding chapter, but it subtly pervades the whole book. It causes him to assume that "evolution" is necessarily progressive, and progress inevitable (*e. g.*, i. p. 223, ii. 304), and to speak of an "absolutely undeviating law of progress" (i. p. 359). But for all this there is no sanction in Darwinian theory. Progress cannot be erected into an "undeviating law" of existence by our forgetting the widespread phenomena of degeneration and decay. It is, properly speaking, not a *law* at all, but a *result* of the action of laws of natural selection and the like. As such it is not a *principle*, but has been a *fact*, to an extent which our interest in it perhaps induces us to exaggerate. It forms a thin red thread of rational connection that runs through a labyrinthine mass of perplexing detail, and its continuation has often seemed past praying for. Hence, so far from being inevitable, progress has been the standing marvel of history. From a strictly Darwinian point of view, therefore, we cannot see the necessity either that progress should continue, or the life of man or any other species of animal; we have no business to ascribe to nature any "need" for any form of life (cf. i. p. 5), or any preference for greater complexity or "nobler types" (cf. i. p. 28). And when we have eradicated from our minds such survivals of teleological and anthropomorphic theories, it is to be feared that the biological facts will cease to suggest a ready-made road to moral perfection in following "Nature." The truth is, rather, that all sorts of methods and tricks may lead to survival, and in some measure have done so, while only to a few of them can be ascribed moral value.

The insecurity of its scientific foundation is in reality enough to vitiate Mr. Sutherland's argument, but its more philosophic superstructure also will hardly resist the touch of criticism. It may be noted, in the first place, that the first part of his title is practically a misnomer. His attempts to account for the *origin* of the moral sentiments are of the slightest. The question of how unconscious passed into conscious parental care, how such satisfaction of selfish instincts became sympathy with others, how this sympathy generated the sense of duty and the judgment of "ought," receive little more than the answer that, as a matter of fact, all these things have happened. Very possibly they have, and yet the fact does not satisfy our craving for an explanation of the moral sensibility. We want to understand the psychological magic whereby new elements were conjured into existence in the mind, the psychological alchemy which transmuted the old into such novel shapes. And to tell us that these novelties arose as germs and have grown wondrously, does not help us, but only increases our perplexity. Would it not be better to content one's self with Darwinism and to describe as "accidental" the variations which divert the course of history?

It is hardly necessary to add, therefore, that Mr. Sutherland has not disposed of what he is pleased to call the "transcendental" view of our moral nature. Indeed, his polemic against it lacks both novelty and comprehension of what his opponents really contend for. To deny that the moral consciousness can be naturalistically derived may mean one of two things: it may mean either, as indicated above, that the connection between it and the matrix out of which it is said to have grown is not psychological, but only historical, or that the argument which professes to derive it itself presupposes it. There is nothing in either view to make it incumbent upon anybody to deny any amount of development of the content of the moral consciousness. Hence, it cannot be admitted that the light Mr. Sutherland has thrown on many parts of the history of moral ideas is in any sense available as a solution of the problem of their meaning.

The Essentials of Argumentation. By Elias J. MacEwan. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1898.

The faults of this book are those of its kind, which undertake to teach young men to argue before they have been taught to think—a sin particularly blamable in a work that is "an outgrowth of a dozen years' experience in a leading agricultural college." For it is not likely to become the duty of the graduate of such an institution to make elaborate argumentations, unless he happens to have something important to communicate to his neighbors; while he certainly is destined to be often situated where no rule of thumb, nor anything but sound reasoning, can serve his turn. The first requisite for argumentation, says in effect Mr. MacEwan, is to have a distinct conception of what it is of which one wishes to persuade men. But the very first thing of all required to justify unforensic argumentation is that one should find one's self compelled by irrefragable evidence to advocate a certain proposition.

The preface of the book conveys the idea that its logical doctrine is based upon Whately and Mill. As for Whately, dexterous as he was in a showy sort of *logica utens*, his logical theory was exploded half a century ago by writers as antagonistic and as antiquated as Hamilton and Mill. While Mill certainly made important contributions to logic, he is to-day worshipped chiefly by those of the elder generation who have not closely followed the course of logical discussion; serious students generally holding his false theory of induction responsible for his strange mistakes of appreciation of inductive researches that were recent when his logic first appeared. Nevertheless, had Mr. MacEwan followed either Mill's or any unitary theory of logic, he would at least have presented to his students a tolerably well-arranged and self-accordant system of ideas about inference. In point of fact, he supplies only disjected observations drawn from conflicting sources, which, by the way, he does not always avow.

The author's habitual lack of precision

and wordiness may be illustrated by the following definition of Moral Certainty, which is no mere negligence of the pen, but is borrowed, as a gem of thought, from another author:

"It is not the exclusion of all doubt. It is that certainty which convinces and directs the understanding and satisfies the reason and judgment of those who act conscientiously upon it; that leads us to act in the gravest concerns of life in our affairs."

In simple truth, moral certainty is the exclusion, not of an abstract possibility of an imaginary doubt, but of a real possibility of all living doubt on the part of sane and informed minds. Thus, nobody can really doubt that Napoleon Bonaparte actually lived and did many extraordinary deeds in the early nineteenth century.

As another specimen of the same thing, we are told that the burden of proof is against affirmative propositions, but no definition of an affirmative proposition is attempted. Is this proposition, "January 1, 1800, is likely to have been, roughly speaking, a good deal like other winter days as to its temperature," an affirmative or negative proposition? Which way would the burden of proof lie in a court of law? This is a topic concerning which explanations were particularly needed in a book like the present, which ought to show that the obligation of the burden of proof supposes at least two prerequisite conditions, first, that the question to which the burden relates has to be settled one way or the other, and, second, that it has to be settled upon an explicit rational principle. Thus, there is a burden of proof in law, because both these conditions are satisfied; but there is none in pure science, because there is no need of rendering a decision concerning a scientific question; and there is none in regard to our strictly private affairs, in which it is often safer to trust to our instincts than to any general reason which we are able to formulate. But Mr. MacEwan does not recognize these distinctions, saying, on this head, "The same rule which governs forensic argument is applicable to literary and scientific argument." We fear he has never found a satisfactory answer to the question, What is the nature of the obligation of the burden of proof? The following, given as an example of a *petitio principii*, is borrowed from some brother rhetorician of small sense of humor:

"A woman, on seeing a very small porringer, said to a child, 'That must have been a wee bear's porringer; it is so small,' and then added, 'He must have been smaller than we thought, mustn't he?' To assume that the bear was very small in order to prove that the porringer was his, and then from the fact that the porringer is small to infer that the bear must have been very small, is manifestly to beg the question."

It is impossible to give an accurate logical characterization of a mere jest, because an accurate logical characterization must look at the real meaning. But consider this analogous case. In 1886, some osseous scuta and toe-bones were found in the miocene of Kansas. The eminent Cope declared they must have belonged to a giant armadillo; whence he inferred, what was unexpected, that the edentata were represented in the North American miocene. No matter if his first inference was wrong, and that it was a tortoise, not an armadillo; there was, at least, no trace of a *petitio principii* in the reasoning. There was none in the first step, which probably inferred that the fossils belonged to an armadillo; for that followed a well-established method. Nor was there any in the second step, that miocene armadillos existed and were surprisingly large; for the first inference being granted left no escape from this. Substitute *porringer* for *fossils*, *bear* for *armadillo*, and *small* for *great*, and the rhetorician may find his example again.

The above specimens really do not adequately picture the logical fog and tohu-bohu of the logical part of the book. The illustrative examples ought to have been drawn, as much as possible, from the life of the agriculturist. In fact, they are taken from Burke, Webster, and such like solemnities. Huxley is often quoted, however, though never where he is attempting scientific reasoning.

Early Letters of George William Curtis to John S. Dwight. Brook Farm and Concord. Edited by George Willis Cooke. Harper & Bros. 1898.

Mr. Cooke has studied Emerson and others of the Concord set so carefully that he was well prepared to edit the letters which he now presents to us, and to write the introduction which makes an agreeable addition to their worth. If the introduction is not, like the old lady's "Hamlet," "made up of quotations," it contains several, each some pages long, to which no one will object, be they never so familiar, because they are Mr. Curtis's own happy characterizations of Brook Farm and some of the people who were attached to it more or less closely. One of these is Isaac Hecker—best known as Father Hecker—who was for a time at Brook Farm and Concord, and who, after he became a Roman Catholic, tried to bring Curtis into the Mother Church. Curtis's letter about him was written for a life of him that was published a few years ago. It is a very generous appreciation; too generous, considering Hecker's treatment of Emerson, which was most contemptuous and bitter, sounding a note not to be heard elsewhere. When this note reached Curtis's ears in the Hecker biography, he must have wished to qualify what he had written in ignorance of Hecker's vulgar and splenetic slander of the man for whom he (Curtis) had a boundless reverence. A worthier object of Curtis's admiring touch was George P. Bradford; and John S. Dwight, the other party to the correspondence herewith published, was duly honored from the "Easy Chair" when his *Musical Journal* ended its long and satisfactory career. These tributes of affectionate admiration are here reproduced, set, with others, in Mr. Cooke's own pleasant narrative, and his commentary on persons and events.

The making of this book, we understand, was incidental to a larger undertaking. Mr. Cooke is preparing a life of John S. Dwight, and, finding these letters written to him, but not Dwight's replies, and persuaded that in a life of Dwight they would occupy disproportionate space, he concluded to publish them separately, trusting them to justify him to Mr. Curtis's friends, if not to a wider public. They are certain to do this. They are a significant supplement to Mr. Cary's excellent life of Curtis, illustrating very richly and effectively the period of his later youth. It is interesting to compare them with Curtis's later correspondence, and with his more deliberate literary work. This form of statement implies that these letters have a literary character. They have, in that they are studiously nice and dainty in expression. They are exercises in the art of writing, an art in which Curtis, in his twentieth year, when many of these letters were written, was too much involved to write spontaneously and simply, even to his dearest friends. As he went on, his letters became less and less his favorite vehicle of utterance. In the early fifties his numerous letters to Charles F. Briggs were far less elaborate than these, and in his later life his letters generally were mere notes, the shortest of them seldom lacking something of form and beauty that was an insurance of their safety in the receiver's hands.

Mr. Cooke's estimate of these letters is an extremely modest one. They are remarkable letters for a boy of nineteen and twenty, and even for the boy who became ultimately a journalist and orator of distinguished fame. They show to what extent Curtis's manner of writing was the gift of God; that he could write well from the start, and that "the steps of beauty" were for him those of pruning and repression to a very great extent. Both the thought and the expression are far less simple than in the lectures, editorials, and other writings of his later life. Early in his mature career he seems to have conceived "plainness and clearness without shadow of stain" as his ideal of workmanship, and the simplicity of his style seems to have reacted upon his thought and to have made that much more simple than it might otherwise have been. There is a promise of vagueness and subtlety, and even of profundity, in these letters which never was fulfilled. As he grew older he thought less of self-expression and more of speaking in a voice capable of general apprehension. Had he gone further in the direction of these letters, he might have made himself incomprehensible enough to satisfy the most exigent mystic of his or our own time.

The letters contain little in the way of direct expression of Curtis's admiration for Emerson, but the influence of that master is betrayed in many passages and in the whole trend of the writer's thought and feeling. The style as well as the thought shows what bee-bread he has been eating, as when he writes, "We want magnanimity and truth, not the names of those who have been magnanimous and true; and I do not see why nature to-day does not offer to me all the grandeur of character that has illustrated any period." There is nothing here of conscious imitation; much of sympathetic assimilation. Young Curtis was too loyal a disciple of Emerson to be a good Brook Farmer, especially in the second and more Fourierite stage of the experiment. With many tender recollections of his stay at the Farm, he unites a frank hostility to the principle of association. He is for individualism first, last, and always. It is interesting to note to what degree the admirations of his youth have stood the century's stress. Some of them are very provincial, as where Cole's "Voyage of Life" gets an enthusiastic page, and Bettina von Arnim fools him to the top of his bent as she did many others. On the other hand, in view of his known delight in Jenny Lind, she figures very modestly in the letters, especially when we consider that they were written to a musical enthusiast. Curtis was another, often wondering how he could love music so much and not dedicate

his life to it. Of what his life came to be at length there is little indication. What hint of the anti-slavery reformer in this, "That there is a slave on my plantation is no evil, but that the slave should be unwilling to be so, that is the difficulty"? What hint of the civil-service reformer in the opinion that "reform becomes atheistic the moment it is organized"? In 1844, however, we find him applauding an anti-slavery address of Emerson's, and then and after rapidly concluding that there are as good people in the open world as in any of the cloisters that seclude men from it, and that, at any rate, the open world is the place to form a character and do one's work. Through all this slag of flowery rhetoric there runs an iron thread of common sense, than which nothing was more characteristic of the man he came at length to be.

The sub-title of the book is possibly a misnomer. "New York and Concord" would be better, for none of the letters was written from Brook Farm. Most of them were written from New York, whither Curtis went in 1843, after leaving the Farm and before he went to Concord as a kind of literary farmer in the spring of 1844. His farm-life at Concord is reported scantily. He once writes of himself as "up to his ears in manure and dishwater," but in general his talk is not of bullocks, but of books and music and "the infinities and immensities." Taken in their entirety, the letters are a fine disclosure of the working of Transcendentalism in a singularly ardent and ingenuous youth. The heel-taps of the century in which our modern youth delights are no such fairy wine as this, but are they as much better as they are different?

Mr. Cooke has earned our gratitude, but he would have done so more completely if he had made an index to his book. Its need of one is great.

The Cheverels of Cheverel Manor. By Lady Newdigate-Newdegate. With illustrations from family portraits. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

This sheaf of family letters revives the image of those quiet Warwickshire parishes which George Eliot has endeared to the English world in her 'Scenes of Clerical Life.' Among places, her Shepperton is Chilvers Coton, and her Cheverel Manor is Arbury; among people, her Rev. Maynard Gilfil is the Rev. B. Gilpin Ebdell, and her Sir Christopher Cheverel is Sir Roger Newdigate, founder of the celebrated prize at Oxford and representative of the University in Parliament from 1745-1780. Whereas in 'Amos Barton' and 'Janet's Repentance' she drew upon actual tragedies of recent date, in 'Mr. Gilfil's Love Story' she went back two generations, and "there were no existing susceptibilities that could be wounded by her realism at the date of its publication." In the first and last stories of the series her satire of living persons was often playful and sometimes sharp, but she never roused the sort of hostility in Warwickshire which Hawthorne provoked at Salem by his introduction to the 'Scarlet Letter.' It is only into 'Mr. Gilfil,' however, that the Newdigates enter, and nothing more ill-natured occurs in her delineation of them than that Lady Cheverel was rather too dignified and unsympathetic. "Her proud pouting lips, and her head thrown a little backward as she walks, give an expression of hauteur which is not contradicted by the cold gray eye." The selfish heartbreaker of the tale, Capt. Wybrow, stands for Sir Roger's nephew and heir, Charles Parker, but, through discrepancy of age, he could not be seriously accused of playing havoc with the heroine's feelings.

Taine replied to one who criticised the 'Origines de la France Contemporaine' for its dependence on obscure and insignificant sources: "Il n'y a pas de mauvais documents." We need to remember this opinion in reading 'The Cheverels of Cheverel Manor.' The letters which Lady Newdigate-Newdegate includes in the present volume are of slight intrinsic value, and if they aspire to attract attention beyond the family circle, or at most beyond the county, they must rely for success almost wholly on their connection with George Eliot. For the rest, they perhaps equal the purely domestic parts of the Paston Letters in style, and, if they dated from the fifteenth century, might be ranked as an important authority for social history. Their handicap is our ample knowledge from other and more piquant memoirs of how the lesser aristocracy lived a hundred years ago, and what was the range of their ideas. The members of the Newdigate household are well enough individualized to attract devotees of biography; other readers will miss the wit and dash which belong to good letters, and must watch carefully if they are searching for fresh information. We have noted nothing more singular than some few references to the clavicello, an instrument which figures in Romney's portrait of Lady Newdigate, and which the editor calls "a violoncello with a keyboard attached to it." Sir Roger Newdigate was a classical scholar and an amateur of the fine arts. We should accordingly expect to meet a smattering of Greek and Latin quotations, together with a certain amount of literary gossip. These elements are hardly represented at all, and for original criticism nothing more suggestive than this amusing reference to Goethe appears: "We have just finish'd y^e^ Sorrows of Werter, a novel which was much in Vogue last year. It is interesting but I think y^e^ sentiments of the Hero often exceptionable. Y^e^ Author seems sensible of it & makes a sort of lame apology in the preface." We must add that this comment comes from Lady Newdigate and not from Sir Roger.

The reason why this correspondence, considered as a whole, must be called lacking in zest, is that the second Lady Newdigate wrote most of the letters. She was not in actual life the lofty, unemotional lady whom the novelist, basing her character on traditions of the housekeeper's room, conceived her to be. She was grateful to Sir Roger for marrying her, and sympathetic rather than austere to her acquaintances and servants. Unfortunately she was also commonplace in her observations, her interest, and her ideas. She is forever recording what she had to eat, and chronicling the disbursement of small sums of money. She does not like to spend too much, and yet she is not very ready to sacrifice conveniences. There is something half plaintive, half impotent, in a letter to Sir Roger from Buxton, wherein she reports her expenses. "Last Night finish'd my 1st week. I paid my Bills £13.14—too much, but I don't know how to lessen expense, without lessening Comforts." Her real merits were genuine family affection and cheerfulness under a great deal of weak health.

The editor assures us that she presents "materials for a far more intimate and authentic knowledge of the lives and characters of the real Cheverels of Cheverel Manor than ever had George Eliot." The closest parallelism between story and fact is afforded in the case of the baronet. Sir Roger's portrait by Romney shows him to have been in presence what George Eliot calls him, "as fine a specimen of the old English gentleman as could well have been found in those venerable days of cocked-hats and pigtails." Intellectually he was worthy of the relation which he held to Oxford, and his artistic tastes were so cultivated that he may be fairly termed a virtuoso. The *Gentleman's Magazine*, in a biographical sketch, named him "the incomparable baronet of Arbury," and stated that in friendly conversation "his fine open countenance was lighted up with a blended radiance of intelligence and benevolence which those who saw it often cannot adequately describe, but no one who once saw it will ever forget." The combined evidence of local fame, obituary notice, and family memorials leaves no doubt that here we have the type by which a landed aristocracy goes a reasonable distance towards justifying itself. One could wish that the muniment room at Arbury contained more of his letters, if even at the sacrifice of an equal number of his wife's.

Mr. Charles Parker and Mr. Ebdell are less conspicuous than the Newdigates and can be overlooked, but we must not neglect to mention the "sweet syren" who in George Eliot's hands becomes a heroine—Catarina Sarti. Sir Roger's fondness for Italy, and the long periods which he spent there in studying, travelling, and collecting, rendered it natural in romance to derive his protégée from an Italian origin. Actually she was a Warwickshire girl, Sally Shilton, and probably the daughter of a collier on the estate. Lady Newdigate had a strong aptitude for music, chanced to hear the child sing, was impressed by the quality of her voice, brought her to Arbury, provided her with music masters, and eventually accepted her as a companion. The adventure proved a complete success except in one respect, that Sally was prevented by nervousness and delicacy of constitution from developing into a professional singer. At eighteen the state of her health caused the Newdigates great anxiety, and they sent her to Lisbon. At twenty-six she married the vicar, and lived happily with him till the age of forty-nine, instead of dying the early death which the nature of George Eliot's plot required.

Besides the beautiful printing, binding, and illustrations of this book, we can commend the thread of editorial explanation by which the letters are connected and rendered intelligible.

John and Sebastian Cabot. The Discovery of North America. By C. Raymond Beazley. [Builders of Greater Britain Series.] Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

Cabot literature of the last three years has been so polemical that it is pleasant to take up a survey of the evidence relating to John and Sebastian which is truly critical in tone. Mr. Beazley's sketch is half learned, half popular, comprehensive in survey, and coördinative in treatment. Whereas the voyages of 1497-8 have been almost the exclusive subjects of recent controversy, they fill only three out of his fifteen chapters. Conditioned by its place in the series, this es-

say cannot venture to discuss geographical questions pure and simple: it must consider the connection of the Cabots with England, and it must also reveal the attitude of the English mind toward exploration during the sixty years between John Cabot's first voyage and Sebastian Cabot's death, 1497-1557. On both geographical and personal points, Mr. Beazley adjudicates between Harrisse, Deane, Dawson, Tarducci, Desimoni, and Coote (with an occasional touch of his own superadded), and he indirectly illustrates England's apathy in the matter of foreign trade before the northeast venture of 1553.

One other feature of Mr. Beazley's method —and it is given chief prominence in the preface—is well adapted to serve his present purpose of conveying sound information clearly and in small compass. "Nowhere, as far as I know, have the leading documents as a whole been presented to the reader as the backbone of the *narrative;* yet nowhere is a general and accurate view of the small mass of first-hand testimony more essential than in the Cabot controversy." To meet this want the best authorities are cited textually, and then supplemented by the more reputable writers of later date. Thus, in the case of the original expedition, Pasqualigo's family correspondence and Soncino's reports to the Duke of Milan are presented and examined first. Then come in order, numbering from 1 to 9, Peter Martyr, Ramusio, Ziegler, Gomara, Galvano, Thevet, Ribaut, Eden, and the Map of 1544. The same idea is furthermore worked out in a long appendix, wherein are catalogued the documents which throw light on the English career of father and son.

Mr. Beazley has nothing materially new to offer on the landfall, and we pass by that much-buffeted Cabo de Ynglaterra with the more alacrity from having devoted so much attention to it in our previous notices of Cabot books. Greater present interest attaches to his estimate of Sebastian's character, and his account of the Merchant Adventurers' attempt "to bring the merchandise of Calicut to the north part of Europe by way of Muscovy." With regard to Sebastian versus John, Mr. Beazley inclines to think that Sebastian accompanied his father both in 1497 and 1498, yet in apportioning the credit he freely accepts Henry Stevens's formula: "Sebastian Cabot *minus* John Cabot=0." On the other hand, while he sees with the rest of the world that Sebastian stole his father's reputation and traded upon it in a highly unfilial manner, he will not agree with Mr. Harrisse's view that the son was an unmitigated fraud. His grounds for ascribing actual ability to Sebastian are the following general considerations:

"It is difficult to believe that he could have enjoyed—to so remarkable a degree as he did—the confidence of Henry VIII., Cardinal Wolsey, Ferdinand the Catholic, Charles V., of Edward VI. and his chief advisers, of the Republic of Venice—if he was simply the clever but absolutely empty humbug he has been represented. His instructions for the English enterprise of Chancellor and Willoughby in 1553 at least show good sense and practical knowledge of the requirements of such an expedition. Charles V. would hardly have saved him as he did from the almost successful attack of his enemies after the La Plata voyage if he had not attached a very high value to his services; and the same is shown by the Emperor's anxiety to retain him in his employ after Sebastian's final removal from Spain to England (1547)."

Besides standing in the good graces of English and Spanish kings, he impressed himself on the confidence of geographers like Peter Martyr and Ramusio, and on men of affairs like Contarini and the Venetian Ten; nor must we "allow too much weight to language which may have been partly inspired by racial and national jealousy."

Secondly, instead of detailing Sebastian's schemes to get increased pay and position out of Spain, Venice, or England, we would emphasize his share in promoting English trade with Russia. In 1553 he was Royal Chief Pilot, with a loose jurisdiction over others of his craft and the dignity of maritime adviser to the crown. Whether or no he took part in that quarrel between Merchant Adventurers and Hanseatics which resulted in the Steelyard merchants being declared "no legal corporation" (1551), he had risen to be chief official of the Merchant Adventurers two years later. Beyond doubt he was "the chief setter-forth" of the expedition sent out under Willoughby and Chancellor to find a northeast passage, and he provided the sailors with a list of thirty-three instructions which appear in Hakluyt and prove his eminence at the time. Willoughby and his crew were frozen to death near Kola in Lapland, but Chancellor reached Moscow and secured large trading privileges from Ivan the Terrible. Mr. Beazley traces to this enterprise, which Cabot started, the continuous development of Greater Britain, and so gives Sebastian a right to rank near, if not beside, John. In other words, though morally he is deficient, historically he is important.

This volume contains enough information concerning sources, literature, and results to satisfy all but geographical specialists. It is carefully written, and justifies its place in a useful series.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Prof. W. J. Select Poems of Shelley. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Bligh, H. H. The Quebec Law Index. Montreal: C. Theoret.
Brush, Dr. E. F. Milk. Wynkoop, Hallenbeck, Crawford Co.
Buchan, John. John Burnet of Barns. A Romance. John Lane. $1.50.
Clews, J. B. Fortuna. A Story of Wall Street. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. $1.
Conder, Lieut.-Col. C. R. The Hittites and Their Language. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Cooke, G. W. Early Letters of George Wm. Curtis to John S. Dwight. Harpers. $1.50.
Davenport, R. R. Anglo-Saxons Onward. A Romance of the Future. Cleveland, O.: Hubbell Publishing Co. 50c.
Dix, Rev. Morgan. A History of the Parish of Trinity Church. Vol. I. Putnams. $5.
Dowell, Stephen. "Thoughts and Words." 3 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
Fall, Anna C. The Tragedy of a Widow's Third. Boston: Irving P. Fox. 75c.
Fessenden, Laura D. Bonnie MacKirby. An International Episode. Rand, McNally & Co.
Ford, P. L. Great Words from Great Americans. Putnams. $1.50.
Fouillée, Alfred. Les Etudes Classiques et la Démocratie. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Gallaher, J. E. Best Lincoln Stories. Chicago: J. E. Gallaher & Co.
Grahame, Kenneth. The Headswoman. John Lane. 35c.
Greene, Sarah P. McL. The Moral Imbeciles. Harpers. $1.25.
Grey, Henry. The Classics for the Million. London: John Long; New York: Putnams. $1.25.
Griffis, W. E. Charles Carleton Coffin. Boston: Estes & Laureat.
Growoll, A. Book-Trade Bibliography in the U. S. in the XIVth Century. New York: Dibdin Club.
Harkness, Prof. J., and Morley, Prof. F. Introduction to the Theory of Analytic Functions. Macmillan. $3.
Kerr, Richard. Wireless Telegraphy Popularly Explained. Scribners. 75c.
Kuyper, Abraham. Encyclopedia of Sacred Theology. Scribners. $4.
Le Queux, William. Scribes and Pharisees. A Story of Literary London. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Meredith, George. Beauchamp's Career. The Adventures of Harry Richmond. Scribners. Each $1.25.
Murray, Prof. J. O. Selections from the Poetical Works of William Cowper. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
New York the Second City of the World. Vol I. The Republic Press.
Ostrander, D. The Social Crisis. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Paton, J. G. Autobiography. Vol. III. F. H. Revell Co. 50c.
Robertson, Rev. Alexander. The Bible of St. Mark. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Scobel, A. Thüringen. [Land und Leute Monographien.] Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Speer, R. E. Missions and Politics in Asia. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Stapfer, Prof. Edmond. The Death and Resurrection of Jesus Christ. Scribners. $1.25.
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Sweny, H. R. A Short and Concise Treatise on Golf. Albany: J. B. Lyon.
The Fate of a Soldier. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.
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Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. XXV. Iroquois, Hurons, Quebec. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Tovey, D. C. Gray's English Poems. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Tyler, R. L. "Four Months After Date." A Business Romance. New York: Stuyvesant Publishing Co. 50c.
Webb, Sidney, and Beatrice. Problems of Modern Industry. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
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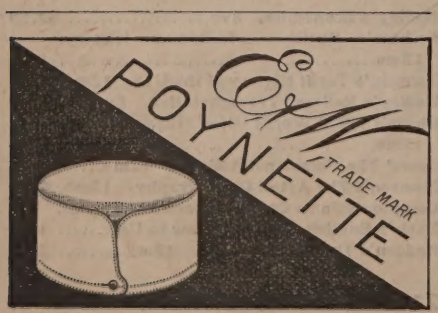

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 22, 1898

The Week.

The State Department gave out on Thursday a statement to the effect that the Peace Commissioners had had a "free discussion"; that the commission goes to Paris "fully prepared to follow a course of action mapped out for it," and that "at the very outset" it will be "made clear to the Spanish Commissioners" that "there can be no deviation from or modification of the demands made by the United States." The reflection must occur to any one who reads this, that under these circumstances there is no need of any Peace Commission at all; but accompanying the dispatch which contains the foregoing is another which contains something very different—the cabinet view. According to the cabinet view, the Commissioners do not go "under ironclad and unchangeable instructions," for "there is a certain amount of flexibility in the instructions."

"The Peace Commissioners are in no sense mere mouthpieces, but, having chosen with the greatest care and consideration five men in whom he puts the most implicit confidence, the President feels that they are to be trusted with the interests of the United States. It is not expected that they will have a free rein on the larger questions of policy, but, with ample opportunities for consultations by cable and otherwise, there is no reason why the Commissioners should not be able to carry out the desires of the Administration, and at the same time have the opportunity to shape those desires somewhat by conveying any information they may secure."

There is unquestionably a good deal of flexibility somewhere. The fact of the matter is that these Commissioners, though they may have some latitude left them as to details, will be controlled by telegraph from Washington. They are not in any proper sense of the word free agents, and the responsibility for what they do rests on the President. It will be his treaty of peace when it is signed, and the function of three of the Peace Commissioners will be to get it through the Senate. The part played in the matter by Mr. Gray will be watched with interest. He was put on as a Democrat, no doubt for the purpose of securing Democratic votes in the Senate. He is supposed to be a non-expansionist, and his appointment caused a good deal of disgust in the expansionist camp.

The difficulty Mr. McKinley finds in getting good men to serve on his war-investigation committee comes evidently from its being recognized as a farce. It is a farce, because the President, having power, as Commander-in-Chief, to order a real judicial investigation and bring out the facts, attempts to call into existence a board with no more powers than a number of reporters would have, whom any one can "stuff" with any information he pleases, and to whom any one can refuse any information that he dislikes to give. The conclusions of such a board would not be of any higher value than the conclusions any one can reach for himself by reading the newspapers. The result is that the President's scheme of investigation thus far pleases nobody, least of all those who are asked to serve, which is usually the result of trying to please everybody.

Gen. Shafter's report on the battle of Santiago, or so much of it as has been made public, adds little to our knowledge of the military situation which confronted him. As we said at the time, it is impossible to make the public take interest in technical criticisms of a campaign which ended in such overwhelming success. Yet Gen. Shafter writes in part for military experts, as is evident from the explanation which he gives of his decision to assault intrenched troops after only a hurried and imperfect reconnoissance, and with a wholly inadequate supply of artillery. His defence is the only possible one. It was a choice of evils with him, he says. To have got his artillery to the front would have been the work of days, considering the impassable roads and the tropical climate and daily deluges of rain. Meanwhile, sickness was beginning to make inroads among the troops. There was also the danger that a storm might any day scatter his transports and so cut off his supplies. Moreover, it was important to anticipate the arrival of Spanish reinforcements. All these reasons led him to decide on the desperate plan of direct assault; and it cannot be denied that, if he states the whole case, his decision was justifiable on military grounds as well as by the transcendent victory which came in the end.

But does Gen. Shafter state the whole case? There was a passage in Admiral Sampson's report which has been little noticed, but which is highly significant in this connection. The commander of the fleet outlined the plan of campaign which he and his officers, from long study of the situation, had agreed to recommend to Gen. Shafter upon his arrival. This was for the army to keep steadily in touch with the ships throughout. The idea was for the men-of-war to shell the shore clear of the enemy as our troops advanced along it; then to have a combined attack by sea and land upon Fort Morro; after which the way would be clear to free the harbor of torpedoes and close in on the Spanish garrison and fleet. This certainly reads like the natural plan of campaign. It would have utilized both arms of the service. It would have given Gen. Shafter the aid of something better than artillery, as the ships could have manœuvred off shore so as to rain a fire of all kinds upon the enemy's front and fortifications. Furthermore, Admiral Sampson reported that Gen. Shafter at first fully accepted this plan, and the fleet supposed it was to be followed. But suddenly, for reasons not given, the army struck off on its own hook across country. Why was this? Was there jealousy of the navy on the part of the army? Did Shafter get orders from Washington to see to it that the laurels should fall to the army? There have been some hints of this, and some sentences in the various reports give color to this disagreeable suspicion. It is one of the subjects which must be referred to the congressional committee of investigation of the conduct of the war, now more imperatively needed than ever; and that committee must get to the bottom of the matter.

It becomes clearer every day that very few soldiers like the prospect of serving in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines. Republican organs in New England, like Congressman Barrett's Boston *Advertiser*, maintain that to keep Massachusetts volunteers in Porto Rico, where they are falling victims to disease, "is practically a violation of the implied pledges under which they enlisted." Gov. Pingree of Michigan has allowed the members of one regiment which is encamped in that State to express their feelings, and fully one-half have indicated their desire to drop soldiering and go home. The Richmond *Dispatch* publishes a letter which states that at least 80 per cent. of the men in the Second Virginia Regiment, now in Florida, desire to be mustered out; that they "are tired of monotonous camp life, tired of being starved and half-clothed, tired of being forced to stay in a climate which shows by the number of dead that are daily buried and the number sent away from the hospitals that it does not suit us at all." The feeling is still stronger among the Iowa volunteers who have been South. The men of one regiment at Jacksonville raised such a clamor to go home that the regiment has been ordered mustered out, and the members of the only other Iowa regiment have caught the infection, and are making similar demands. The Keokuk *Gate City*, a Republican newspaper edited by Congressman Clark, shows that this means a draft if Iowa is to furnish its share of the troops that will be needed.

The situation thus portrayed in Iowa is really startling when contrasted with the demands of the expansion policy. A large army is essential to the carrying out of that policy. How are we to get such an army? People generally answer this question by saying, Increase the number of regulars. But regulars are only volunteers under different conditions. Except in case of a draft, we can only add 50,000 men to our regular army through the enlistment of 50,000 men. But if men will not enlist as volunteers, they are not going to enlist as regulars. We have referred to the statement now going the rounds that there is a large crop of desertions from the regular regiments that have been suggested for garrison duty abroad, and a lack of enthusiasm in the recruiting offices. Congressman Clark, who speaks with knowledge, confirms this view of the feeling among the regulars. "I find in my own experience," he says in the *Gate City*, "relatively as many requests by parents and soldiers to secure discharge from the regular as from the volunteer service." The conclusion which this Republican Congressman draws from these developments is that "before the people say anything more about occupying the islands that have fallen to us by the war with Spain, they must settle in their own purpose whether or not they are going to have such an army as such occupancy necessarily involves." The situation is happily hit off by the Portland (Me.) *Press*, when it says that "the people may be in favor of expansion, but indirectly they want the country expanded without the help of their sons."

Aguinaldo's statesmanship has been clearly underrated. A reporter of the Associated Press has had an interview with him in which he gave utterance to views of considerable soundness. He said it appeared to him that the Americans had come to the Philippines to fight the Spaniards, and that, having done this, and beaten them, they would go away. Why should he think anything else? When or where, and by what organ, have we ever laid claim to the Philippines? Who has ever said on our behalf that the islands of right belonged to us, or that the Spaniards were keeping us out of them? Did Dewey set up any such claim when he went down there after the Spanish fleet? If he said anything to anybody before beginning to slaughter the Spaniards, did he say they must surrender the islands? Did he not say simply that they must surrender their fleet? Did not the thought of seizing the islands first enter the broad intelligence of Mr. McKinley after Dewey's battle? Was it not then that the Almighty revealed his purpose about the Philippines to the clergy? Was it not then, and then only, that they got up "the moral and religious responsibility" theory? If Aguinaldo is a good enough insurgent for us to go 10,000 miles to help him achieve his independence, is he not good enough to carry on his own government when the independence is achieved? Speak up, reverend gentlemen.

While we are deciding what to do with the Philippines, the Filipinos under Aguinaldo are holding their first constitutional convention. Malolos has been selected as the temporary capital of the revolutionary government, just as Philadelphia was by us, and Aguinaldo, the Filipino Washington, has issued an address. The substance of his message, according to the London *Times* correspondent, consisted chiefly of congratulations on the happy termination of the revolution, and, strange to say, "the complete conquest of the territory" the right of conquest over which we maintain is vested in us. Aguinaldo then called upon his congress to follow the example of England, America, and France, and prepare a constitution and promulgate laws. The message excited but little enthusiasm, we are told, "because it was absolutely non-committal," *i. e.*, on the subject of the relations of the new government with the United States, which shows that the Tagals differ from Americans, who are more and more delighted with their President the more non-committal he is. But Aguinaldo is a sharp fellow, and knows what he is about.

All doubt about the nomination of Col. Roosevelt as the Republican candidate for Governor seems to have been removed by the momentous interview between him and Platt on Saturday. The "old man" went through what must have been a painful experience in an extremely creditable manner. So far as outward appearance went, nobody could have inferred that he was not enjoying himself, yet his misery must have been intense. He was abdicating his chief function as the "nominating power" of the party, and was allowing the people to exercise it in favor of a civil-service reformer. Quigg and a few other faithful agents of the old system of State government stood by and witnessed the scene with deep emotion. They had seen the "old man" give the high-toners many a strong dose, but they never expected to live to see him administer a dose like this to himself. Small wonder that many of them feel constrained to give public assurance that the machine will support Col. Roosevelt "loyally," somewhat after the manner of the Republican Boys in the late Johnny O'Brien's day, who signed a pledge to "pull straight" in every particular campaign.

The financial portion of the platform adopted by the Republican State convention in Connecticut on Thursday (otherwise a conspicuously time-serving manifesto) constitutes the most advanced body of doctrine thus far put forth by any convention of the party. It improves every possible occasion to use the word "gold," and it ostentatiously dismisses the "bimetallism" humbug by declaring that "the impossibility of effecting an international agreement with the leading commercial nations of the world for the free coinage of silver has been clearly demonstrated." It recognizes the necessity that Congress should do something to assure the permanence of the gold standard, and not only "favors such national monetary legislation as will maintain our paper and silver currency at a parity with gold, by which the weight of a gold dollar shall be established at the present standard, and by which every paper and silver dollar and every obligation for the payment of money shall be redeemable in gold," but it goes the step further which the situation demands, and favors also "such changes in our present monetary system as will furnish ample credit facilities for conducting business in all parts of the country *by the retirement of Government notes* and the issue of banknotes so secured as to insure their redemption in gold of the present standard of fineness." This is the first demand which any Republican convention has ever made for the retirement of the greenbacks, and its significance is emphasized by the statement of the Hartford *Courant* that this fair and square demand for such retirement "was loudly applauded" by the delegates.

The republic of Honduras, so far as it has transferrable value, appears to have been made over to an American syndicate consisting of Chauncey Depew, John Jacob Astor, Benjamin F. Tracy, and their associates. At any rate, Col. Cooper, general manager of "the Honduras Syndicate," is quoted as declaring that these gentlemen have a concession authorizing them to collect the customs revenues of Honduras, to settle its debt (amounting to about $32,000,000), to build a railroad from the Atlantic to the Pacific, to establish a bank, and to run a coastwise line of steamships. In return for this "the State" gets $500,000 a year to go on with, and, we presume, keeps up the army and navy and the police. To some minds it might seem as if the State got the best of the bargain, but then the debt will undoubtedly be scaled down so that the associates can make their enterprise pay. We wish it all success. Similar bargains are to be had in every Spanish-American country, from the Isthmus to the Cape. There must be a cause of war somewhere among them.

The Cortes has given Sagasta the

power to alienate national territory, and he has no further use for it at present. There was a vast deal of confusion in the few sessions, and one noble Senator has made himself "a popular idol" by denouncing the generals to their faces and telling him they ought to be hung in their own sashes. There were also protests from Carlist and Republican Deputies, and a manifesto from Gen. Polavieja denouncing all the governing men of Spain as "rotten," and offering himself as a national purifier and savior. But Sagasta calmly forbade the protests and the manifesto to be published, and how unpublished protests and manifestos can rouse the country is not clear. In fact, it would seem that nothing whatever could rouse the country except a proposition to go to war again. The Spanish people seem ready to hang any premier or general who would make them fight, but otherwise prepared to submit with true Oriental fatalism to whatever may come, to be apathetic before any terms of peace, provided only they are terms of peace. Mr. E. J. Dillon, who writes in the *Contemporary* on "The Coming of Carlism," remarks that if the United States had demanded a protectorate over Spain, as well as over Cuba, the common people would have acquiesced without a murmur.

Mr. Dillon's article entirely overlooks one consideration which makes the Carlist situation vastly different now from what it was a generation ago. This is the quasi-guardianship of Spain held at present by France. The services of the latter country in acting as an intermediary to obtain peace from the United States were well planned to consolidate French interests in the Peninsula. French investments in Spain, which are extensive, are worth more now than before Ambassador Cambon's activities in the Spanish behalf, and the reason is that it is felt that French wishes will now go a long way with the Spanish Government. But it is safe to say that French influence is decidedly against the Carlists. Their old recruiting ground used to be over the Pyrenees in the southern departments of France, and the social and financial aid and comfort they had from France was one of the best weapons in their arsenal. All that is now changed. The great French interests in Spain demand stability in government above all else, and there is no promise of stability in Carlism. It is a peril, no doubt, and probably robs the Queen and her ministers of much sleep, but the best opinion seems to be that it is not such an imminent peril as Mr. Dillon thinks.

The Duke of Orleans's manifesto on the Dreyfus case does not seem to be taken seriously anywhere. It resembles a good deal in style the proclamations which Thackeray put in the mouth of "John Thomas Napoleon" in his 'Next French Revolution.' Public interest in Europe is more excited by the promised revelations of Esterhazy, who seems to be preparing a "confession" in London. The worst thing about the Dreyfus case, and what explains nine-tenths of the slowness of "revision," is not that revision means the exculpation of Dreyfus, but that it means the publication to the world of a story in which the heads of the French army must figure as suborners of perjury, or as the dupes of an imposture so transparent that it shows them to be incompetent to manage the business with which they are intrusted. But Dreyfus cases are what militarism tends to produce. In fact, if Esterhazy and Henry and Du Paty de Clam had been hired to make the military order and the military view of life odious and sickening, they could not have done their work better. Esterhazy, who seems to be a humorous swashbuckler, says that he has been guided throughout by but one maxim: "A soldier should place his conscience as well as his sword at the disposal of his superior officers." The disposal of his body he reserves, for the moment, to himself.

Germany has been in the colonizing business in Africa for some years, and the balance sheet up to date does not show those enormous profits which are dazzling our expansionists. German possessions in Africa amount to 820,000 square miles—a tidy bit of territory. But in it, at the beginning of 1897, there were but 3,913 resident Europeans, of whom 2,182 were Germans. This does not include the military force, consisting of about 3,000 officers and men, not reckoning in the police. The expense to the home Government of administering these African colonies is estimated for the current year at $2,300,000. Meanwhile the total trade, export and import, amounts to $8,250,000. But of this trade only 42 per cent. is with Germany. In other words, Germany is paying $2,300,000 to get a trade of $3,500,000, the profits on which could not amount to more than $350,000. Net loss, $2,000,000.

Austrian mobs have begun to kill Italians in revenge for the assassination of the unfortunate Empress, and there have been riots at Trieste and other places. Meanwhile, the discussion of "remedies for anarchism" seems to produce little result. One proposal made is that all avowed anarchists shall be expelled from any country in which they are caught, and this might certainly be done with any anarchist who avowed an intention to murder distinguished or wealthy people at pleasure. But you can hardly expel a man for teaching the abstract doctrine of anarchism, any more than for teaching any other false doctrine. We have no doubt ourselves that much of the socialist teaching which leads people to believe that there is a great fund of wealth somewhere, and that the bad people have got hold of it, and are cheating the poor out of it, tends indirectly, and, indeed, sometimes directly, to murder; but we cannot do anything about it. One thing, however, is certain, and that is that the more causeless assassinations there are, the more violent and brutal and irrational will be the revenge taken.

The Emperor of China's decision to adopt "Western civilization" is a startling proof of the mental and political ferment that is going on in the East. A modern postal service, an extension of the right of petitioning the throne, and monthly published accounts of public receipts and expenditures are among the reforms promised, and of these the third is, it is hardly necessary to say, the most important. It is a distinctly Western scheme, the principle of Chinese finance having been strict privacy from time immemorial. In this reform it is not unfair to presume that the hand of M. de Witte, the Czar's finance minister, may be seen. An interview with Count Cassini, the Russian Ambassador here, on the subject of Rusian designs in China, was given out on Tuesday, but there is nothing new in it. Our newspapers have evidently not yet "caught on" to the Russian view of the true diplomatic use of the press, which is to employ it as a mask for your designs, not as an agency for the dissemination of information about them. Count Cassini predicts that "there will be no partition" of China, but in the same breath he points out that all Russia asks is that whatever it is that is going on there, shall be fair all round.

No one speaks with more authority on Russian matters than Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, and in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* he has an exhaustive article on the trans-Siberian railway, in which he puts the date of its completion much further ahead than current opinion had thought probable. He says that all-rail communication with the Pacific will not be possible before 1904, and the vast stretch of railroad to be constructed through Mantchuria will apparently take many years more to build. This is confirmatory of the view lately expressed by an English colonel that it was all nonsense to talk of Russia being able to "pour" troops into North China. Even with the railway complete, it is not so easy to pour 40,000 soldiers over a single line of rails for an eight or ten days' journey. With an Alger to do the "pouring," the Russian army would arrive in the Liao-Tong peninsula in a state considerably worse than a half-dozen battles could have brought about.

APROPOS OF THE PHILIPPINES.

On the 19th of April last, Congress, being determined to have a war with Spain, issued the following explanation of its objects:

"Resolved, By the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled:

"(1.) That the people of the island of Cuba are, and of right ought to be, free and independent.

"(2.) That it is the duty of the United States to demand, and the Government of the United States does hereby demand, that the Government of Spain at once relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba, and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters.

"(3.) That the President of the United States be, and he hereby is, directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States, and to call into the actual service of the United States the militia of the several States to such extent as may be necessary to carry these resolutions into effect.

"(4.) That the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

The Secretary of State then (April 20) sent the following dispatch to Gen. Woodford, our Minister at Madrid:

"You have been furnished with the text of a joint resolution, voted by the Congress of the United States, on the 19th inst., approved to-day, in relation to the pacification of the island of Cuba. In obedience to that act, the President directs you to immediately communicate to the Government of Spain said resolution, with the formal demand of the Government of the United States that the Government of Spain at once relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba, and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters. In taking this step the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people, under such free and independent government as they may establish."

A more solemn and binding document has probably never issued from a national chancellery. In this we followed the general practice of civilized nations at the present day. In Christendom the practice of going to war for fun or excitement, or to ravage an enemy's territory or inflict general and unknown damage on him, has mostly been abandoned. Before attacking him you tell him what he must do, suffer, or surrender, if he wishes to avoid fighting you. As a general rule, when you have attained your object, you make peace with him.

When we began our war with Spain under the aforesaid declaration, the orders to our fleets, of course, were to do whatever, by land or sea, would so weaken Spain as to compel her to surrender Cuba. Our fleets went in search of her fleets, and we did a little bombarding, though not much, of the island of which we wished to gain possession. In searching for the Spanish fleet in the Pacific Ocean, Admiral Dewey might have found it off the coast of Australia, or off the harbor of Hong Kong, or in mid-ocean. He had nothing to do with the place where he found it. His business was to destroy it wherever found. But it so happened that he found the Spanish fleet in a harbor of the Philippines, and there he destroyed it. There then arose in the United States a quantity of the most extraordinary reasoning to be found in the history of the human mind. The ordinary practice of civilized nations would have sent Dewey away after he had destroyed the fleet. He had no land force to take possession of the island, but he was entitled to stay there to blockade the port, or do whatever else he could to weaken Spain, so as to compel her to give up Cuba. This was the business he was set to do by the resolution of Congress and the President's instructions. When Nelson seized the Danish fleet, he went away; he did not set about annexing Denmark to the crown of England. When he destroyed the Spanish fleet at Trafalgar, he did not demand the cession of Spain. When the Allies destroyed the Russian fleet at Sebastopol and took the town, they did not demand the surrender of the Crimea; they made peace and went off as soon as they had accomplished their object. What heightens the general absurdity of the situation is, that Spain has done all we asked her to do about Cuba, and that we have never taken possession of the Philippines. All we hold is one city under the guns of our ships, 10,000 miles from home.

In the talk now going on about the propriety or impropriety of our retaining the Philippines, we hear a good deal of "the responsibility imposed on us" to civilize them and give them good government, and of the wickedness and wrong of which we should be guilty if we gave them back to Spain. As we are just fresh from a conquest undertaken with little or no knowledge of the conditions of the problem, of the social or political condition of the islands to be liberated, of the desires, wishes, or character of the people for whom we proposed to our young men to die, and with even louder shouts about "duty" and "honor," it is well that this talk about "responsibility" should undergo rigid examination.

In the first place, who or what has imposed this responsibility on us? It is not a *legal* responsibility, for a nation is not controlled in its corporate capacity by law. It is not a *political* responsibility, for Mr. McKinley is telling us every day that he does not yet know what the will of the American people in the matter is, and has thus far been trying in vain to find out. It must then be a *moral* responsibility, which we see some of the ministers and the churches and the conferences are preaching with some vehemence. Has this responsibility been imposed on us at all? Has it been made necessary, supposing the Cuban war to be just and therefore a lawful Christian war, in order to bring that war to a successful issue? Has not the result shown that it was nothing of the kind, for we have never got possession of the islands, and yet Cuba has been liberated? In fact, we have still to acquire the islands; all that Spain has agreed to do is not to defend them, for, when the war ended, it clearly appeared that they were not hers to cede. We have never taken possession of them as yet, and it is acknowledged that, if we do take them, it must be by force, and a large army will be necessary to hold them, and will probably have to kill a large number of the people whom it goes to "liberate." We may safely say, therefore, that the responsibility has not come upon us at all; that we are simply taking it, without even a rudimentary knowledge of its nature. We know little or nothing about the islands, people, language, laws, religion, or history. Most of us heard of them for the first time only after Dewey's victory. They are 10,000 miles away, too, or, in other words, completely removed from the observation of our public and from the action or influence of our public opinion. Cruelty, oppression, malfeasance of every description may rage in them unchecked for years, and the President for the time being may safely refuse to remove peccant officials "under fire."

Now, responsibility that is imposed on one and responsibility that is assumed by one's self are two different things. In the one case you do the best you can, and in the courts of heaven are allowed to offer zeal, earnestness, and diligence in lieu of training or capacity. But if a man who has had no medical training foists himself unnecessarily into the position of a family doctor, and, through ignorance, works the patient's ruin, no penalties are considered too severe for his presumption. Neither hopefulness nor pity nor humanity is allowed to atone for his recklessness. What he thought, or expected, or desired, counts for nothing. In the other case, when you meet an inevitable emergency with such means as God and nature have put into your hands, when you stanch the blood or face the foe because there is no one else to do it, you are in a very different position before both God and man. For responsibility that is put upon a man, he needs only to be brave and single-hearted. The best he knows is all that will ever be demanded of him.

In the case of the Philippines, we are assuming a task for which we do not possess a single qualification—the civilization and conversion of 8,000,000 of half savages of whom we never heard until the other day, of whose tastes and character we know nothing, who have got on for about 2,000 years without our assistance, who belong to a church which professes to know more than we do about

the divine purposes with regard to them, and who live about a month's journey away from us. If there be any duty of evangelization with regard to foreign nations imposed on the United States, it is surely with regard to nations in their immediate neighborhood. Mr. McKinley and some clergymen profess to know a good deal about our "destiny" in this matter, but it will require far stronger testimony than we have yet had to convince us that Providence meant us to do our missionary work at the uttermost ends of the earth, when we have for a whole century left a large continent at our very doors untouched by our statesmen —a continent, too, which, for the greater part of this century, we have been sedulously claiming as peculiarly our own, as, in short, above all places on earth, "our manifest destiny." How is it we have for all these years done nothing for Mexico except despoil her? How is it we have done nothing for Venezuela? How is it we have done nothing for Costa Rica? How is it we have done nothing for Nicaragua? How is it that Providence, or "destiny," or whatever Mr. McKinley calls it, did not permit our missionaries to make a better job in Hawaii? There seventy years' labor of our pious evangelists has, by their own confession, turned out such a pack of rascals that we had to dispossess them of their government to stop their villanies. What reason have we to suppose that our evangelists would succeed any better in the Philippines? Can it be possible we have two "destinies"? Is not one enough for a busy community?

IMPERIALISM AND PROTECTION.

The reports from Quebec concerning the influences that are brought to bear on the high commissioners from the United States are full of portent. The representatives of great protected interests have been there in force, insisting that no matter what concession the Canadians may offer, the duties which foster American industries shall be retained. The American people, they argue, pronounced emphatically in favor of the policy of protection at the last election, and no wave of sentiment in favor of England must be allowed to affect our proceedings in matters of business. The old arguments in favor of protective tariffs are as valid as ever. It is as true now as it ever was that "the foreigner pays the tax," that the high standard of living attained by the American laborer is due to the duties which he pays on imported goods, and that unless these duties are retained the English will flood our markets with their products. It would be difficult for a Republican administration to disregard these arguments, even if it were so disposed. It is especially difficult for President McKinley to disregard them, for he has dwelt on them with such passionate vehemence as to make it evident that he was sincere. Circumstances have changed, but they cannot have changed to such an extent within two years as to convert a bigoted protectionist into a free-trader. That involves not only a change of mind, but a change of heart also.

It is, of course, nothing unusual for a protectionist to become convinced that certain protective duties are unwise and unnecessary. Manufacturers generally are quite ready to contend that the raw materials which they use are not properly subject to tariff taxes, and it is quite probable that some of them are now satisfied that the duties on their products for which they formerly clamored are not indispensable. But when it comes to the point, even these manufacturers will be likely to shrink from the plan of the "open door." What shall it profit us, they will say, if, after all our sacrifices in the cause of humanity, we are not to monopolize the trade of Cuba and Porto Rico? We have spent a great deal of money in driving the Spaniards out of these islands, and as they are unfortunately too poor to be able to pay us an indemnity for having been expelled, we ought to reward ourselves with the exclusive trade of their former possessions. Our manufacturers are patriotically paying their war taxes, and it will seem to them Quixotic liberality to permit English and German manufacturers, who are not handicapped by these taxes, to sell their wares to the Cubans on equal terms. Gratitude, they will think, should impel the Cubans to grant a preferential tariff to this country. As to Porto Rico, it would seem that our Constitution requires our system of duties and imposts to be extended to that island, and that only vessels flying our flag should carry on our commerce with it. On the whole, it is certainly probable that our manufacturers, as a class, will demand some protection for their exports in the West Indian market.

While it is conceivable that this view is mistaken, there is no doubt whatever concerning the attitude of our farmers. They are, to a great extent, protectionist, and they change their convictions very slowly. They have been taught the doctrine of protection so thoroughly by the Republican politicians as to identify it in their minds with the Republican party. They have sometimes been perplexed to find out where their gain from tariff taxes came in, but their faith has been robust, and the production of certain articles has no doubt been stimulated by the exclusion of foreign competition. Our tariff has kept out some Canadian products, such as eggs, and potatoes, and hay, and grain, and has made it possible to raise cane and even beets for making sugar. There is plenty of evidence that any attempt to take off the duties on sugar and tobacco will arouse the most violent opposition. The *American Agriculturist* has a large circulation among farmers, and in their interest it contends vigorously against the annexation of new territory. If the territory is to be annexed, it serves notice that the farmers of this country do not intend to submit to the competition of the planters of the tropics. Our farmers have heard all about the cheap labor employed by these planters, and how our tariff has been the only thing that kept us from being ruined by their cheap products, and they will uplift their voices in protest just so soon as the first movement is made to lower the duties on the staples of agriculture. As the *Agriculturist* says, if free trade in the "money crops" of the American farmer is to be fostered, "then he will batter down every custom-house in order that there may also be free trade in the money crops of manufacturers."

The demolition of custom-houses may not seem to our readers a very alarming contingency, but it is otherwise with the protected manufacturers. While a few of them are ready to meet foreign competitors on equal terms, not only in the West Indies, but in our own country, the great mass are quite unprepared to go to such lengths. Provided the farmers have the power to carry out their threat, the manufacturers will yield to them. There can be no question that the farmers have this power, or at least that they can veto any measure for reducing protective duties. With the loss of their old leaders, the Democrats of the Southern States lost their old principles, and became at once Populists and protectionists. The free-trade sentiment appears to be practically extinct in those regions, and the farmers have plainly shown that they expect to have the tariff adjusted so as to protect their interests. The indications are certainly very strong that any party that proposes to admit the products of our new possessions free of duty will be defeated by the votes of the farmers.

Under these circumstances it is extremely probable that an attempt will be made to placate the farmers by offering them bounties. The rich men who are planning the exploitation of Cuba and Porto Rico must secure the admission of their products to this country free of duty if they are to succeed in their schemes, and they will be quite ready to give countervailing bounties to the producers of beet sugar and tobacco if they can bring them to terms in this way. This compromise was adopted in the McKinley tariff in order to pacify the sugar-planters of Louisiana, and there are many signs that the same thing will be done in the case of beet sugar. To determine what this means for our country, it is only necessary to look at the European states that have undertaken to develop the

beet-sugar industry. They have, indeed, succeeded, but their people cannot afford to consume the sugar which they are taxed to produce. A Frenchman is able to consume, on an average, scarcely a third as much sugar as an Englishman. If we follow the French example, and there is little reason to hope that we shall not, we shall produce beet sugar abundantly, it will be apparently cheap, and we shall also have cheap cane sugar. But the cheapness will be delusive, for the money paid out in bounties must come out of the pockets of the people. We shall not only be taxed to support a larger army, and a larger navy, and large colonial establishments, but we shall be taxed also to support the protective system in its most outrageous form. Such will be the price of empire, and while certain interests will prosper, it will be through the suffering of the common people. Should these anticipations seem too gloomy to any one, he need only ask himself what other policy than that outlined above can the Republican party pursue. It cannot exploit our conquests successfully by abandoning protection, because the farmers will not permit it; and if protection is to continue after we enter on our new estates, it must be under the form of bounties on home products.

THE CLAYTON-BULWER DISPUTE

The discussion about the Nicaragua Canal is having one good effect, which will probably become more marked as time goes on—that is, of making it more and more clear why the Jingoes hate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty so much. Since the *Spectator* published its remarkable article advocating the tearing up of the treaty, two or three Jingo organs here have taken the matter up, and applauded their new-found friend and loudly praised its moderation and good sense. They have also stated their case for the first time with some approach to clearness.

The Clayton-Bulwer treaty, entered into in 1850, provides that neither the United States nor Great Britain shall ever obtain "exclusive control" over "any means of communication" between the Atlantic and Pacific by ship canal by way of the Nicaraguan route, nor fortify it (article i.); that in case of war between the United States and Great Britain, vessels of war of either Power shall pass freely through it (article ii.); that everything shall be done to further the construction of such a canal (articles iii., iv.); that the canal, when constructed, shall be neutralized, *i. e.*, kept for ever open and free, by both governments, so long as no unjust commercial discriminations are made (article v.); that the two Powers shall invite every state in the civilized world to enter into smilar stipulations (article vi.); that the two governments, desiring not only to accomplish "a particular object," but also to "establish a general principle," will "extend their protection" to any other practicable communications across the isthmus, whether by canal or railway, including especially the Tehuantepec and Panama projects (article viii.).

Such is the treaty. Why do the Jingoes hate it? They say, in substance, that the treaty was drawn in view of the construction of a canal or canals by private enterprise; that the United States now wishes to build the Nicaragua Canal itself, as a public work, and own it; and that therefore the United States should have exacty the privilege which the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was designed to prevent—the exclusive control of the canal, with the right of fortification, making it, in the words of Mr. Blaine, a part of the "coast line of the United States." They also urge that Great Britain has violated a stipulation of article i. (which provides that Great Britain should not "assume dominion" in Central America), by expansion at the expense of Guatemala. But this contention, waiving the question whether there is anything in it or not, "goes," as the lawyers say, simply to the question of the binding effect of the treaty, not to the principle involved in it. Admit that England has encroached on Guatemala, through its Honduras Bay settlement, and you are not a whit nearer the solution of the real question at issue, which is, Which is the best: exclusive control of the canal, when built, or joint control? Tear up the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and the same question presents itself at once, Which will you have, exclusive or joint control? If England has been "grabbing" in Central America, and this shows that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is no longer binding on us, the question which led to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is not disposed of.

But the question, which is the best, depends on the answer to another question—the best for what? Is your canal intended to advance the ends of peace, or is it intended to make it easy to go to war? Of the answer to this question there can be no doubt. An agreement between the two most powerful nations in the world directly interested in the subject which makes any canal across the isthmus a neutralized highway, a part of the *mare liberum* of the modern commercial world, is an effective guarantee for peace. A declaration by the United States making such a canal a highway for all nations at peace with us (the only alternative proposed here) neutralizes nothing. It makes out of the canal a gate from which we can exclude any nation we please, and, moreover, we can change our intention at any time, and shut any one we please out of it in time of peace. The great value of such an agreement as the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is shown by the difficulty of getting rid of it. It was recognized as binding only the other day, by Mr. Cleveland; England has always insisted on it; and thus far it has withstood all attacks on it. Exclusive control, on the other hand, means doing what you please.

The United States, if it had exclusive control of the only highway across the isthmus, would, in case of war with England, be able to shut it up against England, and make her vessels go round the Cape. Perceiving this, the Jingoes now say, "Pooh, pooh, we shall never go to war with England! We have an *entente* with England! Blood is thicker than water; hands all round," etc. But they do not see that this prediction robs their argument of all its force. If we are never to be in danger of war with England, we need not provide against it, and the treaty does no harm, and if we are to be at perpetual peace with England, the joint guarantee helps to secure it. What makes them foam at the mouth is that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is a guarantee of peace. What they want is a guarantee of trouble; and this, exclusive control gives.

The ludicrous part of the whole dispute is that the only canal actually under construction is the French canal. Some engineers say that the Panama Canal will actually be built in two or three years. What are we going to do about that? Under the Clayton-Bulwer treaty it would undoubtedly be neutralized, as France has no interest in any other disposition of it. Do we claim that, too, as part of our "coast line"? The principle of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty has been, since its adoption, recognized in the neutralization of the Suez Canal; but neutralization, as the Jingoes will ultimately learn, cannot be made effective by the declaration of a single nation. However, we fully admit that any interoceanic canal would be, if controlled by a single nation, an effective weapon of war; so that we come back in the end to the precise point at which Sir Henry Bulwer and Mr. Clayton came when they sat down to discuss it fifty years ago: Are we preparing peace or are we preparing war?

THE ENGLISH MISSION.

The difficulty which surrounds the task of filling the English mission evidently does not diminish as time goes on, and this, although most diplomatic work is now carried on from Washington by telegraph under the eye of the President. It might seem from this fact that the mission might be easily filled with some quiet, sensible man, who should execute the orders he received without any "fuss"; but other causes make this no longer possible. The Ambassador to England (the very title implies something of the change) must make a show; he must entertain in a way any other ambassador would, and he must also have

the knack of making those happy after-dinner speeches about the language of Shakspere and Milton, and the union of hearts and hands, and "the man behind the gun," which so delight Anglo-American audiences. In fact, if we go back to a period when the Minister was a real trained diplomat, and actually transacted business with Downing Street instead of receiving his instructions from Washington, we find that the English mission must now be filled with a man the very opposite of the old type. Charles Francis Adams had upon his shoulders the very serious diplomacy of our civil war, and had to manage such delicate matters as the *Alabama* business from day to day by means of his own individual tact, judgment, and learning. His social existence in London was reduced to a minimum by the fact that "society" was on the side of the South, and for the same reason speeches of the sort fashionable now were not at all in order. Mr. Hay has made a good Ambassador, on the other hand, because he is a rich man, a gentleman, and a good speaker.

Of course, different meanings are attached to the word "rich" by different people. But an Ambassador to England nowadays is expected to entertain, and we do not pay him enough to entertain on. Consequently, he must have some private means, or else he must have the other qualifications, of good breeding and fluency in speech, in a conspicuous and unusual degree. Mr. Lowell's case showed that a man might fill the mission to England more brilliantly than any of those with whom we naturally compare him without being able to entertain at all, but his success was exceptional, because his gifts were exceptional. Another Lowell we are not likely to produce soon.

Besides these difficulties, there is another which, though not so visible, is always at hand. On the part of many of those who are distinctly within the circle of choice, and known to be competent, there is a considerable reluctance to accept the office. If the number of well-to-do men, who are also gentlemen, and have a real gift of oratory such as well-bred audiences like to hear, and who are known at Washington as having those qualifications, is gone over, it will generally be found that they are or consider themselves to be in the line of political advancement at home, and are afraid of being shelved by being sent to London. People are not uncommonly got rid of by means of a foreign appointment. Mr. Hoar's reluctance may have come partly from the fact that he is in the Senate, and fears that if he takes the English mission, his political life will come to an end in March, 1901. Even so good a man has enemies. Mr. Long is said to hesitate because he has his eyes on a senatorial seat as successor to Mr. Hoar. Gov. Wolcott, who may yet be talked of, and would make an excellent representative of this country in England, is said also to have other views for the future. It may be urged that the recall of Mr. Hay to fill the State Department shows that there may be promotion for ambassadors; but even over Mr. Hay's head hangs the awful limit of the Presidential term. The next President may be a Democrat. There is nothing permanent about diplomatic service in this country, least of all for cabinet officers and ambassadors. The Senate is the place which attracts statesmen who want life berths.

The principle which governs Mr. McKinley's appointments, if there be any, is not yet entirely discernible. His appointment of Mr. McKenna to the Supreme Bench, in the face of the protest of the federal judges, was absolutely unaccountable. In the State Department and the English mission he has done better, on the whole, than anywhere else, and he has set for himself in these respects a standard which shows that he knows what he is about. Probably the awful mess into which he got matters by putting Mr. Sherman into the State Department has taught him a lesson. He is not at all likely to overlook the necessity of his appointee being a man of means, for he evidently likes surrounding himself with rich men, and we hope that he may be able to perceive that wealth alone will not answer. In diplomacy, as in any other business, the essential requisite is, of course, good sense, and next comes knowledge of the world and good breeding. We cannot afford any more "shirt-sleeves" dispatches either from or to Washington. If these qualifications are wanting, the effect of wealth is not to make up for them, but to make their absence more conspicuous.

THE MORAL USES OF DARK THINGS.

The late Dr. Bushnell, thirty years ago, wrote a book with the above title, which was full of comfort to many troubled souls. It set forth in eloquent terms the possibility, nay the probability, that events, apparently calamitous or unfortunate, may often prove disguised blessings, and that what seems to make for our ruin or unhappiness may really be destined in the long run to prove a benefit of the highest order.

We are just now being treated to a striking illustration of the soundness of this theory in the case of Gov. Black and Mr. Roosevelt. We quite agree with *Harper's Weekly* that having bravely commanded a regiment of irregular cavalry is a somewhat absurd qualification for the governorship of a State—that is, it would be, if Governors of States had not, for generations, been chosen for all sorts of things except exact fitness for the duties of the place. Their first qualification has long been the probability that they would be elected. Fitness comes after this, and if it can be thrown in, well and good. But it may almost be laid down with confidence that under no system of election by popular suffrage is a man anywhere put into an office solely because he is qualified. The voters must like him or admire him, and they not unnaturally suppose that a man whom they like and admire must be ready for anything. So that, although they were ready to lynch Mr. Roosevelt for being so good a Police Commissioner in 1896, they are ready to make him Governor for fighting the Spaniards in 1898.

Now, if we did not get Mr. Roosevelt, we should probably get Mr. Black. There are stories that Platt has "soured" on Mr. Black for defeating so many of his measures. But we prefer not to believe them. We prefer to believe that Mr. Black would, in the ordinary course of New York politics, have got a second term. Politically considered, he seems to us to be entitled to a second term. He is the kind of man for a second term. He began well, by appointing one of the biggest rascals in the State to one of its most important offices. This was what is called in his circles "giving the high-toners a dose." It was a bitter dose, and occasioned much stomachic disturbance, but it did the "high-toners" good. They felt better after it. It removed a good many of their silly fears about the future of America. It restored activity to their torpid livers. It showed the "kickers" and the pessimists that it made little difference to America who was Superintendent of Insurance in New York, or, in fact, who was anything, as long as the boss was satisfied. But what we liked most about Black was the sternness and austerity with which he faced a frivolous and thoughtless generation. The practice of finding fault with governors and other public officers had gone far among us—too far, as it seemed to many. It was necessary to do something to bring us back to the early practice of approving everything our rulers did. Mr. Black, to his eternal honor, took on himself the task. As soon as he took office he announced, with excellent effect, that "no intolerant clamor or irresponsible assault would prevent a single executive act." Clamor had to be tolerant and assaults responsible. A better thing could not have happened to the "kickers" and Mugwumps. They saw that a man was in the gubernatorial chair on whom "jaw" would be wasted, and they betook themselves to more productive occupations than finding fault. So he went on governing in the new fashion, the critics ceasing from troubling; and the university settlements began to settle the "labor question," and Lou Payn to look after the insurance companies.

But man has been truly said not to

know when he is well off. A feeling of discontent with Gov. Black's benignant régime sprang up and grew. The "high-toners" were "disgruntled." They continued to long for a change, although prohibited from criticising, which of course made the longing all the more intense. But, in our opinion, they would never have got it except for the war. But for the war, Black would probably have been renominated. The war only made Roosevelt possible and blasted Black. Roosevelt is coming and Black is going; and if Roosevelt comes, Lou Payn goes. Roosevelt may not be a Solon, or a Washington, or an Alexander Hamilton, but he is an honest man, and from an honest man the Lou Payns will fly, as good men from the devil. Aldridge will go, too, we may be sure. There will be a voice as in Rama, weeping, in many good Republican houses.

Now, was there ever a more striking example of the way good may be got out of a dark thing than this? The war was, in the forum of morals, "a dark thing," but it came on Black like a good thing. It gave vent to "intolerant clamor." It made Roosevelt's valor in Cuba seem the best preparation for Albany. Without Roosevelt's valor in Cuba we should never have got the change. It is a queer way to get a beneficent change. It reminds one of the Western bully who, going into a public house where the company all knew him, invited them to drink, but they timidly shrank away till he, drawing his pistol, exclaimed, "Must I kill a man every time I want any one to drink with me?" So, also, we may well exclaim, Must we go to war every time we wish to expel a pack of rascals from the State government? For we verily believe that, without a war and the loan of a hero or two from the army, we should never, within any reasonable time, have got rid of Platt and his gang. Two years ago they seemed so securely seated that they could afford to smile at Mugwump invective. It amused Black to hear them grumble. He was sure of renomination and reëlection. His ways were sure to be permanent. Our way out of the slough was mysterious and unknown. A loud demand arose for a Cuban republic. Roosevelt enlisted his "Rough Riders." No body ever organized seemed to have less connection with reform of any kind. Nevertheless, they could apparently not have worked more directly for reform had they met Platt, Black, and Payn at El Caney, and slaughtered them without mercy. The war broke the ring. It set "the wild echoes flying." How would it do again? When the ring grows up again, or becomes too strong for the suffrage, might we not have a small war with a weak Power, say San Domingo or Hayti, and get out of it somebody before whom the boss would fly? Two months' fighting would do. It is an expedient, we do not say to be tried, but to be remembered.

THE FIRST ADVOCATE OF FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL.,
August 31, 1898.

The free public library system, which may be said to be a distinctive institution of the English-speaking race, dates both in Great Britain and in the United States from about the year 1850. Previously there had been, as there are still, numerous subscription and society libraries which provided reading-matter for those who were able to pay for the privilege. There had also been attempts to supply books of a particular character to certain classes of the people which were unable to procure them for themselves. Thus the scheme of Dr. Thomas Bray (1696) was planned for the benefit of the clergy in England and America; that of Rev. James Kirkwood (1699) had for its object the theological instruction of the people of Scotland; and the district-school libraries of New York State which flourished early in this century were formed to encourage the habit of reading among school-children.

It is singular that, notwithstanding the interest attaching to the subject, the name of the first person to advocate the establishment of free public circulating libraries in this country should be entirely unknown to the general public, and even to the members of the library profession. That honor belongs to Dr. Jesse Torrey, jr. Facts are wanting to supply even the most meagre biographical account, for his name is recorded in no accessible biographical dictionary, but he seems to have been born about 1787, and to have spent his early years in New Lebanon, N. Y.

Of himself he says:

"At the age of seventeen years, convinced of the inestimable benefits of reading useful books, I anxiously desired that they might, if possible, be extended to the great mass of the human family; and endeavored to discover some effective plan for this purpose. Indigence, which in most nations involves the majority, appeared to present the greatest obstacle. Hence the suggestion occurred that governments, or associations of individuals, might promote the object by establishing, in various districts, *free circulating libraries*, to be equally accessible to all classes and sexes without discrimination."

This extract is taken from a pamphlet published at Ballston Spa, N. Y., in 1817, whose title reads: 'The Intellectual Torch; developing an original, economical and expeditious plan for the universal dissemination of knowledge and virtue; by means of free public libraries. . . . Second edition, revised by the author.' The first edition seems to be unknown, but there is reason to believe that it was the pamphlet entitled 'The Intellectual Flambeau, demonstrating that rational happiness and virtue exist with the dissemination of philosophy, science and intelligence,' Washington, 1816.

It is of no little interest to find Torrey, then thirty years old, urging the same arguments for the establishment of free public libraries as were brought forward by the advocates of the Ewart Act in 1850, and in the Report of the Trustees of the Boston Public Library in 1852. For example, it was contended in Parliament that the cost of libraries would be repaid through the decrease in crime which would follow their inauguration. Torrey, in a preliminary address, "To the people of the United States," says that

"He has long cherished a decided confidence that if the community would appropriate as much wealth to the instruction of the rising generation as is now devoted to the punishment of crimes, the desired object would be attained, and human misery averted, to a much greater extent. The plan here proposed for the general diffusion of knowledge through the medium of FREE LIBRARIES, has been submitted to the consideration of several of the most eminent statesmen and philanthropists in the United States, and received their unanimous and cordial approbation."

In the body of the pamphlet his principal argument is one on which the Boston Public Library trustees laid special emphasis. He says:

"But the education of youth should not cease with the expiration of their attendance on public schools. The chasm between this period and that of their *corporeal* maturity contains many stumbling blocks and dangerous snares. The art of reading, without books to read, is to the mind, as is a set of good teeth to the body, without food to masticate; they will alike suffer the evils of disease, decay, and eventual ruin."

"Intellectual cultivation is the basis of virtue and happiness. As mental improvement advances, vice and crimes recede."

Turning to consider the means by which he proposed to effect the establishment and maintenance of these institutions, it is apparent that Torrey realized the necessity of legislative aid, and in this shows an advance over such of his own contemporaries as believed that men appreciated only those things for which it was necessary to pay.

"If our constitution does not now authorize measures which are likely to produce the greatest possible benefit to the country, and security to its liberties, it ought *without delay* to be so amended that it should.

"Let American Legislators, both national and sectional, perform their duty to their country, and its posterity; and to mankind, by listening to the wise counsels of many conspicuous living sages, and pursue without hesitation the inestimable '*parting advice*' of George Washington, Benjamin Rush, Samuel Adams, and other departed friends and patrons of man; and establish public schools, and judiciously selected free public circulating libraries, in every part of the Republic. And as all men are vitally interested in the universal dissemination of knowledge and virtue, let all classes combine their influence and means, in aiding the cause of human happiness."

Further on in the pamphlet he has some short "essays on the use of distilled spirits" which seem to be of an earlier date than the 'Intellectual Torch' itself. In one of these, entitled "Phenomenon of extracting the greatest good from the worst evil," he advocates the rather novel scheme of raising sufficient funds "by a liberal system of duties on ARDENT SPIRITS, for the universal establishment of free LANCASTRIAN SCHOOLS, AND FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES."

"For this purpose, as well as to discourage intemperance, we earnestly recommend that a duty of fifty cents per gallon be imposed upon all spirituous liquors manufactured within the United States;—and one dollar per gallon upon all wines and spirituous liquors, which shall be imported:—the monies accruing from the duties on domestic liquors, to be appropriated to the establishment of free Lancastrian and common schools, and free circulating libraries, in the respective districts in which the taxes shall be levied and collected:—and the duties on imported liquors to be applied to the same purpose, in such manner and place as the wisdom of Congress shall suggest."

The pamphlet also includes "A Serious Address, to the rising generation of the United States," in which the author advises: "De-

vote the most of your evenings and leisure hours to mental improvement and reading. Read the life of the celebrated Franklin and follow his advice. But beware of the Syren snares of NOVELS."

Torrey included an appeal for free public libraries in his 'Moral Instructor,' Ballston Spa, 1819 (2d ed., Albany, Nov., 1819; 5th ed., Philadelphia, 1825). His other works, so far as I have been able to discover, were 'A Portraiture of Domestic Slavery in the United States: with reflections on the practicability of restoring the moral rights of the slave; . . . and a project of a Colonial Asylum for free persons of colour,' Philadelphia, 1817 (a second edition was published in London in 1822, with a preface by William Cobbett), and 'The Herald of Knowledge; or, An Address to the Citizens of the United States, proposing a new system of National Education,' Washington, 1822.

Whether the reformer gave up his schemes at thirty-five to devote himself to his profession exclusively, or whether he died then, I have been unable to discover; but further than these pamphlets he seems to have left little trace of himself, and he certainly never achieved any considerable fame. In more than one point he was a generation in advance of his time, and deserves at least to be remembered and to find a brief recognition in the history of American education and librarianship.

FREDERICK J. TEGGART.

THE CORONATION FESTIVAL AT AMSTERDAM.

AMSTERDAM, September 5, 1898.

The close union between the House of Orange and the Dutch people is one of the great underlying facts of their history. The roots of this alliance of intellect and affection penetrate religion, politics, and all common hopes and fears for the country's weal. When William, "the Father of the Fatherland," appealed to the nobles to resist Philip II., he found them uncertain, treacherous, weak; appealing to the burghers, he found them jealous of each other and unable to sink minor and local interests in the general good; appealing to the people, he found them true. Even before lawyers and men of precedent and parchment could discern the fact, the Netherlands people as a unit, despite their manifold differences and their political comminution, saw and felt that they were a nation. Throughout all the variations of Dutch politics, the people have held gratefully and affectionately to their stadholders, the five Williams, with Maurice and Frederick Henry, and to the three Williams—kings of the kingdom which fulfilled the hopes of the republic. For the sake of the superlative services of "Father William," the people have forgotten and forgiven the many faults of their Orange rulers. To-day, when youth, beauty, winsome character, the hopes, for good government not only, but even for a continuance of the direct line of the House of Orange-Nassau, all unite in Wilhelmina, the popular joy knows no bounds. Every one is now an "Oranje-klant." It is very nearly fifty years (1849) since there was a coronation, or rather a royal inauguration, in Holland. Then, King William III., father of the royal maid of to-day, assumed the crown, and in the Nieuwe Kerk swore to maintain that constitution which veils republicanism under the fiction and forms of monarchy.

I reached Holland on Queen Emma's birthday, August 2, and was in Amsterdam on August 31, when the carillon of the Palace belfry was playing the Wilhelmus Lied, in honor of Wilhelmina's eighteenth birthday. In every city the decorations are lavish, and the services, processions, and festivities generally participated in; but in the great city on the Y, I have to-day seen a striking object-lesson of the love between sovereign or chief servant and the people. The train bearing mother and daughter left The Hague, the residence of the court, for Amsterdam, the real seat of government, at 1:29 P. M. In little over an hour the boom of cannon announced safe arrival. From the great Dam square, since quite early morning, the military had kept back the constantly increasing crowds which filled the sidewalks and the seven streets opening into the space where had once been the castle of Amstel's feudal lord. To-day, except the posts for banner and festal trophy, there was only the hidden monument of 1830, now transformed, from the reminder of a civil war that rent a kingdom in twain, into a lovely mass of gilt, flowers, purling water, and emblems of peace and weal. These are all surmounted by the Lady of the Dam with the fasces of order and the fruits of the earth in her gift-laden hands. The admirable accommodations furnished the foreign representatives by the Netherlands journalists, including a platform built on the top of the old military commandant's house, exactly facing the Palace, enabled me to see everything in the best way. The pike and matchlock men, arrayed in the garb of the days of Maurice and Hohenlohe, as gay in color as wasps or dragon-flies, performed the evolutions of attack and defence while in waiting. The East India princes rode into the square. The marines and sailors took their posts. Between 3:10 and 3:25 P. M. the interest culminated, when, after the military, numbering on horse and foot probably 1,200, had massed in close order, the royal personages appeared. The Queen Mother was arrayed in heliotrope, and the daughter—queen of all hearts—in white. Smiling, bowing, waving her handkerchief, she rode around the square, and alighted at one of the many doors, of equal size and dignity, which give entrance into that splendid republican city hall, built in 1648, and now serving poorly the purposes of monarchy. However, the Queen's portal was marked by a baldaquin of crimson velvet fringed with gold. A few minutes later the royal lady in white reappeared on the balcony, and again made salutation to the civic and military forces, and to those privileged spectators who made every window facing the Dam a frame enclosing living pictures.

Then came the episode which was in itself impressive and, in the light of the Fatherland's history, true to all the past. With admirable celerity and order, the military filed out and again the great square was vacant. A few minutes more, and at the signal given, joyously, but with deliberation, the crowd moved forward to the Palace. The seals upon the seven streets were loosened, and within three minutes vacancy had given way to a myriad of human beings. There were the people of Holland. Before them stood on the balcony the lovely figure in white again. The Queen was with her own people. "Excess of joy weeps." Amid huzzas and songs and waving handkerchiefs and flags, were not a few dim and flowing eyes. The child of all hopes, the woman who incarnated to them the stirring memories of mighty events and great leaders, was before her people. Thenceforward, merrily, often with boisterous fun, but happily and innocently, the populace had the day and the night for themselves. It was long after morning hours had begun that silence reigned in Amsterdam.

SEPTEMBER 6.

Inauguration morning dawned with carillons from church spires, and the thunder of cannon, but the skies were cloudy and the air chill. Yet when did "the sun of Orange" fail to shine? Fortunately, not only admitted within the Nieuwe Kerk, but having a capital seat immediately over the middle aisle and in direct line from the throne-chair, I passed the hour of waiting pleasantly in watching the dignitaries and incomers of many nations as they proceeded in their gorgeous array to their assigned positions. In this New Church, built in the fourteenth century, but several times renovated, the three previous kings were "inaugurated"—for Dutchmen, as a rule, prefer this term of republican suggestion rather than that of "coronation." As matter of fact, in the actual ceremonies, the representatives of the nation and the people had very nearly the same place and dignity as the sovereign or chief servant of the Netherlands herself. The throne-chair was presented, as the tarnished silver-embroidered inscription in the back shows, by the Russian Princess Anna Paulovna, who married into the House of Orange, and whose name is happily associated with noble trees and fertile polders. Beside the chair on which W was wrought in gold, was one to the left for "the king's widow," Emma. In front, on a table, lay the crown and the cross-topped sphere, emblem of empire, and, between the two, a written and a printed copy of the Grondwet, or Constitution. On the church walls were set coats of arms of the eleven provinces of the Netherlands, with a great band in orange and gold running round nave and transepts, containing, in its original old Dutch, a stanza of the Wilhelmus Lied. The music of this stirring national anthem, written by Van Marnix, is now heard on all the streets, and has echoed down the centuries from the days when the trumpeters of the triumphant republic blew its notes in defiance or victory. Its words contain the whole philosophy of the eighty years' war, when a people who would have no monarch that was not also a servant, and who by law had only counts, but no king, rose in arms against Philip II. of Spain, false claimant to a throne that did not exist. Prince William led a people to triumph, organizing success out of defeat. Between the arches in the church hung fine brocade of orange color crusted with gold-embroidered orange fruit, leaf, and blossom. On the magnificent brass screen which separates the tomb of De Ruyter and the old place of the high altar of pre-Reformation days, hung Oriental stuffs of richest texture blazing with the motto of Father William and of the Dutch nation, *Je maintiendrai*. To-day, it is a fair maiden of eighteen who "will maintain." A new colossal window, the gift of the nation and but recently finished, depicts on two lines of pictures the glory of the House of Orange from the Pater Patriæ to Queen Emma (in her favorite heliotrope modern costume). The two lowest designs

show in allegory the founder and his people and the angel of constitutional government handing Queen Wilhelmina, who rests one hand on the Bible, a copy of the fundamental law of the Commonwealth.

As a spectacle the inauguration could leave little to be desired. The edifice was furnished with raised seats and tribunes high in air; and in the lofty organ gallery and passage under the clerestory were clouds of witnesses. Beauty and splendor filled the house. The proofs of human achievement and of princely and governmental favor were abundant on many breasts. But besides the diplomatic corps, the honored guests from afar, and the dignitaries of the home land, it was noticeable in what an honored place the members of the national Legislature sat, and how important a share they had in the actual solemnities.

At 10:50 the cheering without announced the coming of the late regent, the ever good and wise mother, Emma, with her chamberlains and ladies in waiting. All rose to greet her with sincere homage. She entered by the middle door and aisle, and took her place on the chair on the dais, while around her were grouped the vassal princes of the East Indies, in their turbans and gold-encrusted coats, and various dignitaries from The Hague. At eleven, with music within and cannon thunder without, the white Queen enters. Tall, fair, with the features of the lineage of the stadholders and kings of her line unmistakably stamped on her sweet face, she is arrayed in snow-white dress, with diamonds glistening on her head, neck, and bosom. Across her breast she wears the ribbon of Orange, and orange blossoms deck her hair. Her robe of office is of crimson velvet, with ermine cape. Its folds gracefully arranged, and her loyal servants about her, completely filling the great platform, her banner-men holding the silken symbols of her house and her kingdom, she begins to read her address. All, even Emma, have bowed in homage to her. With clear, strong voice, with intonation and stress simply perfect, she reads so as to be heard and enjoyed all over the vast edifice. The address is her own personal composition, but slightly altered from its original draft by the mother-Queen, and quickly approved in the States-General. She glories in her inheritance. She is proud of her people and their mutual love. She will follow the good example of her father, King William III. So far as in her power lies, giving her strength by day and night, she will maintain law, freedom, her country's fair name and right. "So help me God," are her concluding words, as, with eyes and hand and voice raised to Heaven, she makes her prayer.

Then follow the pledges of mutual faith, and, first, she makes solemn, personal oath to obey the Constitution. Each of the members of the States-General, of the First and Second Chamber, is then called on in turn, and swears his allegiance to the Queen as constitutional sovereign. According to faith and scruple, Christian, Roman, Reformed, Mennonite, and Hebrew, swear or affirm, with variety of word and form, most of those making covenant lifting up the fingers in sign of the Trinity.

The mutual compact of mutual service is over. There are salutes and cheerings by the whole audience, with many a *Vive* and *Leve de Koningin*, and a snow-storm of waving, plumed white hats. The organ crashes, banners dip, and a wave of rapture fills all hearts. Then begins the melting away of the vast concourse. The assigned officers move to their duty of escort to the Palace, whence and to which her Majesty will walk in the sight of her people, the Queen Mother riding. Wilhelmina will not ride in the wonderful golden coach which poor people by myriad subscriptions have bought for her, until she is married. With bowed heads toward Queen Wilhelmina, the gold-breasted officers sidle off. During all the ceremony the banner-bearers alone kept their hats on. Now, they dip the standards, the orange, the lion, and the tricolor, but they neither bend their heads nor make sign of homage, and go out even with backs to royalty. The significance is plain. Supreme, above all, ruler and people, is the flag. Honor to Orange, glory to Holland, supreme obedience to Nederland! Happy omen: "the sun of Orange" parted from the clouds in mid-morning, and the happy inauguration-scene took place in the full splendor of Heaven's light.

The illuminations on land and water, the fire-works, the historical pageants, the popular sports, competitions, and felicitations, the music, the art, the congresses and exhibitions, are all worthy of notice, but my space is already overrun. For a fortnight there will be rejoicing. May the "joyous entrance" and the solemn inaugural of 1898 begin a long and happy reign that shall increase the sum of human happiness in the Vaderland and in the world. W. E. G.

DEMOLINS'S FRENCH OF TO-DAY.

PARIS, September 9, 1898.

M. Edmond Demolins has acquired some reputation by the publication of a book which has for its title, 'What Are the Reasons for the Superiority of the Anglo-Saxons?' It has had several editions already, and has been translated into English as well as German.* It is pleasing to the English to learn why they are a superior people, though it is hardly necessary to find reasons and to argue in such a matter: the reason given by the lion in the fable of Phædrus is perhaps sufficient: "Quia nominor leo." As for the Germans, they were probably curious to see by what arguments a writer belonging to the Latin races proved the relative inferiority of these races.

Encouraged by his success, M. Demolins has begun an ethnographical study of the French people. His volume, which has recently appeared, 'Les Français d'aujourd'hui: Les Types Sociaux du Midi et du Centre,' is far superior to his first work, as it does not dwell in generalities, and deals more with precise facts.

"I should like," says the author, "to make people understand, and with scientific certainty, how are fabricated, for instance, an Auvergnat or a Norman, a Provençal or a Champenois, a Tourangeau or a Corsican, etc.; how and why they differ. I shall show that they are the product of constant causes which it is possible to analyze exactly, and the principal of which, the deepest, is the nature of the land and of the occupation. I do not say that these are the only factors; there are many others, but they are all more or less influenced by these, not because they have less value in themselves, but because there is in the social organism, as well as in the animal organism, a law of subordination of the organs. It is not always the noblest organ which acts most decisively on the general temperament."

That there exist well-defined social types in a large country cannot be denied. It is a long time since Élie de Beaumont and other geologists showed that the geological character of the land had much to do with the character of the rural population. The inhabitants of Brittany or of Auvergne must differ from those of the basin of the Seine or of the Loire. The question of race must, however, be considered by itself. Race influence has never been so much analyzed as in our time, and it would appear to be quite independent of the geological and geographical conditions of a country.

M. Demolins does not dwell on race; he confines himself to considerations which have nothing to do with the laws of heredity. His object is limited: he tries to prove that there are social types connected with the state and necessities of agriculture and commerce. He is a follower of Frederick Le Play, whom he considers the founder of a new social science. Le Play wrote a series of monographs on the European workmen, and founded a society which is still in existence, and which is devoted to the study and accurate description of all economic facts. Le Play's method was completed by Henri de Tourville, who wrote instructive memoirs on the classification of social facts.

The first types which M. Demolins describes in his interesting book are those connected with pastoral life, in the Pyrenees and in the Alps. In the high valleys of these mountains, there is found nothing but grass, and cultivation is almost impossible. The inhabitant of these valleys is of necessity a shepherd; while the land is appropriated in the lower valleys, it remains common in the high valleys. This simple fact creates two different types of civilization. In the region of Cauterets, in the Pyrenees, the communism of the grass-land is so well marked that it persists not only among the members of the same communes, but also among the members of seven neighboring communes. More than 10,000 hectares of pasture-land remain undivided. We find the same state of things in the valley of Ossau; there are syndicates, constituted by the delegates of the associated communes, which make rules for the shepherds. Pastoral life has therefore for its natural consequence communism in life and in property; and these react on the state of the family. In the great highlands of Central Asia and of Africa, the pastoral life has created a pastoral family, thus organized: a chief, a patriarch, retains near himself all his sons, brothers, uncles, nephews, married or unmarried, as well as the women who have renounced marriage. In the Pyrenees and Alps the pastoral organization of society is somewhat affected by the law and also by the culture of some parts of the valley; but, as Le Play says, "public opinion has maintained in some localities an organization very different from what is seen in the greater part of France. The domain of the family, preserved in its integrity from generation to generation, unites, in a complete community of existence, all the members who have not established themselves far away."

There is not much room left in Europe for purely pastoral life; a constant emigration takes the inhabitants of the Pyrenees to the Argentine Republic, where they find the immense grass-lands of the Pampas. These emigrants travel in groups, they organize

* 'Anglo-Saxon Superiority. Par E. Demolins.' New York: Scribners.

themselves into associations or syndicates, and they come back to the mother country as soon as possible.

The name of "Causses" is given to the high plateaux which occupy the greater part of the ancient provinces of the Gévaudan and the Rouergue (formerly the departments of the Lozère and the Aveyron). These highlands are flat and have an altitude of 800 to 1,200 metres. The soil is calcareous and very dry in consequence. Millions of sheep (and of sheep only) live on these highlands. The population is very poor, and is still attached to the social system of family community; but here the community is very wretched, with no power of expansion and no means sufficient for distant emigration. The bishops were long the only masters of the "Causses," and the reaction against ecclesiastical power was particularly strong in these provinces, which became for a long time a stronghold of the Huguenots at the time of the wars of religion.

The Auvergnat is a very well defined social type; it is, more than the preceding ones, detached from the pastoral art and from the community principle. The Auvergnat has created for himself resources unknown to the inhabitants of the Pyrenees, the Alps, and the Causses. There are, in reality, two distinct types of Auvergnats. One, represented by the aged parents, the heirs and the members of the family who stay at home, perpetuates the pastoral and communistic tradition; it is the type of the past and it tends to decline. The other is represented by the children who emigrate to the cities; it is not jealous of the heirs of the land, because it succeeds in creating for itself new resources by its labor and economy. It is interesting to observe that the Auvergnat, when he ceases to live a pastoral life, does not betake himself to agriculture or to industry, but to commerce or to certain liberal professions. His avarice is proverbial. He sometimes becomes rich, but the original formation of the type has not developed in him the love of comfort, the habits of an elegant life; his instincts remain narrow and almost sordid.

M. Demolins includes in a second zone, in which fruit-trees are cultivated, several other types; and he distinguishes in it several regions, the two most important being the region of the olive tree and the region of the vine. The olive tree has helped to create the Provençal type and given ease and wealth to the lower basin of the Rhone. Provence is essentially a land of small estates, as the culture of fruit-trees requires constant care and little capital and no costly agricultural implements. Life is easy in the South, in that part of it which Daudet has so well described. The family tie is so strong, notwithstanding the law, that children always recognize the eldest son, who remains the representative of the community. Municipal life is very active; you will find in every village the forum and the agora. Political passions are, in consequence, extremely ardent, and every man feels himself an orator. Thiers, Gambetta were good types of the *Méridional*.

In the hilly region of the vine M. Demolins finds the types Tourangeau and Gascon-Armagnac, which he describes with minute details. Here again property is very much divided. The vine creates spontaneously the type of the small proprietor, a man of limited ambitions, envious of all superiorities, critical. Rabelais, Paul Louis Courier were Tourangeaux.

As a general rule, valleys constitute regions where property is much divided, and table-lands a region of large estates. M. Demolins follows this analysis in the valleys of the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Loire, and their affluents on both sides of the flat regions which separate the valleys. Valleys are considered as the high roads of civilization, but, in fact, the valley populations have remained in a more primitive state than those of the table-lands. They ignore progressive methods; they have no great efforts to make; their physical and their intellectual energies are not so great. In old times the table-lands were chiefly covered with forests; in the eleventh century France was still almost as much wooded as in the time of the Gauls. Agriculture has taken possession of a part of this great domain, but it can be said that the forests occupy still about a third of the territory. The region to the south of the Loire was more rapidly conquered than the regions of the north. M. Demolins devotes special chapters to the region of the Landes where the social type issued from the communistic system, and to Brittany. In this last province he takes into account the race as well as the geological and climatic conditions of the land, and this chapter is one of the best in his work.

His conclusions are not cheerful. He finds, on the whole, the social state of the south and of the centre of France unsatisfactory. This social state develops, in his opinion, an egotism which conceals itself under the mask of solidarity; it favors the development of a class which lives on the budget, at the expense of the laborers, and thus "the South insensibly pushes France in the direction already pursued by Greece, Italy, and Spain, namely, the direction of downfall." France of the North has very different characteristics, which M. Demolins intends to analyze in another volume.

Correspondence.

MILITARY MATHEMATICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial of recent date, on "How to Do It and How Not to Do It," occurs this sentence, characterizing Gen. Kitchener's campaign: "It was a masterpiece of mathematics that Kitchener executed, as fine a bit of scientific application of means to ends as ever Moltke exhibited."

It will be interesting to compare with this the following tribute to Moltke's unerring prevision and remorseless precision, given by Zola in 'La Débâcle':

"Un terrible homme, ce général de Moltke, sec et dur, avec sa face glabre de chimiste mathématicien, qui gagnait les batailles du fond de son cabinet à coups d'algèbre!"—Yours, etc., A. H.

Washington and Lee University,
September 16, 1898.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co.'s September and October list embraces 'Through Armenia on Horseback,' by George H. Hepworth, D.D.; 'Great Thoughts from the Great Writers'; 'Life's Roses,' a volume of poetical selections; 'Songs of Destiny, and Others,' by Julia P. Dabney; 'Book of Cats,' a discourse with many original drawings, by Mrs. W. Chance; and the Falstaff Edition of Shakspere in 34 volumes, to be sold separately.

Macmillan Co. add to former announcements 'American Prose Selections,' with critical introductions by various hands, and a general introduction, edited by Prof. George Rice Carpenter of Columbia; a 'History of Philadelphia,' by Miss Agnes Repplier; 'The Shape of Fear, and Other Ghostly Stories,' by Mrs. Elia F. Peattie; and 'Lamia's Winter Quarters,' by Alfred Austin.

Elder & Shepard, San Francisco, will publish a volume of California verse by Marshall Ilsley of Santa Barbara.

The three handsomely printed volumes of elegant extracts called 'Thoughts and Words,' by Stephen Dowell (Longmans), are an extension by one volume of the better and more deliberate two, first issued in 1891. The author makes an attempt at classified arrangement, and another at explaining it, but confessedly breaks down in analyzing one chapter, and we for our part can give no brief idea of this medley of prose and verse. The compiler is a man of taste and classic scholarship, and admits little that is trivial or rubbishy except in the ragbag of his third volume, where fable, charade, epigram, and pun mingle with worthier memorabilia. Long excerpts in Latin, Greek, French, and Italian abound; German is wholly neglected. Longfellow and Jefferson alone of Americans are quoted, though Lowell would have furnished some capital canvases for the gallery of "portraits" of distinguished personages. The foreign texts are very accurate, so far as we have scrutinized them; but Bérenger's "Roi d'Yvetot" has been bowdlerized without warning. Swift's name fails to be appended to the extract on p. 331 of volume iii., though it is given in the index. In reporting the "J'ai vécu" of the Reign of Terror, the Abbé Sieyès's *mot* is not assigned to anybody. Many of the pieces are garnished with mottoes, but some opportunities are conspicuously missed, as under Canossa. The work as a whole is intermediate between a reader's handbook, a golden treasury, and a dictionary of familiar quotations. Almost anybody might be glad to own it; those who could best appreciate it might hesitate to buy it.

Sir J. D. Edgar, the Speaker of the Canadian House of Commons, has published a volume, entitled 'Canada and Its Capital' (Toronto: Morang), which evidently aspires to be something more than a guide-book of Ottawa. It is historical, descriptive, critical, and very much diversified altogether. The writer has seen a good many sessions of Parliament, and is also a literary amateur, but the present book has no considerable depth. Its chief value lies in the discursive information which it conveys. The author's comments on everything he touches are so friendly as to lack real discrimination, and what he means by "Swinburnian glamour of musical landscape," the reader must guess for himself. Chapter ix., in which Laurier, Tupper, and Cartwright are consecutively characterized, is somewhat unusual; not from any paradox of verdict, but because one would hardly expect from a Speaker in office his open opinion of the three principal debaters who catch his eye.

Prof. Willard Fiske has now brought out in two editions (or one, with bilingual preface) his promised 'Egyptian Post-Office List in the Egyptian Language' (Cairo), the first attempt of its kind. The arrangement is, first, alphabetical; second, by provinces;

and a third list "comprises the offices in independent cities, or in places administered in connection with such cities." Telegraph offices are indicated by an asterisk before the class number. The indefatigable editor announces that still another work on the post is under way, and will soon be in the printer's hands.

The German Imperial Postal Museum in Berlin has recently come into possession of three documents of interest for the history of letters and of writing. They are all derived from the archæological storehouse of Upper Egypt, having been unearthed in the tombs of Thebes. Through the influence of Lic. Schmidt of Heidelberg, an acknowledged authority, especially in Coptic literature, the museum secured these documents. The oldest of them dates from the 18th or 19th Dynasty, or about 1500 B. C. It is a writing palette made of wood. On the upper end are two receptacles, still retained, for the two kinds of ink, red and black, ordinarily used in these writings. The lower part of the palette has a kind of drawer attached, in which the writing instruments were preserved; of these, three remain. The second find was doubtless a writing tablet for a child. It is a plain wooden affair, but with four receptacles for ink. It dates from about 1400 B. C. The third find is from the Greek-Alexandrian period, and is also a wooden writing-slate for children. The Greek alphabet is written permanently along the edge, as a model for the pupil. It is a work of the second century A. D. All have been examined by the authorities of the Egyptian Museum in Berlin, and have been pronounced genuine.

The German Palestine Society, like the majority of learned societies in the Fatherland, lacks the funds generally at the command of similar bodies in England, France, or America, and accordingly can do but little in the line of original research. All the better, however, is its work in scientifically utilizing the raw material and finds secured through the activity of others; and both of its publications, the *Zeitschrift* and the *Mittheilungen* (especially the former), are rich in well-digested and critical accounts of what can actually be regarded as safe conclusions in this department of research. One of the best discussions of this kind is found in the last number of the *Zeitschrift* (Vol. XXI., Heft I.), by Dr. G. Rindfleisch, entitled "Die Landschaft Hauran in römischer Zeit und in der Gegenwart." Covering nearly half a hundred pages, the author furnishes a clear report of what is now known with certainty concerning the past vicissitudes and the present status of that historic trans-Jordanic region, so long neglected by the explorer and student. The article is indeed only a compilation, but it is made from primary sources with critical acumen and care, and is a fine specimen of erudition. A special historic chart, on the scale of 1 to 400,000, accompanies the discussion. In the more popular *Mittheilungen* (No. 3), Prof. Brünnow has begun a series of articles on the Hauran, describing his own travels and researches. He states that the chief result of his investigations is that nearly all the ruins found east of the Dead Sea down to Petra are of Roman origin, and that practically nothing of the Moabite period is yet left, the destruction having been the work of the Mohammedan invasion.

In the June number of the *Zeitschrift für die Reform höherer Schulen*, Dr. Julius Ziehen writes on the development of the so-called Frankfort system of gymnasial reform which was established six years ago. It will be remembered that the institution in question differs from the regular gymnasium in the substitution of French for Latin in the three lower classes, the latter language not being commenced till Unter-Tertia, while again, two years later, in Unter-Secunda, a third language, either Greek or English, is taken up and continued, along with the other two, during the last four years of the course. On the whole, this Frankfort experiment is one of the most interesting which these times of educational reform have brought forth, and its success may be inferred from the fact that nineteen institutions in the empire have adopted the system; several cities are planning to do the same, and the Prussian Government has made appropriations for its further extension.

The Cultus Ministry of Bulgaria has published some interesting new statistics on the condition of educational matters in that country. According to this official report, Bulgaria has one university with three faculties, namely, the historico-philological, the physico-mathematical, and the law, situated in Sofia; further, 150 middle-grade schools, of which 9 are full gymnasia and 76 are partial or progymnasia for boys, while 7 are full gymnasia and 37 progymnasia for girls. There are 14 mixed gymnasia for both sexes, one military middle-grade school and 4,481 public schools. The last mentioned are divided along religious and national lines, namely, 3,079 Orthodox-Bulgarian, 19 Catholic-Bulgarian, 8 Protestant-Bulgarian, 25 Mohammedan-Bulgarian, 1,243 Turkish, 16 Tartar, 39 Greek, 13 Armenian, 27 Jewish, 4 Roman Catholic, 3 French, 2 Rumanian, 1 German, 1 Russian, 1 girls' school for foreigners. Of these public schools, 3,079 are maintained by state and church together, the former contributing two-thirds, the latter one-third of the costs, and 1,402 schools are supported by private means entirely. The state budget appropriated 9,188,560 francs for the current year. According to the last census, the population of Bulgaria was 3,309,816, and the report shows that the proportion of schools to the population is very good.

The general report of the Geological Survey of India for the fifteen months ending April 1, 1898, contains notes of the work of the museum and laboratory, the palæontological work, the investigations of field parties, and the publications. The collection of economic specimens has been largely increased, and the type fossils have been rearranged in specially constructed cases. The determination and description of the Burman fossils, under the direction of Dr. Noetling, has been partially completed, and the results await publication. An unexpected and interesting result of the examination of the tertiary Pelecypoda is the disproval of the generally accepted view that the fauna now living in the Indian Ocean is closely related to the tertiary fauna of Europe. Most of the Pelecypoda examined are either identical with species now inhabiting the Indian Ocean, or are so closely related to existing species that the latter are presumably descended from them, while none could be identified with species from the tertiary system of Europe. The inference is that no connection existed between the Indian Ocean and the European Ocean during the upper tertiary period. The reports of the field parties relate to the earthquake of January 12, 1897, and to surveys in various parts of India. The announcement is made that, with the completion of volume 30, the quarterly Records of the Survey ceased to be printed as a separate publication, and will in future be incorporated with the Memoirs.

Mr. F. N. Scott, junior professor of rhetoric in the University of Michigan, began, last year, an experiment of collecting compositions written by school-children of the same class in successive years (for four years), upon themes indicated by Mr. Scott. He now sends out a second circular, still providing for first-year pupils, and asks the co-operation of teachers in procuring the desired material for "a special study of problems of composition." He invites correspondence and suggestions.

A correspondent writes: "As a curious instance of the ignorance of educated Englishmen regarding our country, I quote a sentence from the *Critical Review*, published in Edinburgh, July, 1898. It occurs in a notice of the Life of Dr. J. L. Phillips, and reads (p. 357), 'A remarkable tribute is paid to him by Senator Reed, late Speaker of the House of Representatives of Boston.'"

—Noticeable in the September number of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* are the portraits of Harvard war leaders, and these are supported by such of the Commencement speeches as turned upon the then flagrant hostilities between Spain and the United States. On the eve of investigations of the conduct of the war, these patriotic manifestoes or apologies have somewhat the cheer of funeral baked meats; and, on the whole, one would prefer the honorable distinction of the Class Orator, who "departed from the usual custom of choosing a neutral topic, or at least a topic not likely to arouse bitter feelings," and "selected for his text the wickedness of the present war, and the obligation resting on the class of 1898 to abjure Congress and all his works." This manfulness is made light of by the martial chronicler, who does not reckon it among the "Evidences of Progress" which are his special theme. That Congress was the author of the war nobody can deny, and the sophistication of the endeavor to identify the undergraduate patriotism of 1898 with that of 1861 lay in equating Congress and country. "The grave problem presented to the youth of the University," said its honored head at the Commencement dinner, was: "Shall we enlist in the service of the country?" A little later this becomes: "The Government wants 200,000 men. I am a man, and I am free to go; I will go." In fact, the enlisting was not in the service of the country, which was in no strait or peril whatever, but of Congress and the Executive; and if their call to arms is always valid, then patriotism can take no account of the justice or injustice of a war, of its aggressive or defensive character, and the republic has no superiority over monarchies capable of dynastic wars in disregard of public sentiment or the public welfare. In the melancholy "patriotic" stampede which involved all the colleges to a greater or less extent, we certainly think Harvard's part was creditably reluctant and limited; but we could wish some excuses had not been made, and some moral and historical discriminations not obliterated, at the oldest and highest seat of learning in

the land—the university of the author of the first series of the "Biglow Papers."

—The first volume of the 'Writings of James Monroe' (Putnam) has appeared, and fully warrants the high expectations of its value and interest. Not that Monroe was a great man. He was not creative, like Hamilton, or destructively critical, like Jefferson, or learned in political theory, like Madison. He was rather a dull, plodding, well-meaning man, who was a careful and patient recorder of what passed before him, but entirely without the knowledge or genius that made so many of his contemporaries statesmen and legislators. His pamphlets on the Constitution were very weak in form and matter. His successful advance in public life was due to his close association with Jefferson. Lacking the ability to be independent, he was easily led by his shrewd master, and became his convenient agent for accomplishing what a stronger man would have declined. His narrow-mindedness made him dogged and suspicious, but bound him the more firmly to Jefferson. He became suspicious of Madison as early as 1787. His suspicions of Jay were pronounced, and were based upon other considerations than the attempt to occlude the Mississippi. He believed disunion was plotted in 1786, and saw in the proposed admission of new States a wish to break down the political preponderance of the South. Gardoqui, the Spanish agent, he could not forgive, and described him as a "subtile and malignant little wretch." In 1788, before the Constitution had become a fact, he says of Washington: "More is to be apprehended if he takes a part in the public councils again, as he advances in age, from the designs of those around him than from any disposition of his own"—a prediction of great worth, according to Jefferson. In this volume, covering sixteen years of Monroe's career, there are 74 letters to Jefferson, 47 to Madison, and only 10 to other persons.

—The letters written when a member of the Continental Congress are the most valuable, because they contain a fairly careful account of the proceedings, naturally colored in conformity with the Virginia point of view. The questions that were before the dying Congress of the Confederation were of high and permanent importance. The disposition and government of public territory, the increasing restlessness of the Western settlements, the failure of requisitions on the States, the rejection of the impost scheme, the regulation of foreign commerce, and the undetermined questions with Spain and Great Britain, were pregnant with possibilities involving the very existence of the Confederation and of Federal independence. These letters are replete with good matter. When Monroe has retired from Congress, and writes from Virginia, his limitations become more marked. He vies with Jefferson in denouncing Hamilton's policy, although finance was to him a sealed book. His criticism of the proclamation of neutrality is almost puerile, and would be a sorry measure of his legal ability. His want of political balance is indicated by his extreme sympathy for France. What could be more remarkable than this comment on Genet's threat to appeal to the people against the Executive? "Of one fact I am well assured, that in case of such an appeal, the people of this State, in deciding on the merits of the controversy, wo'd pardon the errors of the French minister, whilst they would consider those of the administration inveterate & malignant vices." Yet in less than a year after that was written, he was sent to France to represent the United States. The notes of the editor, Mr. Stanislas M. Hamilton, are judicious and restrained. We wish he had used the Monroe letters in the Virginia State-house, and had indicated wherein a letter was in cipher. Robertson's report of the convention debates in Virginia would have given better results than Grigsby's labored and unsatisfactory paraphrase. "Delanson" (p. 27) is probably a misprint for Delaware, and some parts of sentences of letters appear to have been dropped. Thus, on p. 63, Monroe wrote "firmly opposed by 45 & 47," but Mr. Hamilton makes the sentence end with the word opposed. The make-up of the book leaves nothing to be desired.

—The British Museum originated in the anxiety of Sir Hans Sloane to preserve in its entirety the curiosities he had gathered at much expense of time and treasure. To a similar feeling the Massachusetts Historical Society owes its unique and invaluable Douce library, and the Boston Public Library owes most of the eleven special collections in its upper story, which are of unrivalled personal interest. A still more recent instance is the presentation to the Billings Library in the University of Vermont of the Vermontana of Mr. L. E. Chittenden. These works could not have been discovered and secured without a half-century of watching and waiting as well as liberal and sometimes fabulous outlays. Scanty are the fragments now left for future gleaners. Mr. Chittenden's thesaurus is full of historic documents which cannot be duplicated, and has no rival save in the British Museum. There Henry Stevens claimed to have garnered up 50,000 Americana. He once in London showed the present writer how thoroughly that task was performed by pointing to twenty-four pamphlets by Joshua Bates, President of Middlebury College in 1818, and declaring that not half of them could be found in Vermont or in America. It had been Mr. Chittenden's intention to give his collection outright to the university near which his infancy had been cradled. Owing, however, to unlooked-for reverses and obligations in his old age, it became necessary to sell at whatever sacrifice. The Vermont rarities would no doubt have yielded most cash if disposed of under the hammer of an auctioneer; yet, so great was Mr. Chittenden's reluctance to see the "one whole body which he had compacted and fitly framed together" dispersed that he offered it to the Billings Library for $3,500—no more than was needed for the comfort of his age. No money was, however, available from its fund or from the University, and yet it was felt that such an opportunity to enrich State archives could never again present itself. That feeling led individuals to furnish the needed sum at once, and the historical quarry is now in transit from New York to Burlington. It is worthy of perpetual remembrance that the Billings Library itself would never have existed but for its founder's resolve that the library of Mr. G. P. Marsh, so long dean of our foreign diplomats, and among the foremost contemporary scholars in his line, should not be broken up and scattered. Mr. Billings, having purchased this accumulation in Rome and brought it to Burlington, discovered that there was no room to receive it. The University could not afford shelf-room, much less protection from fire. But the jewel could not fail to make a casket for itself—a fire-proof costing more than ten times as much as the gem; for Mr. Billings built an edifice which will accommodate not only the Marsh nucleus, but whatever of bibliothecal value can be expected for a century to come. It is a noteworthy fact that Mr. Billings, having early made a fair fortune in California, earnestly desired to remain there as the head of the State University. In the last years of his life he assured the writer of these lines that he would have so done but for the failure of his health.

—The whirligig of Time brings his revenges. There are certain crimes, like the trial of Dreyfus, which will not down, but perpetually return to plague their perpetrators. Of such were the torture and burning of Savonarola through the alliance between the Holy See and the paganism of Renaissance Florence. It has, ever since 1498, exercised the ingenuity of apologists, and the latest phase of attempted vindication is seen in the quarter-centenary of the martyr's death celebrated by the Dominican Order in honor of one of its most illustrious members. Springing from this is a little book by Father O'Neil, O. P. (Boston: Marlier, Callanan & Co.), the principal objects of which apparently are to prove that Savonarola was not a reformer in the Lutheran sense, and to minimize the responsibility of Alexander VI. The first of these objects is superfluous, for Savonarola's career was cut short before he was forced to recognize, as Luther gradually did, that he could not resist the papacy without discarding the scholastic theology on which sacerdotalism was founded. The second object of the book is not attained, for although Father O'Neil evidently desires to be impartial, the inevitable bias leads to a virtual suppression of unpleasant facts. No one, for instance, would imagine from his pages that the Spanish priest (not bishop, as the author says) Romolino, who was the chief papal agent in the brutal tragedy, was rewarded for his unscrupulous cruelty with the bishopric of Sorrento. It is mentioned, indeed, that he subsequently reached the cardinalate, but there is no recognition of the light which the promotion of such a man throws upon the debased secularization of the Curia. The volume ends with a curious bibliography, including even George Eliot's 'Romola,' but there is no reference to the diary of the *piagnone* Luca Landucci, the most important source of information as to the relations between the Frate and the people.

—A well-informed writer has directed attention very recently in the London *Times* to the industrial revolution which is taking place in Russia. Various causes have contributed during the past thirty years to depress all agricultural interests—such as the investment of a large part of the money received at the emancipation of the serfs in business undertakings, the decline of wages, and the fall in the value of agricultural produce; above all, the great increase of the rural population. This has led to such a subdivision of the land "that the total produce of the peasant holdings would now very rarely suffice for the maintenance of a family." A careful estimate made by Prof. Mendeléeff of the St. Petersburg University

shows that the total agricultural operations in the whole of Russia could not possibly occupy more than half the available labor. To these conditions is due a remarkable development of village industries. In many places in widely separated districts the peasants have combined together to build a *sviételka*, or factory, for their common use. Here they weave, make furniture, agricultural implements, household utensils, even simple machines, metal-work of almost every description, besides an immense number of articles that might be grouped together as "bazaar goods." Not only do they supply the local needs of their districts, but many of these village products find their way to Persia and Turkestan, and recently new markets have been found for them in China These village factories serve as excellent nurseries for workmen, and in some instances they "are becoming industrial centres of importance, in which hand labor is being replaced by machinery with all the most modern appliances and an elaborate system of division of labor."

TOLSTOY ON ART.

What is Art? By Leo Tolstoy. Translated from the Russian original by Aylmer Maude. Embodying the author's latest alterations and revisions. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

One would wish to treat with becoming seriousness anything addressed to the public by Count Tolstoy—a good man, wholly devoted to the service of humanity, and unquestionably sincere in his opinions. He has now given us his notion of what art is, and of how it will be pursued in the future under the régime of Christian socialism of which he dreams. These ideas are presented to us in a clear and readable translation, and, the author assures us, for the first time in anything like their true form; the Russian edition having been mangled by the censor, who not only refused Count Tolstoy permission to say what he meant, but made him say much that he did not mean. Yet it is difficult, after reading the book, to preserve a serious frame of mind. Count Tolstoy complains that professors of æsthetics and critics of art, "instead of giving a definition of true art, and then deciding what is and what is not good art by judging whether a work conforms or does not conform to the definition," actually try to decide first what are works of art, and then to form a definition which shall cover all such works. It might be thought that all profitable definition proceeded in this manner, but Tolstoy is determined to be rigidly logical, and arrives at such astonishing conclusions as that the works of Æschylus and Sophocles, Dante and Shakspere, Michelangelo and Raphael, Bach and Beethoven, are not art at all, or at most are bad art (pp. 121, 122, 150, and elsewhere), and that china dolls are "works of real, good Christian art" (p. 171), without for a moment suspecting that something must be wrong with his original definition. "What I am saying," he remarks, "will be considered irrational paradox at which one can only be amazed"; and for once the reader agrees.

In spite of the difficulty, however, we shall endeavor to be serious, and to refrain from the easy method of ridicule which our author does not himself always disdain—witness his long description of a performance of Wagner's "Siegfried" (pp. 132 to 137), a great part of the effectiveness of which is due to the reiterated mention (six times in five pages) of the actors' tights. For the development of his doctrine, Count Tolstoy has allowed himself 212 solidly printed pages, exclusive of preliminary matter and appendices, and, while there is some repetitiousness and needless amplification, it is obvious that a book review does not afford space enough for a detailed examination and refutation of an argument of this length. We shall attempt as fair and concise a summary as is within our power of the contents of his essay, and shall then content ourselves with pointing out what we consider to be the author's original error and the fruitful source of many errors and extravagances.

The book opens with a description of the rehearsal of a lyric opera, which the author finds a "repulsive sight," and which, of course, he has no difficulty in ridiculing with the stock arguments of untruth to any possible nature. He also finds the ballet "lewd." But this "nasty folly" costs vast sums of money which might be better spent, and lives of hard work which might be more profitably employed, and all for the cause of art. What, then, is art, and why is it important, and why should it be encouraged at such expense? The next three chapters are devoted to proving that critics and professors have given a great number of conflicting definitions of art, and that it is impossible to reconcile their differences. It is, therefore, time for a new definition. That the end of art is pleasure, and that its aim is the creation of beauty, are especially distasteful doctrines. For what pleases one does not please another; it is a mere matter of taste, and there is no accounting for taste, and so we are left with no canon of judgment at all. "To see the aim and purpose of art in the pleasure we get from it is like assuming . . . that the purpose and aim of food is the pleasure derived when consuming it." We must "put aside the conception of beauty, which confuses the whole matter," and start afresh. We must "cease to consider art as a means to pleasure," and look for "the purpose it may serve." And so we arrive at our definition:

"Art is one of the means of intercourse between man and man. . . . Whereas by words a man transmits his thoughts to another, by means of art he transmits his feelings. *Art is a human activity, consisting in this that one man consciously, by means of certain external signs, hands on to others feelings he has lived through, and that other people are infected by these feelings, and also experience them.*"

So it is printed, in italics, but afterwards it takes the simpler form—Art is the expression (or transmission) of human emotion. The one criterion of what is art, is what Tolstoy calls its infectiousness. If we experience the emotion of the artist, the work is art. The one criterion of the worth of the work of art is the nature of the emotion it transmits. That art alone should be encouraged which transmits emotions which it is for the good of mankind to experience.

After this we have a little history tending to show that all peoples have acted on this principle until almost our own day. To the Greeks beauty was the highest good, and only that art was encouraged which spoke of beauty. To the mediæval mind there was nothing good but the Church, and no art was encouraged but that which glorified the Church. With the Renaissance came an age when men had no religion and the doctrine of pleasure was founded; since then all that we call art is either bad art or not art at all, but an empty imitation expressing no real feeling. Art became exclusive, intended only for the pleasure of a small class.

"The first great result was, that art was deprived of the infinite, varied, and profound subject-matter proper to it. The second result was, that, having only a small circle of people in view, it lost its beauty and became affected and obscure; and the third and chief result was, that it ceased to be either natural or even sincere, and became thoroughly artificial and brain-spun."

Then follows the indictment of modern art. As to subject, it deals with feelings of pride, of sexual desire, and of weariness of life; as to form, it is unintelligible; and, finally, most of it expresses nothing whatever but the desire of the artist for fame or money. Of course the Decadents and Symbolists and Impressionists come in for more or less deserved and very easy castigation, and it was hardly necessary to give pages of quotation to prove that Mallarmé, for instance, is unintelligible; but it is somewhat surprising to find Kipling put in the same category.

Here one begins to suspect that, after all, we have come back to the "question of taste" in another form. For who is to judge whether a work of art really is "infectious"—whether it really conveys an emotion and to whom? The Wagnerite thinks that Wagner has conveyed a strong emotion to him. Not at all, says Tolstoy. This is only an imitation of art. You have not been "infected," only "hypnotized." Besides, your taste is perverted. Is Tolstoy himself, then, the only judge? No. He confesses that his own taste has probably also been perverted, and that while he has learned to see the worthlessness of much which he once admired, he may still take for true art a good deal that is not. Some of the few things still left may also be imitations. The judge is the peasant. How is one to discriminate between the true art and the false? he asks. "For a country peasant of unperverted taste this is as easy as it is for an animal of unspoiled scent to follow the trace he needs." If you once admit the necessity of trained comprehension of art, you must admit that the Decadent has as good a right to call you insufficiently trained to understand him as you have to call another too untrained to understand the art you admire. The peasant is the only judge. What affects him is art; what does not, is only imitation.

"The stronger the infection, the better is the art, as art"; but good and bad are really only to be distinguished by subject-matter. Only that art is worthy of encouragement to-day which expresses emotions tending to "unite men with God and with one another." Our modern art "has a directly vitiating influence, infecting people with the worst feelings and with those most harmful to humanity—superstition, patriotism, and, above all, sensuality," and "the efforts of those who wish to live rightly should be directed towards the destruction of this art." Good art, or Christian art,

"can be and is of two kinds: (1) art transmitting feelings flowing from a religious perception of man's position in the world in relation to God and to his neighbor—religious art in the limited meaning of the term; and (2) art transmitting the simplest feelings of common life, but such, always, as are accessible to all men in the whole world—the art of common life—the art of a people—universal art. Only these two kinds of art can be considered good art in our time."

Thereupon, with the subject as criterion, we have a limited list of works of true art, including the china doll, and the statement in a note—surely a guarantee of good faith—"I consign my own artistic productions to the category of bad art, excepting the story *God Sees the Truth*, which seeks a place in the first class, and *The Prisoner of the Caucasus*, which belongs to the second."

So we come to the art of the future: schools will be abolished and critics also. Only productions tending to the advancement of Tolstoian ideals of universal brotherhood will be tolerated. "Church art, patriotic art, voluptuous art . . . will be censured and despised." All the rest of art will be considered unimportant. All men will be possible artists, for "complex technique" will be scorned and every one will be taught drawing and singing "equally with letters in the elementary schools," while no man will be paid for his art. We shall be in the golden age again, and "compose a fairy-tale, a little song that will touch, a lullaby or a riddle that will amuse."

Now it seems to us that there are plenty of gaps in this chain of reasoning, and that the conclusions by no means necessarily follow even if the premises be granted. It is easy to see how Tolstoy's intensely humanitarian and utilitarian nature has led him into his position. In a final chapter he pays his compliments to science, and shows that truth for truth's sake is no more to his taste than art for art's sake. Science must preach the gospel according to Tolstoy or be banished.

"One would suppose it to be the business of real science," he says, "to demonstrate the irrationality, unprofitableness, and immorality of war and executions; or the inhumanity and harmfulness of prostitution; or the absurdity, harmfulness, and immorality of using narcotics or of eating animals; or the irrationality, harmfulness, and antiquatedness of patriotism. And such works exist, but are all considered unscientific, while works to prove that all these things ought to continue, and works intended to satisfy an idle thirst for knowledge lacking any relation to human life, are considered to be scientific."

But because one can see why Tolstoy thinks so and so, one is not obliged to accept his logic. Indeed, he has a dim perception that he has given away his case in admitting that "ornaments of all kinds" are good art. He says:

"I fear it will here be urged against me that, having denied that the conception of beauty can supply a standard for works of art, I contradict myself by acknowledging ornaments to be works of good art. The reproach is unjust, for the subject-matter of all kinds of ornamentation consists not in the beauty, but in the feeling (of admiration of, and delight in, the combination of lines and colors) which the artist has experienced and with which he infects the spectator."

Exactly so, but this is as true of all art as of ornamentation, and by admitting ornament to be art he has admitted everything. For it is precisely this "delight in combination" or arrangement which artists mean by art. It is here that we find the key to Tolstoy's original error, to the fatal omission from his definition of art.

That omission is the omission of any mention of form, without which there is no art. Let us take his definition and add one word to it. Art is a human activity consisting in this, that one man, consciously, by means of certain *ordered* external signs, hands on to others feelings he has lived through, etc. Or, in briefer form: Art is the *harmonic* expression of human emotion. This, it will be observed, is precisely Mr. Stillman's definition, on which we commented in reviewing his book, 'The Old Rome and the New.' We then said that, while this is an admirable definition of art as a whole—of the general art principle which is the same in all of the arts—it was not sufficient in dealing with each art separately, because it neglected the principles of imitation, which enters into painting and sculpture; of construction, which enters into architecture; of intelligible expression of thought, which enters into poetry, etc. It is not an adequate and complete definition on which an entire art-criticism or art-philosophy can be based, but it is, perhaps, the best brief definition in existence, and is certainly much more complete than Tolstoy's. What is common to all art is some form of harmony, order, proportion. But beauty is nothing else than harmony, and therefore it is true that the creation of beauty is the end of art. It is the emotion of delight in harmony or arrangement that is the especial subject-matter of art, and therefore it is true that the aim of art is to please. It by no means follows that everything that pleases is art, or that we are left to the "question of taste," with no criterion but the "I like it." It must please in a certain way—namely, by the creation of harmony—and it must please those best fitted by nature and training to appreciate it. Now the laws of harmony are capable of investigation, and some of them are known, and there is a difference in judges. Even Count Tolstoy would not maintain that a man born stone deaf could appreciate music, or a blind man judge of painting, and there are all degrees of blindness and deafness. Neither would he deny, probably, that a new-born child is incapable of distinguishing pitch or color. Therefore, we must admit that there is difference of natural gift and difference of training. The best art is that which, over the longest period of time, delights the largest number of those best qualified to judge.

Of course, there is such a thing as perverted taste, and there is bad art and imitation art, but time will take care of it. Is the art of Mallarmé and Baudelaire in poetry, of Berlioz and Wagner in music, of Rodin in sculpture, and Monet in painting, true art or false, good art or bad? We may give our reasons for thinking either way, but time and the consensus of opinion alone will decide. Were Æschylus and Sophocles, Dante and Shakspere, Michelangelo and Raphael, Bach and Beethoven, great and true artists, or the reverse? Time and the consensus of opinion have already decided. These are the great ones of the earth, the consummate creators of eternal harmonies that stir the souls of all lovers of beauty and of art. Any theory that leaves them out is as self-confessed an absurdity as would be a theory of war that relegated Cæsar and Napoleon to the rank of bunglers.

A SOUTHERN AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

Led on! Step by Step: Scenes from Clerical, Military, Educational, and Plantation Life in the South, 1828-1898. An Autobiography. By A. Toomer Porter, D.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

Hereafter, no catalogue of the curiosities of autobiographical literature will be complete which does not contain the title of Dr. Porter's book. There is much here to remind us of such famous memoirs as those of Haydon and Cellini, a piety quite as robust and sordid and indelicate as theirs, with all their naïve assurance of divine cooperation. Of course the difference of character and circumstances is wide. Dr. Porter has none of Cellini's vices, but all the virtues appropriate to an Episcopal clergyman; and if his piety has much of the sordidness of Haydon's, it has little of its obvious selfishness. Lowell's intimation in "The Cathedral" that no one has "attempted the supernatural in modern clothes," gets here a contradictory comment. Dr. Porter has attempted that or nothing, and much of the unique attraction of his book inheres in this incongruity. Some of his deliberate attempts at humor are unfortunate, but he is often amusing when he is least bent on being so. Indeed, the humor of his book is a pervasive quality, of so many great occasions has he been a part, so largely does the history of the civil war resolve itself into the story of his personal experience. While it is impossible to question his deliberate veracity, it is difficult to escape from the suspicion that the writer's egotistic imagination has contributed an important element. So much effusion, so many persons of full habit falling upon each other's necks with tearful exclamations, make a severe demand on our credulity, and there are acts reported of particular persons which cannot be adjusted to our knowledge of those persons. Moreover, that some of the speeches which are "quoted accurately" (see Capt. Worden's, pp. 216-217) are constructed after the manner of Thucydides, there cannot be a particle of doubt.

And yet, when every proper deduction has been made, and when the supernatural element, with its special providences and miraculous answers to prayer, has for the moment been set aside, there remains a story abounding in impressive incident, and reflecting many of the most striking aspects of the great struggle in which the North and South engaged, for the destruction of slavery on the one hand and for its maintenance on the other. Dr. Porter was of Southern birth, but of New England extraction. He was born in Georgetown, South Carolina, in 1828. Nothing concerning himself is indifferent to him, and he details the circumstances and adventures of his childhood and his youth with great particularity. That his life was saved by a negro explains, he thinks, in part his devotion to the negro race, the amount of which as disclosed by the later narrative does not appear to have been remarkable. His school-days over, he engaged in business, in the course of which it fell to him to superintend the shipping of a number of slaves from Charleston to the farther South. Some of these slaves had formerly been owned by his parents, and they recognized him and pleaded with him to take them back to the old plantation. In this connection he deplores the separation of married slaves as one of the worst evils of slavery, but in another he declares that to keep them together was a difficult business, so prone were they to infidelity. Coming of age, he entered on his inheritance as a slave-owner and planter, but though he displayed much energy on the plantation, which overseers had long mismanaged, he soon made good the prophecy of his business

employers that he was cut out for a business man; at any rate, that he was not meant for a planter. He resolved to be a clergyman, and in the event his new calling fully tested his business capacity, and it was not found wanting. His plantation and his slaves were sold, care being taken that the slaves all went to one master. At this point in his narrative Dr. Porter indulges in certain general reflections which are very favorable to the mutual relations of the masters and their slaves. He makes the sweeping statement that, "in all those bloody, awful years from '61 to '65, through all the South, there is no record of a single murder committed by a negro on a white person, or a single outrage or indignity offered to any woman." These facts are offered as "a proof of the manly nobility of the negro," and of the good treatment which he had received. In contrast with the later tenor of events, real or supposed, they offer a serious problem to the sociologist.

Our author's studies and lay reading were soon over, and in 1854 he became the ordained minister of the Church of the Holy Communion in Charleston, and thus entered on a relation which, with some interruptions and vicissitudes, he sustained for forty-four years. The church was in its weak and struggling infancy, and from the beginning of his ministry he appears to us in these pages *in forma pauperis*, a character for which his predilection and his genius were immense, and for the exercise of which his life, especially after the civil war, furnished him with abundant opportunity. Apparently he was never happier than when begging money for some darling scheme. He had every qualification for success. His sincerity was absolute. He believed in his various schemes partly because they were his own, and partly because they were generous and humane. He believed in himself without any doubt or qualification whatsoever. He could appeal to anybody in America or England with a naïve assurance and effrontery that but seldom missed the mark, and what never failed him was a sense of supernatural guidance which, nourished by his egotism, nourished that in turn to a remarkable development. He compares his own experiences with those of George Müller, with his famous Bristol orphanage, for which Müller never asked a cent, but simply advertised his prayers. Dr. Porter pricks that attenuated bubble with his lively pen, and frankly owns that he did not himself trust to prayer alone, but begged right and left where he had reason to expect a favorable response, and sometimes where he had none. As mere coincidences, the timely contributions that came to him when he was in the most narrow straits were certainly remarkable. Again and again he ran in debt in a manner that would have been frightfully immoral but for his confidence in God's protecting care. 'God's Blessing on Improvidence' would have been as good a title for his book as 'Led On!' That element of shrewdness which we often find in the mystic and fanatic was conspicuous in him. Nothing that mother wit could do to help the miracle was left undone. And so the Church of the Holy Communion flourished more and more, and with it various enterprises which for a longer or a shorter time appeared to be of great pith and moment—notably the Porter Military Academy, as it came at length to be called, which in the course of thirty years has educated over 3,000 boys, more than 2,500 of them gratuitously or for a mere pittance, at an expense of nearly $1,000,000, the most of which has been contributed by friends in the Northern States and in England in response to Dr. Porter's devoutly shrewd solicitation.

But the chapters of Dr. Porter's autobiography which will be most interesting to the general reader are those that relate his experiences during the civil war and immediately before and after. He thinks he was "born opposed to slavery." He does "not remember the time when he did not hate it." Secession, also, had for him no charms. Yet when the secession craze swept over South Carolina in December, 1860, he yielded to it as cordially as the rest. He was singular only in believing that secession meant war. The general persuasion was quite otherwise, and great was the depression when it became evident that he was right. It was his distinction to be the only outsider in the convention that signed the Ordinance of Secession. The Washington Light Infantry, of which he was chaplain, were so thoroughly grounded in the doctrine of States' Rights that they refused to leave the State, and a volunteer company was raised, largely from his impulsion, of a more active disposition. Following the company to Virginia, he soon encountered "a typical instance of Confederate mismanagement": a train of sick and wounded soldiers had telescoped a freight train. Everywhere there was the same lack of organization, neutralizing the courage of the men. To these he commended his chaplaincy with a good supply of tobacco and pipes. When every man of his company had his pipe, one of them shouted, "Now, Chaplain, give us some prayers!" and he obeyed. He was the man of business in his piety as in everything else. His ecclesiastical aspirations were not silent in the midst of arms, and in 1863 he felt "peace with honor" to be so near that he asked his people to build a $200,000 church as a thank-offering to Almighty God. George A. Trenholm, then Confederate Secretary of the Treasury, gave him $50,000. With this he would fain have bought cotton. Running the blockade with three vessels out of five, he would have had a million dollars for his church after the war, but he was over-persuaded, and, in order to be patriotic, put the $50,000 in Confederate bonds, which, after the war, brought him $350—just enough to carpet the old church.

Chapter xvii., "The Burning of Columbia," is an eye-witness's account of one of the most miserable tragedies of the war. It would have been strange if this ubiquitous parson had not been in Columbia at the critical moment. He was so, and saw the first bale of cotton ignited by the carelessness of the drunken soldiers. He tells of the people rushing out from the stores and houses with pitchers and buckets of liquor with which to propitiate the invaders. Gen. Sherman told him that this liquor was responsible for all the trouble, but Dr. Porter thinks he might have done more to bring order out of chaos. Dr. Porter's personal experiences were full of interest. Splendidly served by a Federal lieutenant, he made an adventurous journey in his behalf and restored him to Sherman's army. He was sitting at table between Gens. Johnston and Hardee when the former received a letter from Jefferson Davis announcing the surrender of Lee. The great collapse cost him for a time his religious faith. A God who had not given the victory to such Christian men as Lee and Jackson could not command his love or obedience. He fell to reading history, and in a few weeks came to the comfortable conclusion that everything was as it should be.

"Had we succeeded, slavery, which we hated, would have been perpetuated, with the sentiment of the world against us. It would have been a cankering sore in our body politic; it would have been a source of continual strife between the United States and the Confederacy. This would have made a standing army in each government a necessity. This would have revolutionized the form of our respective governments, and in fifteen more years we would have been engaged in a war of extermination, for one side or the other would have to be masters of this continent. God has permitted the wrath and ignorance of men to work His will. But, freed from the incubus of slavery, I believe there is a future for this dear Southland yet, and I am going to do all I can to make it."

All this and more was imparted as soon as conceived to Dr. Porter's invalid wife, unless it has gained something of elaboration in the course of thirty years. So easy a conversion would impugn his previous convictions, were it not for his assurance that he had always hated slavery. He was "still true to the Lost Cause," but he "was not going to hug a corpse," and he made haste to take his oath of allegiance to the Federal Government. A year had not passed from Lee's surrender before he was in New York economizing his new-fledged loyalty for the benefit of a Diocesan Theological Seminary, and a colored school which was certainly a convenient rider, and may have been something more. A prominent Unitarian headed the list of generous subscriptions, and the United States Government conceded its Marine Hospital in Charleston for the colored orphanage. Later it loaned and afterwards gave the United States arsenal to Dr. Porter for the uses of his academy. Incidentally he enjoyed much personal advantage and consideration.

This book will not make the same impression upon all. Some will be more impressed by the supernatural element than others who will argue from it that, to a sufficient boldness in mendicancy and to a complete self-confidence, all things are possible.

The Wonderful Century: its Successes and its Failures. By Alfred Russel Wallace. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 400, with 12 folding diagrams and author's portrait.

Mr. Wallace, in his preface, hesitates to declare categorically the purpose of this volume. He says, "It may perhaps be termed an appreciation of the century—of what it has done and what it has left undone." So considered, it is not a strong performance—is strangely incompetent for a strong man like Wallace. Does it not sound a bit like a school-boy's composition to hear an age criticised substantially in this fashion: "It has achieved some splendid successes, but it has fallen into some lamentable errors"? Of any human production whatever we know in advance that it will have its merits and its faults. What we ask of the major critic is to make it plain to us what the psychological qualities are, and what the experience and discipline have been out of which merits and defects have alike sprung. To do this for the nineteenth century, with the manifold agencies that have gone to make it what it is, is, no doubt, a problem of the most intricate. And yet there is one word that

goes so far towards formulating the age, and is, at the same time, so obvious, that one cannot easily pardon its omission from the slightest description of the century. That word is Accuracy. To the spirit of accuracy (derived ultimately from the seventeenth-century mathematics, whose ideas the eighteenth had pumped into every cranny of thought) may be historically traced the larger part of the characteristic traits of the nineteenth century, even in cases where these seem to be of quite the contrary complexion. Of this Mr. Wallace tells us nothing. He never so much as mentions even precision in machinery as a vital factor in the evolution of some of our grandest ideas, such as the conservation of energy. The course of events was this: precision in the machine-shops made the application of the steam engine to ocean vessels practicable; the necessity of accurate economy of coal on those vessels stimulated, as their engines aided, the study of the theory of heat; the mechanical theory of heat easily suggested the conservation of energy.

No account of the achievements of the nineteenth century can be considered satisfactory which, like this, is confined to the physical and natural sciences, and the arts connected with them, and says nothing at all of projected geometry nor the theory of functions in mathematics, nothing of the logic of relatives, nothing of psychological measurements, nothing of the ascertainment of laws in the growth of languages, nothing of Egyptology nor of the decipherment of the cuneiform inscriptions, nor of the excavations about the Aegean and their results, nothing of the rewriting of every branch of history, nothing of Ricardo and later economists. Nor ought such a description to be confined to science: in poetry, romance, music, painting, our century may claim to have gone deeper than the last. It is not altogether wanting even in improvements in the organization of society. Laws have been reformed, slaves emancipated, education extended, women treated seriously; sobriety, decency, and self-restraint generally, respected and demanded. To talk of appreciating the nineteenth century without the slightest thought of any of these things is so extraordinarily superficial that we are justified in suspecting that Mr. Wallace has not made public his real purpose in writing this book. The only part of it that is really vigorous is an argument of surprising force against vaccination. What the author really proves, however, is not so much the small efficacy of vaccination as the relative importance of other municipal and personal precautions. It is incontestable that a man may die of smallpox though he have been vaccinated ever so thoroughly; while he cannot have the disease at all if he is not exposed to its contagion. A recognition of this principle might save a good many lives, should we have a severe epidemic of smallpox next winter. Mr. Wallace's own conclusions go very much further; but in so far they are not legitimated by the scientific logic of statistics. It is curious, however, that he does show that the great falling off in mortality from smallpox at the beginning of the century was not mainly due to vaccination.

The whole argument occupies about a third of the volume. If this is germane to the professed subject of the work, it is difficult to say what would not be so. Had the author published this chapter as a separate essay, he had good reason to think it would not be read. If, however, his design was to seduce the reader into this chapter by prefixing 150 pages of light, entertaining discourse upon the glories of the century, further covering his purpose by appending some tame chapters on imprisonment, militarism, poverty, and the plunder of the earth, and if he threw in a couple of chapters in defence of phrenology, hypnotism, and psychical research (under which name he really squints at Spiritualism), partly because of his interest in the subjects, and partly to relieve the exceptional character of his chapter on vaccination, then the book has by no means been unskilfully put together.

One word about phrenology. Mr. Wallace claims for this doctrine the substantial support of modern cerebral physiology. This is audacious. No scientific psychologist will for an instant admit that the function of any part of the cortex of the brain can be accurately defined in terms at all resembling the marvellousness, veneration, etc., of Gall. Phrenology has been quite stagnant for half a century, a collapse in our day not at all likely to occur to an experimental doctrine not finally defunct. If it is not dead, let its students publish photographs and measurements of the heads of say a hundred of the men whose characters have become most publicly known and who have lived since the bumps were located, and there will be a mass of irresistible facts that will do more for phrenology than any amount of mere disputation. A phrenologist, Mr. Wallace tells us, said of him, "He is fond of argument, and not easily convinced." A disciple of Lavater might take the face of the frontispiece for that of an ecclesiastic rather than a scientific man, for whom it seems too argumentative. But for that trait, he would have been an excellent statistician. The same phrenologist said, "If wit were larger, he would be a good mathematician." Thereupon, Wallace, in his eagerness to advocate phrenology, remarks, "Most great mathematicians are either witty or poetical; Rankine, Clifford, De Morgan, Clerk-Maxwell, and Sylvester being well-known examples." A man who justly prides himself on ability as a statistician should not have been guilty of that induction. A fair list of great British mathematicians among Wallace's contemporaries would be Hamilton, Sylvester, Cayley, Boole, Smith, Kelvin, and Stokes. None of them were remarkable wits, although two amused themselves with poetry. Of wit Wallace admits his lack. For poetry he seems to have some penchant, since he regales the reader with upwards of fifty elegant extracts, of the taste of which the following may serve as a sample:

> "O Lavoisier, master great,
> We mourn your awful fate,
> But never tire of singing to your praise.
> You laid foundations true,
> And we must trace to you
> The chemistry of our enlightened days."

There is a tolerable index, though it omits more than two hundred names of persons mentioned.

The Encyclopaedic Dictionary of Photography. By Walter E. Woodbury, F.R.P.S. New York: The Scovill & Adams Co. 1898.

The dictionary of photographic terms and objects which has been appearing as feuilleton in the *Photographic Times*, is now published in a handsome quarto, filling a want which, if not urgent, is at least sensible, and will make the book a boon to students of photography. It will at the same time serve as a convenient book of reference for the terms of the chemistry of photography by those who are engaged in experiments on the practical conditions of preparation and development.

Those who can remember the condition of portraiture when photography first became a successful and practical process, will recall the lamentations over the impending disappearance of portrait- and miniature-painters as the inevitable consequence of the new discovery. Art was doomed, it was said, from the moment that Nature gave herself away to a chemical process. The shallow prognostic has not waited long for its confutation, and the highest attainment of photography has served only to show that it has nothing in common with art except the use of a symbol vocabulary. The general eagerness of photographers, especially the professionals, to ticket themselves as "artists," led us to turn at once to the rubric Art, to ascertain how far the book lends itself to the easy flattery of the craft, and it is refreshing to find no allusion to any claim of that nature, or any use of the word "art" except in the barbarous "artotype," designating a form of the collotype—*i. e.*, preparing and printing from a film of gelatine on which an image has been impressed by light through a negative.

The author here and there shows his English education in the use of terms. His definition of "Blanchard's brush" as made of "swan's-down calico" will hardly be understood by the average American, who knows "calico" as a *printed* cotton cloth, while the material for Blanchard's brush is known here as "cotton flannel" or "Canton flannel." Under "Camera," something should have been said to the credit of the inventors of the indispensable portable variety, the perfecting of which has, more than anything else except the invention of the dry plate, made photography accessible to all, and multiplied the race of amateurs who carry the kodak to the ends of the world. The first successful portable camera was the product of an English amateur by the name of Kinnear, but the whole tribe of recent "bellows" and folding cameras now in use and shown in plates Nos. 80, 81, 82 of the dictionary are modifications of a camera invented by Mr. W. J. Stillman in 1867, and originally manufactured by George Hare of London. That the kodak is not mentioned in the Dictionary is probably due to the trade interests of its publishers. This omission, and that of any useful definition and description of celluloid films, the use of which is the basis of the kodak system, are grave defects in a dictionary intended for general use, into which the interests of the "shop" should not be allowed to enter. Of all the recent improvements in photography for travellers the kodak is by far the most important, and no reader of the Dictionary will fail to question it for that subject.

The article on Emulsions is, so far as the most recent form of preparation of dry plates is concerned, very full; but an article is given to a "collodion-albumen" emulsion which was never a success, while the collodion emulsions which, under certain circumstances, are still of inestimable value, are most inadequately treated, and the Dictionary's recommendation should not be followed. The old wet process, though of less practical value than the collodion emulsion, is given full treatment.

The article on lenses is, perhaps, the most important, and yet is the most defective. None of the most important improvements in lenses of the last ten years are mentioned. The credit given to Dallmeyer, alone of English makers, is beyond all reason. His rapid rectilinear is simply an adaptation, without credit, of Steinheil's aplanatic lens; and Ross's adaptation, equally valuable, is not mentioned. All the most valuable modern lenses—the Zeiss and Goertz series—are ignored completely, while they in fact supersede all the lenses mentioned in the article. The Ross "Concentric," the most valuable landscape lens ever constructed, is not mentioned, though it was the pioneer of all the marvellous combinations constructed with the Jena glass, which now practically monopolize the field of special and rapid work.

The article on orthochromatic or isochromatic photography, so important to-day, is, on the contrary, very full. The term is, strictly speaking, a misnomer—no combination of "sensitizers" or apparatus has ever given the true values of colored objects; the results obtained are approximate only. The references to foreign and non-English experiments and discoveries are too few to impart a knowledge of what has been done in Europe (apart from England), and leave the impression that the author's learning is limited to his own language.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 29, 1898.

The Week.

The most popular editorial article in a Republican organ these days is one on "Apathy." The lesson of the Vermont and Maine elections has been taken to heart, and there is a general admission that at present quite as little interest in the campaign is taken in other States, particularly at the West, as was the case in New England. Political committees everywhere report that the people are not attending political meetings as usual, and in some cases extraordinary devices are employed to get them out. The Republicans of Chicago have chartered a vessel for a free excursion to Milwaukee, the plan being to get a lot of men on board so that they cannot escape, and then make stump-speeches to them. The Republican candidate for Congress in one district of the city has got up another scheme. He proposes to exhibit a lot of pictures of the war, and work in arguments for his own election between the views. In Kansas the Topeka *Capital*, while asserting that the Republican meetings have been more largely attended than the Populist, admits that as a rule the meetings of its own party compare unfavorably with those of either two or four years ago, and there seems to be an opening for a good circus manager to run the campaign in that State.

That public sentiment is now setting against the scheme of an empire in the far East cannot be doubted. The Springfield *Republican* declares that "no candid student of the drift of public opinion in western Massachusetts can escape the conclusion that the people are opposed to any further expansion of the national domain," and that "a majority of the Republicans in this region desire as little of the Philippines as we can escape with, a coaling-station at the most." The *Iowa State Register* has found in that Western State the same condition of public sentiment which exists in New England. Two striking incidents have already shown that opposition to the expansion policy helps rather than hurts a Republican candidate with the voters. Speaker Reed, in face of his opposition to the Hawaiian policy of the McKinley Administration, ran ahead of the Republican State ticket in his district at the election in Maine. Representative Wadsworth of western New York was one of the only two other Republican Congressmen who stood out with the Speaker against Hawaiian annexation. When his vote against his party was announced, the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle* threatened him with party vengeance, remarking that "he took the course that seemed to him best, and his constituents should take the course that seems best to them." Mr. Wadsworth's district is composed of the five Republican counties of Genesee, Livingston, Niagara, Orleans, and Wyoming. The Republican convention for this district met a few days ago and gave him a unanimous nomination for another term.

It is encouraging to find one Republican Congressman after another giving expression to his doubts regarding the wisdom of the expansion policy, if not to his conviction that it is dangerous. Representative Henry of the Hartford (Conn.) district, who has just been renominated, took occasion to make his position on this question plain in his speech of acceptance. "Whether," he said, "our future policy is to be what is sometimes styled imperial, leading to world empire, *or if, as I believe preferably, we are to remain conservatively content to be one of the great industrial and commercial Powers of the world*, is for the American people to carefully consider and wisely determine." Representative Walker of the Worcester (Mass.) district has announced that he is stoutly opposed to the expansion policy. The Springfield *Republican* states that Representative Gillett of the district which includes that city is also an opponent of this policy. Reed and Walker and Gillett and Henry are sure to find supporters as public sentiment against the expansion policy is more clearly expressed.

Perhaps the most curious feature of the situation regarding the policy of expansion is the fact that the McKinley Administration is trying to find out what "the will of the people" is from the deliverances of Republican State conventions, while the men who run these conventions try to avoid any expression of opinion on the subject, and leave its settlement to "the wisdom of the President and his constitutional advisers." Even Gov. Pingree of Michigan, who boasts of being as bold as a lion in telling where he stands on every issue, had a platform adopted by the Reublican State convention last week which did not say whether or not we ought to annex the Philippines, but weakly announced that "we leave our future destiny in this regard in the hands of the properly delegated authorities, believing that they will act for the glory and honor of the nation, and the elevation of mankind." But if "the properly delegated authorities" wait for the Pingrees to tell them which way to act for the glory and honor of the nation and the elevation of mankind, and the Pingrees refuse to tell, how shall we ever get anywhere?

It seems that we had a good deal to learn about our new possessions. We used to be told that we needed the Hawaiian Islands, among other reasons because Honolulu would be an ideal place for a military camp, but Gen. Merriam reports that there really is not one decent place in the islands for a camp. One of the arguments for getting Porto Rico was in order to have the fine coaling station we should thus secure, but we are now told that investigation by the Navy Department has shown that none of the harbors of Porto Rico is suitable for such a station, and that the best harbor in those waters is on the island of Culebra, just east of Porto Rico.

The dispatches from Honolulu show how rapidly we are moving on the old and beaten track. The native Hawaiians, it is reported, "have greatly damaged their case with the American Commissioners by presenting petitions asking for the restoration of the monarchy. This action has so thoroughly convinced the Commissioners of the complete lack of political sense and sagacity of the native Hawaiians, that it is believed they will make no recommendation to give the natives the right of suffrage." You see, the rascals are openly telling the American people, in whose power they are, that they would like the restoration of the old government under which they have always lived until it was taken away from them by the American people aforesaid, partly by force and partly by fraud. This growing impudence needs prompt repression, and we are glad to see that the Commissioners are going to punish it as it deserves. What business have the likes of them with the suffrage? The question why they cannot have it when the Southern negroes have it, and when most of the Republicans blathered for nearly forty years over the negro's right to it, we trust our great Washington leaders treat with the contempt it deserves. The negro can always be lynched when he misbehaves, and in extreme cases he can be burnt alive, which at present would be difficult with the Hawaiians. We think, therefore, it is very prudent not to give them the suffrage until we have begun to burn them.

There is a grave danger that the dissatisfaction growing out of the mismanagement of the War Department, the sufferings of the soldiers, and the growing belief that the war itself was

unnecessary, may cause the Republicans to lose control of the House in the next Congress. This would be a calamity in one sense. The result would be claimed as a victory for the silverites, and, while this would be a false claim, it would tend to paralyze the Republicans in the present House and prevent the passage of any measure for currency reform. The McCleary bill, now pending, commands the approval of substantially all the sound-money forces in the country. It embodies the best parts of Secretary Gage's plan and of the Indianapolis Monetary Commission's plan and of Chairman Walker's bill. It has gained the unanimous support of the Republican members of the banking and currency committee, although some of the members hold themselves at liberty to offer amendments in the House. So great a gain could hardly have been expected one year ago. It would be a great misfortune if this advance should now be lost.

In the event of the Republicans losing the next House, it will still be their duty to pass the McCleary bill now and send it to the Senate. It may be defeated in that body, but the action of the House will be an inspiration which will go far toward carrying future elections. It is well to recall the fact that when the Republicans lost the congressional elections of 1874, after the passage and veto of the inflation bill, they prepared and passed the specie-resumption act at the short session of Congress which followed the elections. They used the few months of power which remained to them to enact a law which brought prosperity to the country and enabled them to carry the country at the elections of 1876. The present case is not quite parallel, since the Opposition now hold the Senate and are able to prevent the passage of any measure of currency reform; but the opportunity will still remain to the Republicans to show their courage and to demonstrate their adhesion to the gold standard, to the maintenance of which they are now so committed that they cannot recede if they would.

The best proof that the silver craze is subsiding comes from the silver-producing States. The Montana Republicans held their convention on Saturday, and adopted the first platform ever put forth by the party in that State which did not endorse the free coinage of silver. Nor was this all: the St. Louis platform of 1896, gold standard and all, was endorsed without a dissenting vote. Last month the Idaho Republicans did the same thing, one of their resolutions reaffirming endorsement of the St. Louis platform, and another declaring that "we heartily endorse the financial policy of the Republican party, as the same has been applied to the management of the financial affairs of the government." Of course, this falls far short of the bold stand taken by the Iowa and Connecticut Republicans in demanding legislation by Congress to establish the gold standard beyond possibility of danger, but it marks quite as much progress in the right direction.

It is not surprising that the plain remarks of Mr. Crane, one of our city magistrates, delivered from the bench last week in regard to the systematic blackmailing of the liquor trade by the police, should have aroused the indignation of Mr. Croker's Chief of Police. What Mr. Crane said will cause no surprise. There was nothing new in it, except the revelation of a more systematic method for collecting blackmail than that which prevailed under former Tammany governments. He says that all liquor-dealers are compelled now to belong to an "association," and to pay the Tammany tax upon their trade through that rather than individually. Liquor-dealers who do not join are watched closely, and the police are upon them the moment they violate the law. If they keep open after legal hours, they are arrested and brought into court. Mr. Crane declares that members of the "association" sell after hours regularly and are never troubled by the police. Chief Devery is so enraged by these assertions of the magistrate that he threatens to lay his conduct before the grand jury. That is an excellent idea. The grand jury is just the place for the Chief to go with the matter. He says he wants "no liquor-dealers in New York to give any one any money for protection," and he thinks the magistrate should have gone to police headquarters and informed him what his police force was doing before he spoke of it from the bench. Not that he believes his men are helping Tammany to collect bribes. He does not believe it for a moment, and thinks it "is a dark day now, when others are trying to use the police properly, to accuse them of taking bribes." If he has his way the magistrate will be indicted. Somebody ought to be, that is clear, for we quite agree with Devery about its being "a dark day now" in police methods.

There are signs that the liquor business is not the only field of governmental activity in which Tammany is proceeding on a system. The fall elections are approaching, and the need of ample revenue is felt all along the line. The sudden influx of legislation against the street and elevated railways, in the Municipal Assembly, implies the formation of some kind of an "association" in that body. Of course, it is all done "in the interest of the people." There are to be public "hearings" at the city hall on the various railway measures, and if the people attend in large numbers (as can easily be arranged), the income from the source in question will probably be considerable. If the press can be induced to take a hand in the agitation, the income will be really handsome. An "association" to which all corporations affected could belong, might open negotiations directly or indirectly with the head of the government, Mr. Croker, and obtain satisfactory results without much difficulty, we doubt not. All that is necessary is frank recognition of the kind of government under which we are living.

The Rev. Dr. Swallow, the "honest-government" candidate for Governor of Pennsylvania, continues to make things interesting. He has issued a challenge to the Quay nominee for what are usually called "joint discussions," or "union meetings," as the clergyman styles them, in which he will maintain that the State has lost heavily "from misappropriation of interest, padded pay rolls, unnecessary committee expenses, extravagant appropriations, unlawful salaries, and by stealing under forms of law"; that the fire which destroyed the old capitol was the work of an incendiary; and that in the rebuilding of the capitol there was an unfair system of competitive bidding. He promises during such a debate to establish a dozen propositions, which range all the way from general maladministration of affairs to acts of official dishonesty that should land the culprits in jail, and he charges that at least $3,000,000 interest on State deposits has been stolen during the last twenty years, and $1,000,000 has been paid to different persons who have rendered no adequate service to the State. It is going to be difficult for Quay's man to ignore such a challenge, but of course he dare not accept it. Meanwhile the opponents of the boss seem to be making some headway in defeating his tools for nomination to the Legislature. But Quay is very strong in the rural districts of the State, and it still remains to be seen whether the spirit of revolt against boss rule is strong enough to break his hold.

The Philadelphia *Press*, which is edited by Charles Emory Smith when he is not holding federal office, in an article discussing "How Quay Maintains his Power," remarks that "the power over federal appointments is a strong lever in Senator Quay's hands to promote his purposes," and says that, "should he be retired to private life, his control of federal appointments will end and the power of the machine will be very greatly reduced." But it is not necessary to retire Quay to private life in order to end his control of federal appointments. Not one such appointment against the public interest and in the interest of Quay can be made by Quay without the initiative of the President. The ap-

pointment of a notorious Quay striker as Consul at Matanzas, Cuba, just before the war broke out, was made by Mr. McKinley, and the appointments of others of his heelers which are announced from week to week are also made by the President. Why does Mr. McKinley put this "strong lever in Senator Quay's hands to promote his purposes"? Has Postmaster-General Smith never told the President the truth about Quay?

The real trouble in the High Joint Commission has evidently begun, and it is hard to see exactly how it is to be settled. Shortly stated, it seems to be this —how can this country yield reciprocity to the Canadians by a treaty, when Congress shuts the door in the face of Canada by law? Put in another way, it would be, how can the anti-Canadian reciprocity lobby be any better defeated at Quebec than at Washington? According to the correspondents: "During the last twenty-four hours the American Commissioners have been besieged by deputations of Americans, praying and demanding that no ironclad treaty be entered into which would disturb, if not in many instances destroy, the present protective tariff laws of the United States." The farmers are imploring, the Home Market Club is imploring, and the accents of the suppliants against letting Canadian barley, eggs, fruits, and vegetables invade the United States, and against reciprocity in general, do not differ from the accents of the representatives of the same body when they were imploring Dingley to shut these dastardly products out. Is there not something rather base about this whole scheme of reopening the very questions which protection settled, within a year of the settlement? But we have, for our part, never understood how any kind of reciprocity was reconcilable with Dingley-McKinley protection, so that all we can do is humbly to wait and see what will happen.

All the other questions which will come before the Commission will be easy of solution compared with this. Even the difficulty about Canadian sealers is not to be compared with it. On this subject the plan proposed seems to be that the Canadian sealing industry should be suppressed and compensation be given to those actually engaged in the business. Probably, under English law, England and Canada together can accomplish this, though it is certainly a very arbitrary interference with the liberty of the subject to say that he shall not pursue a particular kind of game in what has been decided by an international court to be the open sea. But under the new doctrine of *contra bonos mores* you can do pretty much anything you like in the way of legislation. The real difficulty comes not in passing a law against pelagic sealing, but in catching the pelagic sealer. Perhaps, in a year or two, he will be flying the Japanese or the Russian flag, and then what shall we do about him?

Both to practical watchers of the money market and to students of theoretical finance, the recent moves of the Bank of England, culminating in Thursday's advance of its minimum discount rate, will be found interesting. The position of the English money market during the past year or two has been somewhat singular. So far as the merchandise trade-balance figures in a nation's debit or credit fund on foreign account, events have for some time past moved adversely to Great Britain. Even in a perfectly normal trade year, the nation's merchandise imports heavily exceed its exports, the import excess rarely falling below $500,000,000 annually—a sum which measures, of course, the returns from England's investments in foreign industry and the shipping trade. But of recent years, chiefly as a result of unforeseen circumstances or pure accident, this excess of imports has grown immensely. Taking for comparison the calendar years 1890 and 1897, the Board of Trade returns show that within the past seven years annual British imports have increased $152,000,000, while annual exports simultaneously have decreased $170,000,000. This extraordinary change, which has occurred for the most part in the past three years, is explained by two trade phenomena of the period—the sudden invasion of competitive export markets by American producers, and the recent crop failures abroad, which forced Europe to buy unusual quantities of American cereal produce. But, however caused, the result of this double phenomenon was to create a somewhat novel situation for Great Britain in the foreign exchanges. A situation similar in some respects was created after the crop failures of 1879 and 1891; but in those years the so-called adverse trade balance was settled by largely increased sales, first of English manufactures and second of American securities, to the United States. By such offsets the international account was squared again.

The novelty of this year's situation lies in the fact that our merchants are underselling English manufacturers in the home as in the foreign markets, thus barring one trade offset; while the foreign holdings of our stocks and bonds, though still extremely large, have been heavily reduced by the liquidation of the last five years, thus impairing the London market's automatic power in that direction. Much of this situation, obviously, is an accident of nature, which agricultural seasons of a different character will counterbalance. But, meantime, with the equally temporary "squeeze" in the New York money market under the Treasury operations, sterling exchange declines and a heavy import of gold begins.

The French cabinet has decided to reopen the Dreyfus case. Every intelligent observer in other lands has seen, from the day when Lieut.-Col. Henry confessed to the forgery of an important document and cut his own throat, that revision was necessary. It was necessary not only for the internal peace of France, but for her place among the civilized states of the earth. The public opinion of the world had long ago taken up Dreyfus, not necessarily as an innocent man, but as one unjustly condemned, and when Henry committed suicide, this opinion acquired irresistible force and intensity. The time has long passed when a nation can persistently commit a wrong upon one of its subjects and escape the penalty of the world's indignation. The spectacle of the prisoner of Devil's Island undergoing a terrible punishment from day to day—punishment for a crime which all intelligent persons now believe was not proven, but was most probably the result of an infamous conspiracy—such a spectacle was calculated to forfeit the respect of other nations and to impair the ties of friendship and alliance which, like the ties of private friendship, must in the long run be founded upon mutual respect. Now that revision has been decided upon, the new trial must be an open one. Another secret trial would be worse than none at all. Every document and every witness must be subject to inspection and cross-examination by the prisoner's counsel, with the prisoner himself confronting them. It is needless to say that the new trial will eclipse most other subjects of interest while it lasts.

It is difficult to penetrate the darkness that surrounds the imperial throne and dynasty of China. One day we are told that the Emperor has resigned, and that the Empress Dowager is the head of the Government. The next day news comes that the Emperor is dead, and that "the Russians" are carrying on the Government of China in his stead, and that the English fleet is moving to intercept a Russian army which has been promised to sustain the Mantchu dynasty. Notwithstanding these direful and rather conflicting rumors, we do not apprehend any collision between European Powers as a consequence of the dissolving empire of China. We believe that the recent peace proclamation of the Czar was as sincere as it is noble and benignant, and if it is sincere there can be no armed collision in China growing out of any present complications, for England will not go to war without a just cause, whatever the Jingo *Times* and the Jingo Colonial Secretary may say.

THE "NEW DUTIES" AND "NEW RELATIONS."

We have in our time read many a yard of buncombe and blatherskite, but buncombe and blatherskite used to be simply funny. You read them, you had your roar or your chuckle, as your habit might be, and you flung the stuff into your basket. One of the peculiarities of this day is that buncombe and blatherskite have become wicked and malignant, as well as amusing and silly. They have at last begun, for the first time in their history, to fill the minds of the public with anti-social passions, with envy, hatred, and malice, with the desire to humiliate and injure fellow-men with or without cause, with the desire to seize what does not belong to us in virtue simply of our superior strength. They are being used to turn away a whole American generation from the arts of peace and civilization, to fill their minds with dreams of battle and murder and sudden death, to persuade them that the ideas of national greatness and individual glory through which the American people have risen to unparalleled strength, and have won the respect of mankind, have been all a mistake, and that we should from the start have closely followed the old-world example of strife, extravagance, and folly, of blood and tears and devastation.

There are many excited windbags engaged in this silly business, but we have not come across one who has made his comedy so mischievous as Mr. Griggs, the Attorney-General of the United States. Here is some of his latest stuff, which, properly enough, was delivered at a political convention:

> "These new duties and new relations will add fresh dignity to American citizenship, will raise the sense of official and political obligation as they increase responsibility. *They will take the people out of the treadmill rounds of domestic politics, where issues are too often artificial and transient.* New thoughts, new questions, new fields, fresh hopes, broader views, wider influence—all these will come, as well as troubles and disappointments and temporary failures and discouragements, which will but serve to call forth renewed energy and effort until they are finally overcome."

Now this is meant, and is well calculated, to give ignorant and unthinking people the idea that, when we get the Philippines and Cuba, we shall not any more have to occupy ourselves with the questions which now beset us—with the tariff, with the currency, with the negro problem, with political corruption, with bossism, with blackmail by bosses, with the civil service, with transportation, with our system of education, with the effect of elections on our administration. Then who, O amusing Griggs, is going to take charge of these problems and solve them? You are clearly not going to do it, because your mighty mind will, by your own admission, be entirely occupied with the affairs of the Cubans and the Tagals. We presume the same thing will be true of all your fellow-statesmen, those profound thinkers who are occupied just now with the elevation of mankind at Washington. Who, then, after you have become occupied in "expanding," is to look after our domestic interests?

You possibly hold, in fact you intimate, that you and your colleagues are so broad-minded and so many-sided that, after settling these interests, you will have plenty of time to spare for the affairs of the Cubans and the Tagals. Well, now, if our affairs are so insignificant that you and the like of you can easily dispatch them in the tag ends of your time, why have you not dispatched them already? Take the condition of our finances, for instance. That is considered in all other countries, as well as by all intelligent persons in our own, one of great disorder. This condition has lasted now for thirty-five years. If you will look in your Burke, you will find a very fine passage, which you will not dispute, that the very first concern of every civilized nation is its finances; that we may safely judge of the progress which any nation has made in civilization by the condition of its treasury, and the amount of attention its people give to it. Two years ago you and your colleagues at least pretended to be fearfully wrought up about ours. You rent the air with supplications to men of all parties to elect your candidate to the Presidency, and you swore that, if we would only do so, you would put our finances on a sure and lasting foundation.

We believed you and elected your man. What have you done about the finances? Just as we expected to see your great minds buried in schemes of currency, and banking, and taxation, we found you were charging and sabring and bombarding in Cuba. When you last presented yourselves to the people for a renewal of your commission to govern us, did you ask us, or did we give you, the smallest permission to substitute the elevation of mankind in distant parts of the earth for attention to our monetary affairs? You know very well the subject was never mentioned between us at all. We knew nothing about your *vastes pensées* or your *longs espoirs*. We did not dream of your thinking your mission so great. We did not know you as a conqueror. We thought you a plain Jersey lawyer, who was not even equal to the task of taking charge of the American treasury. Who told you that our domestic affairs were so insignificant? Who authorized you to describe the business of the American people as "artificial and transient," and a "treadmill round"? If you thought so, why did you take office? Why did so mighty a mind descend to the humble duties of Attorney-General? Why did you not consider in time the vast expanses of the earth's surface which still sit in darkness awaiting your attention and Alger's and Davis's and McKinley's and Morgan's and Platt's and Murphy's? If our affairs are so petty as you say, who made them so? Is not their apparent pettiness and insignificance wholly due to our unhappy practice of selecting men like you for their management—men who never give one hour's thought to a *question*, men who are occupied solely with the distribution of State and federal offices, men who would consider time spent on any real problem of government time wasted, men whose sole idea of "politics" is the getting or losing of offices by people who have no fitness or experience for them?

And we now ask you the most important question of all, Do you not know perfectly well that offices are the very subjects which will occupy you if we let you have your foreign possessions; that you will never bestow a single thought on the happiness of the people or their interests; that as soon as you have gulled us, you will turn eagerly to see "what there is in this" for you, how many offices you have got to divide, and how you can best make them "go round" and help the party? Moreover, you will practise your little games all the more successfully because you will be so far away that we cannot watch and expose you. And, O Son of Thunder, why should the affairs of the Tagals be more worthy of your mighty mind than those of your own countrymen, except in being more trivial, more barbarous, more technical? Why should they afford higher employment to a great man than those of a people of 70,000,000 "heirs of all the ages, foremost in the files of time"?

MEN FOR THE EXIGENCY.

The advocates of expansion and empire have a very convenient way of disposing of the principal argument against them. That principal argument is that we have neither the machinery of government nor the kind of public servants for any such work, and that neither our political habit nor our political system is likely to produce them. The Executive, under our Constitution, has a constant and powerful temptation pressing on him not to allow any of his subordinates to distinguish himself or become prominent, for the simple reason that all such persons make at once competitors for the Presidential office. This contingency is constantly present to his mind about every prominent man belonging to his own party, and not already in some way pledged to his support. The strongest political habit we have is to acknowledge all distinguished political service, no matter of what nature, by election to the Presidency; and especially any political service that has been unpleasant to foreigners, or, as we say, has "made them stand round." We can never tell the moment when a

new candidate may start up, when, therefore, the chief executive officer may find one of his most valuable subordinates arrayed in secret or open opposition to him and busily engaged in discrediting him.

We have in what is going on in Washington to-day a very striking illustration of all this. One can easily fancy how little real honest attention the various great men there are giving to the public interests, compared to the task of "downing" Miles or "downing" Alger or exposing Hanna. There is hardly a man in the public service to-day whose position is, for any reason, the least conspicuous, who does not think that "the lightning," as the phrase is, may strike him at the Presidential convention, whether his merit consists in having won a naval battle or several prizes at a golf match. Without meaning to cast any discredit on any one, we may say that there are about a dozen men in the field to-day as rivals of Mr. McKinley for the office of President, without the smallest sense of its being in any way undesirable or unbecoming. Fancy the effect of this, if half these candidates were in the public service at foreign posts and busily engaged in proving that McKinley was a silly old fellow, who did not deserve a second term, through a score of agents and a hundred newspapers in the United States.

Nor is this all. We are distinguished from England, for imperial purposes, by the fact that our chief executive officer, who will have to administer our empire, instead of having a long and secure tenure before him for the trial of policies and for profiting by experience, is obliged, once in every four years, to seek a new lease of power from an immense and ill-informed constituency, which knows nothing about foreign nations or foreign affairs, which is just as likely to elect Bryan as Mr. Gage. Now it is making an absurd demand on human nature to ask him not to use every means in his power to secure success. Whether you ask him or not, he will use them. He will use the patronage as he does now, at home and abroad. He will oblige the bosses and the Senators in every conceivable way in all parts of the world in which we have dominion to exercise or salaries to pay. He will veil his intentions when open declarations are desirable; he will postpone action when prompt action is necessary; he will retain officials in office "under fire" when public morality and national safety demand their prompt expulsion; in short, he will do whatever he thinks necessary to be renominated, no matter what becomes of the "empire."

As we have said, the advocates of empire have an easy way of disposing of all this argumentation. It is known in treatises on formal logic as the *argumentum a spe ineptâ*, which was first brought prominently into notice by its vigorous and successful use by Wilkins Micawber, one of Dickens's best-known characters. The argument as formulated by Micawber was that whatever is disagreeable to you, however likely it may seem according to all human experience, will not happen. For instance, having no means or very little, you give a promissory note for a thousand dollars, with the intention of spending the money in entertainments, without the slightest knowledge how you are going to repay it. Your creditor comes to inquire. Probably from what he has heard about you, he thinks he will put you in "a corner." By the aid of this argument you meet him boldly. He asks you how you are going to pay the bill? You tell him firmly that "something is sure to turn up." Money is sure to come in from some quarter. It has often done so with other men, why should it not do so with you? You ask him if he is satisfied. He says he is not. You then tell him he is always grumbling, and ask what is the matter with him now. He then apologizes for disturbing you and goes away.

Our immense material success, our remoteness from enemies and rivals, and the strong political sense of the people, have made our follies of so little consequence to the popular welfare that this argument has worked itself into the web and warp of our political reasoning. It has now become quite common in political discussion. We have found it succeed so well in dealing with our domestic affairs that we have at last made up our mind to see how it will work in the world outside. Well, is it not time to stop and think a little? This mode of reasoning has long been one of the great jokes of private business. No other civilized nation has used it for a century or two. It has caused some laughter at our expense in the Cuban war, the first attempt we have made to use it in foreign affairs. Would it not be well now to stop and think a little? There is no hurry. How do we like McKinley or Alger as a Moses to lead us into the promised imperial land?

UNFAITHFUL COUNSELLORS.

The outburst of sentimentality which brought on the war and which started the "colonial policy," is receiving very unfortunate stimulation from a portion of the English press. A year ago there was not the least likelihood that anything the English press could or would say, would have the least influence on American opinion, except in a direction contrary to the writer's intention. There has been a great change recently. The English press has become a sympathetic friend, which tells the American public how to think, especially on questions of foreign policy. On these it is supposed to speak with *connaissance de cause*—that is, as an experienced observer to a youthful and anxious inquirer. Accordingly, a considerable number of English writers are stepping forward to tell us how excellent and becoming our colonial policy is, and how easy it will be to carry it out. We need only send ships enough and troops enough to such colonies as we may take a fancy to, and there we are—a great Anglo-Saxon nation ready to fight like Trojans, beside Mr. Chamberlain and Lord Salisbury, for the liberties of mankind.

The first thing to do before taking any one's advice is to inform yourself about the competency of the adviser. You have to be sure, before you listen to him, that he knows what he is talking about. It is not enough for him to like what you are going to do; you have to be sure that he knows enough about you to know what is good for you as well as to desire it. He must not only be a friend, but a friend acquainted with your character and circumstances. He must know something about your capacity and, let us add, your weaknesses. He must know the sins that most easily beset you, as well as the achievements of which you are capable. Now, as ill luck would have it, we cannot point to one English admirer of our colonial policy who has any of these qualifications. First and foremost among them is Mr. Chamberlain, who is now on a visit in this country, but is mainly famous in his own as the concocter of schemes which are never carried out, either because they are impracticable or because he himself does not honestly believe in them. When his own countrymen hardly ever take his advice, why on earth should we? Next after him come the *Daily News* and *Spectator*, which are giving forth daily and weekly a large amount of congratulation over our newly displayed propensity to conquer and govern other people and appropriate things which do not belong to us. We cannot honestly say that these journals are not good friends of America. They have often shown us hearty friendship; but this was on occasions when it was not necessary to know us thoroughly or understand our domestic conditions, in order to be able to sympathize with us. They differ in this from Mr. Chamberlain, who probably does not care a brass farthing what becomes of us as long as we help him and Lord Salisbury to get the better of the Continental Powers in the East. The articles of these two papers are being widely copied over here, and are giving much comfort and help to the expansionists.

Now, their advice about expansion has not the slightest value, for the reason we have already given, that nobody's advice about expansion is of any value unless he has a thorough comprehension of the state of things in our own home—that is, knows the evils which threaten us in our domestic politics and something of the weaknesses of our public.

One of those weaknesses has developed itself in an unusual degree only since last January, and is a weakness which disqualifies a people for governing or holding others in subjection, and that is, liability to violent gusts of passing emotion, during the prevalence of which all who try to reason with them are treated as public enemies. If history teaches any lesson, it is that peoples afflicted in this way are peculiarly unfit for empire. At all events they have never permanently achieved empire. Only two have ever done so in historic times—that is, the English and the Romans, both of them peoples of singular stolidity, and freedom from great ups and downs of feeling. It is this kind of nation which pursues "policies" and builds up empires. We, on the contrary, like the French and the Greeks, are quite capable of entertaining directly opposite opinions on the most important matters, or of dismissing them wholly from our minds, in one week. For instance, all our public men, or nearly all, taught us for thirty years that it was good policy to hate England. That it was bad policy was as plain ten years ago as it is now, but we changed it only about the 10th of last May, and then we changed it in a few days. Now you may, like the Greeks or the French, have many of the qualities which go to make up a great nation, but if you have not steadiness of purpose, and do not employ your best men in public business, all talk of empire is the talk of boys, or the talk of Athenians before the siege of Syracuse.

So, also, we may well ask, What do these foreign advisers know about our domestic politics? Do they know, or do they not know, the enormous proportion of our population which is as yet unassimilated, almost incapable of that close community of thought and purpose about life and death and judgment, about war and peace, about country and religion, which has animated all successful conquering nations? Do they know that it will probably take another century of all the good influences we can put in motion to weld this enormous mass into a moral whole, thinking and feeling alike about the great human interests, and with higher and nobler notions about nationality than that it is something to wave a flag about, or to kill somebody for? How many of these counsellors have read John Wanamaker's speeches last spring about the condition of politics and government in one of the largest States in the Union? How many of them know anything about the condition of politics and government in this State of New York? What do they think of the war which they approve of so highly resulting in its one land hero, after his return from the field, placing his sword and his glory, so to speak, at the service of one of the most notorious corruptionists in the State, whom almost any intelligent man, asked to point out the worst enemy of American government, would unhesitatingly choose as, at least, one of the greatest impediments to the realization of any dream of real American greatness?

THAT OLD "GAG."

The defeat of the silverites last week in the Connecticut Democratic convention foreshadows the already publicly announced programme of the Democrats in this State—the burial of the silver issue as soon as their convention meets. Such events will have the effect of awakening the public to the absurdity of the old cry that Platt, Quay & Company—in other words, the rascals who have got hold of the nominating machinery of the Republican party—must be kept in power in order to save the country from "free silver." Of course, in particular congressional districts all over the country, the Republican candidate may be a known "gold" man, as his opponent may be a known "silver" man; but that on this account it is necessary to vote the straight Republican ticket for State officers for the remainder of your life in communities like New England, New York, and Pennsylvania in order to stamp out Bryanism, is a little too much even for those who were led to give McKinley his plurality of 268,000 in New York in 1896. Whether it is true or not that "silver is a dead issue," you cannot get people to vote on it in an off-year, when it is actually eliminated from the contest by the party hitherto dominated by the silver interest. When in such States as Connecticut and New York the Democrats suppress it, what they mean is that a Democrat elected on their platform may do what he thinks best about silver, and in these States there is no real silver sentiment, so that the moment the machine tyranny ceases there is no more probability of their becoming silver States in Democratic than in Republican hands.

When we reflect on what has happened since 1896, we cannot help feeling that Platt, Quay & Company have enjoyed the benefit of this argument about gold and silver long enough. Under its influence they succeeded in inducing the bone and sinew of the country, the independent voters, the Gold Democrats, the clergy, the "old soldiers," and all to put into the Presidential chair a man who had for twenty years been a silver man, and who declined throughout the campaign to say that he had changed his views. To back him up, we worked tooth and nail to get everybody to keep quiet about Platt and Quay and Boss government, and declared that Bryanism was worse than corruption or blackmail or maladministration. At the end of two years what have we got by it? A little more silver let into the currency, an outrageous tariff, and a tremendously expensive war, which makes currency reform more difficult than ever, and good Mr. Gage as Secretary of the Treasury to help on the glorious work. And now, after two years of this sort, the bosses assure us that unless they milk the corporations and fill the offices for two years more, there is the gravest danger that Bryan may carry the country in 1900. This will not do any longer. It is recognized as a "gag."

To every one who values manliness and independence in politics the exposure of this humbug must be gratifying. In fact, it is difficult to imagine anything more debasing to a community than that it should get into the way of feeling that it was necessary to keep up a reign of knavery in order to avert a reign of folly. You cannot sustain corrupt rogues in power without making corruption the road to power, and we all know that unless we can make honesty and fitness the road, free government here cannot last. This is the reason why such an experiment as keeping the present Republican "leaders" in, in order to keep Bryan out, is fraught with such danger. It corrupts everybody who takes part in an election, and prepares him for more corruption. This is what Napoleon III. did in France for twenty years, and his régime ended in the ruin of the country at Sedan. For twenty years the arguments of the supporters of Napoleon were almost exactly those of the men who surround McKinley: you must support him; otherwise, there was no safety for property. With us the only refuge from corrupt rulers is putting them out of office, and we cannot put the Republicans out of office except by the aid of the Democrats. If we kept repeating the free-silver "gag" every twelvemonth, we should keep the Republicans in office for ever, without the slightest guarantee that the Republican régime would not end in free silver after all.

Nobody can afford to vote for notoriously unfit men, as a steady thing, to save his pocket. The man who does it becomes base and cowardly, just as the blackmailed wretch does who pays the bosses to do the dirty work of nominating and "keeping" them. And besides this, you will not save your pocket. The rascals will cheat you after all. The only conceivable way to punish the crimes of the Republican party is to vote for better men, and whether these call themselves Independents or Democrats matters very little. A puppet of Croker's is no better than a puppet of Platt's; but when we come to elect a Governor and Legislature, there is one thing that we cannot afford any longer to do—to vote against an honest, upright man for annexation of the Philippines and a further lease of power to Platt, in order to strengthen the hands of currency-reformers who laugh at us. Those who do this are very much like the old

"doughfaces" before the war, who voted for thirty years to "save the Union," and in order to do it kept in power the very people who were bringing on the destruction of the Union. They were all good men, but they would persist in doing evil that good might come. The security of property was their god also.

THE PREDICTED WHEAT FAMINE

Thirty-three years ago, in April, 1865, Prof. W. Stanley Jevons published a remarkable pamphlet entitled 'The Coal Question: An Enquiry Concerning the Progress of the [British] Nation and the Probable Exhaustion of Our Coal Mines.' After a thoroughly scientific examination into the ratio of increase in England's coal production and consumption, and into the capacity of the mines for future production, Prof. Jevons reached the positive conclusion that increasing consumption at the same rate, for rather more than a century, would raise "the average price of coal much higher than that now paid [1865] for the finest kinds of coal." Therefore, he warned the English manufacturing public, "we cannot long continue our present rate of progress."

The prediction created something like a popular sensation; it was quoted by Mr. Gladstone and others in parliamentary arguments on the national finances, and it gave rise to a vast deal of controversy and suggestion. But one-third of Prof. Jevons's century has now elapsed, and nothing has occurred to emphasize his warning. His pamphlet did, in fact, explicitly predict for the year 1891, three decades after the year on which he based his ascertained figures, a British coal consumption of 234,700,000 tons. But when 1891 had passed, the trade learned, as the Government's "Statistical Abstract" informs us, that only 185,479,000 tons had been produced in Great Britain during the twelve months, this being also the maximum of the century to date. Moreover, there were 31,000,000 tons exported in 1891 out of this total product; so that Prof. Jevons's estimate of consumption of that year turned out to be excessive by not less than 50 per cent. Nor has the price moved up in accordance with the prophecy; Mr. Sauerbeck's tables of commodity prices show the average domestic price of British coal in 1891 to have been less by 5 per cent. than it was in 1865. If a "coal famine" is approaching in England, none of the usual signs is yet visible.

We recall this incident, now almost forgotten, as a rather interesting sidelight on Sir William Crookes's recent prediction of a coming "world-famine" in wheat. Briefly summed up, Sir William's contention, in his address of three weeks ago before the British Association, is that the bread-eating population of the world is increasing in a geometrical ratio, while the world's annual wheat product is not increasing at a similar rate, and while, moreover, the world's capacity for growing wheat is approaching a limit. He estimates that in the early seventies the bread-eating contingent of the race increased at the average rate of 4,300,000 individuals per annum, whereas in the eighties the annual increase exceeded six millions, and is presumptively greater now.

The world's capacity for wheat production, with the present acreage, he reckons at 2,070,000,000 bushels. Thirty years hence, he argues, the growing population of bread-consumers will need 3,260,000,000 bushels annually, and for this he believes that the zones adapted to wheat-culture will be unable to provide the requisite acreage. In his opinion, another generation will have created a home population in the United States sufficient to consume all the possible wheat product of the country. Russia, on the basis of a normal average home consumption, will be in a similar position. The capacity of Canada and Australia he believes to be over-estimated; so with South America; while the Danubian states can even now do little more than provide for home requirements. A higher price for wheat might encourage more scientific cultivation, and increase the average yield per acre from 12.7 bushels to 20 bushels; but this precaution would only delay and not avert the crisis. Famine would probably confront the world, under existing conditions, as early as 1931.

There are several ways of approaching such a subject, and it may be best to notice, first, that Sir William Crookes's statement of facts and statistical probabilities has been promptly challenged by the commercial experts. Dornbusch's London organ of the grain trade contests the theory that Australian production has reached a maximum, and affirms that fifty million acres of suitable soil is to-day uncultivated in Queensland alone. Our own Department of Agriculture estimates a 10 per cent. increase this year in the acreage of the United States, with at least 150,000,000 bushels increase in the output. The English trade experts unanimously reject Sir William's view of the productive limitations of Canada and Rumania, and lay much stress on Russia's possibilities under scientific farming. Finally, the very obvious point is made that estimates of the world's population, and of its ratio of increase, are largely matters of guesswork, especially when the attempt is made to discriminate between bread-eaters and non-bread-eaters.

The truth is that there is no sure way of forecasting either the immediate or the remote future in this matter of food supplies, except by the tangible arguments of present annual production, existing reserves at the end of crop seasons, and the course of prices. The failure of the crops last year in half-a-dozen foreign countries had the natural result of starting such pessimistic prophecy as Sir William Crookes's, simply because available supplies in storehouse did decrease heavily, while the price of wheat was rapidly advanced. The so-called "world's visible supply" was, in fact, reckoned at the close of August sixteen million bushels less than at the same date in 1897, and fifty-six million less than in 1896. But a season so extraordinarily bad as last year's, while it may possibly show the use of larger average reserves and larger average productions, proves nothing as to a future permanent shortage. Against the present estimated "world's supply" of 45,500,000 bushels, the two abundant harvests of 1893 and 1894 left at the same date four years ago no less a visible supply than 205,000,000 bushels, which was wholly excessive. As this year has already shown, such an abnormal crop deficiency as that of 1897, with the consequent abnormal prices, brings into cultivation new wheat acreage throughout the world. If the grain trade, which is familiar at least with reasonable expectations for the nearer future, believed the present average rate of increase in production to be inadequate, their ideas have found curious reflection in the market for wheat deliverable to the buyer in future months. Such prices are 15 to 20 cents per bushel below what they were a year ago. As everybody knows, and as Sir William Crookes himself admits, a permanent advance in price would bring into cultivation, not only new grain area, but districts long abandoned (as in England and in our own East), because at ruling prices they cannot compete with the fertile lands opened up to culture in the past generation.

We believe, in short, that the world's food-supply will take care of itself much longer than the period which Sir William Crookes allows it. We are very sure that a year or two of "bumper" crops and easy prices will detract very greatly even from curious interest in his prophecy, as it has done in the case of Prof. Jevons's pamphlet. In fact, we are not sure that 1900 or 1902 may not witness another appeal to farmers to reduce their acreage and check the "overproduction." Of course, when the scientist turns his gaze down a continuous series of future centuries, he can demonstrate the probability that all the possible wheat-fields will be strained to their utmost capacity; just as we may assume, without any demonstration, that at some future day, more or less remote, England's coal-fields will be exhausted. But we feel ourselves bound to warn the scientists against fixing a date for the coming crisis. Mr. Malthus, wiser than Prof. Jevons or Sir William Crookes, confined himself to generalities, which are safe, because no matter how long the world has to wait to realize the predic-

tion, it may still be assured by the philosophers that trouble cannot be ultimately averted.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF HISTORY.

THE HAGUE, September 3, 1898.

"The sun of Orange" is the Dutch equivalent for "Queen's weather," and on the first day of Wilhelmina's exclusive reign the excessively plain Binnen Hof was gilded with sunlight. This added to the pleasure of the delegates from many lands who met in the First Chamber of the States-General at nine A. M., September 1, 1898, to inaugurate the International Congress of History, which is to reconvene at Paris in 1900. It is thoroughly characteristic of the Dutch to unite with popular celebrations of an august event some intellectual monument. After the fireworks and tableaux of the coronation—the national honeymoon—this Congress of History will, in all probability, remain as a permanent institution. Appropriately meeting in a country famous for its past gatherings of European diplomatists to settle terms of peace after war, and to reconstruct the boundaries of nations, the choice was a happy one also of the chamber for the sessions. Between the swan-dotted Viver Pond and the Binnen Hof, during three centuries, the representatives of a people who found both food and power on the sea have met to deliberate and act. In the union of the Orient and the Occident the Dutch were the first leaders. They are working now for the unity of history.

About one hundred delegates met in the Dutch Senate-hall, with its ceiling blossoming with gold and color and finest art, and its floor furniture of seats covered with plain green baize. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, De Beaufort, presided at the opening, and delivered an address of welcome, though the real founder of the congress, M. de Maulde de la Clavière, Secretary of the Society of Diplomatic History, occupied the chair during most of the morning. There were no fewer than six Japanese present, one of whom, Prof. Takahashi, who reads a paper giving a short history of the diplomatic side of the war of 1894-'95, was present as legal adviser to Admiral Ito during the battle, blockade, and cruising of the naval campaign. The Japanese Government, highly appreciating such international conferences, sent Mr. Yamada as delegate to report. On the contrary, the Chinese, though they are officially present in The Hague to witness the coronation in Amsterdam, "glared by their absence."

Of Americans perhaps a dozen are in attendance. The American Historical Association, the Holland Society, the Southern Historical Society early responded to the invitation. The Hon. Wm. Wirt Henry, Mr. J. G. Whiteley, Prof. Lucy M. Salmon, and Dr. Wm. Elliot Griffis, Gen. Egbert L. Viele and Judge C. H. Truax, Profs. Haskins and Henry Alexander White, and United States Consul Listoe are here. The presence of the American and other ladies, with a dash of color and specialty of costume, among the clerical teachers of history and diplomacy add agreeable variety to a company representing perhaps twenty nations, yet alike in the monotonous cut and hue of the modern man's garb.

In his opening address of warm welcome, the Queen's minister, De Beaufort, dwelt upon the local associations of what was once "the finest village in Europe," but which now, with 192,000 souls, is metropolitan, if not cosmopolitan, in tastes and interests. He paid handsome and sincere tributes of praise to Motley for picturing the past, and to "een Amerikaansch publicist Godkin" and his "zeer goed geschreven boek," in which the unforeseen tendencies and the possible future of democracy are discussed. He intimated that a true knowledge of history is the best regulator of democratic society. One familiar with contemporaneous Dutch politics and parties is tempted to "read between the lines." In the Netherlands the strong and constant tendency to democratic forms is not dangerous because the democratic spirit is so real, so deep, so old. The monarch rules, the people govern.

After this admirable address, the acceptances of the various governments (unofficial) and societies were read. The delegates were called upon to respond, the compliment being paid to the United States of being invited first. Mr. Gustavus Whiteley of Baltimore, having already placed upon the table the creditable array of our official publications of diplomatic literature—treaties, correspondence, and consular reports—spoke in French with wit and grace, bearing the personal felicitations of President McKinley. Mr. Simson of St. Petersburg for Russia, Prof. Erdmannsdörffer for Germany and Austria, and others for their various countries followed, showing what had been done under governmental and associational auspices for the preservation and publication of historical documents. The announcement of sections, into which the working congress is divided, with the names of the chairmen and time of sessions, followed. Besides the general and subordinate sessions, the functions include an excursion to Amsterdam, another to Rotterdam and Dordrecht, a reception at the house of the Minister of Foreign Affairs on Friday evening, and a banquet at the conclution of the congress in the Hôtel des Indes.

Naturally, your correspondent has taken greater interest in the fourth section, in which the Oriental themes are uppermost. Roughly speaking, the subjects discussed in section i. treat of the diplomatic history of Western Europe; those in section ii. of Eastern Europe and the Ottoman Empire; section iii. of diplomacy proper—concordats, protocols, monuments, etc.; section iv. of the Indies, China, and Japan. Two men, typical in their personal appearance of their respective countries, Germany and England, preside over the first section. They are Dr. Erdmannsdörffer of Heidelberg and Oscar Browning of Cambridge. In the sixteen papers read, summarized, or nominated by title and to be incorporated in the volume of proceedings, I can name but a few, translating most of their titles into English: The Opposition against Charles V. (Meinardus); Mirabeau and Mauvillon (Erdmannsdörffer); Greek, Norman and Crusader (Sternfeld); Social History of Germany (Von Below); several papers on the commercial relations of Holland; various tractates upon the phases of the long struggle between political Catholicism and state-church Protestantism. Evidences of recent research were shown in the papers of M. Casati, concerning the diplomacy of the French Directory, and of M. de la Tourrasse on the negotiations between the Duke of Anjou and William of Orange. Dr. Slothouwer of Rotterdam (brother of the eminent scholar, now deceased, who so greatly aided the late Douglas Campbell, in furnishing data for the 'Puritan in Holland, England, and America'), read an able paper on "An Effort to form a Fürstenbund in 1728."

In section ii. the theme of Aristarchi Bey was "Les Protégés en Turquie." Count Laforge de Vitanval, who has just finished his complete history of Marshal MacMahon, in three sumptuous volumes, treated of the Marshal's relation to the Franco-Russian alliance. The old Eastern Question (now so overshadowed by the question of the hour still further East, but much nearer our West) was handled in seven papers by Russians or delegates from the states in the Balkan peninsula. The heritage of Peter the Great, the first Russian students in the West, Czar Peter and Madagascar, and (almost as a matter of course and of compliment) the great Muscovite in the Netherlands, the question of the Ionian Islands from 1799 to 1815, and Prince Obrenovitch's ideas upon Balkan confederation, were among the themes discussed by earnest specialists.

The work of the third section in eight papers may be summarized under the head of descriptive diplomacy, and will be valuable to the student of the forms as well as the spirit and facts of history as influenced by courts and envoys. In this, abbés, clerical gentlemen, and learned men from Rome were in the majority. In section iv., presided over by Citizen Whiteley of Baltimore, and served in the secretarial chair by Prince Galitzin of Moscow, all the papers, except one (by Prof. Syveton of Rheims, on "India in the Eighteenth Century and the Chevalier de la Merveille") were on Japan. Prof. Henri Cordier, the veteran Chinese scholar, presented three inedited documents of interest, showing early Dutch enterprise in the Far East. Consul-General Halot enlarged on the beginning of the Chino-Japanese war of 1894-'95; Prof. Takahashi showed the applications of international law during the same period, and Mr. Terao made a survey of Japan's relations with Europe from ancient times to the middle of the nineteenth century.

In short, except a pardonable frequency of complimentary reference to Dutch matters, the congress was worthy of its name. The spirit throughout has been admirable, and happy results may reasonably be expected from this concourse of scholars, historians, and men familiar with the written sources of history. Most admirable was the paper read by Mr. Frederick Harrison of London, the famous disciple of August Comte, and author of admirable monographs on Cromwell and William of Orange. He showed how grandly the work is proceeding in Great Britain for the presentation, in a form accessible to scholars, of the relations of England with Continental nations during a thousand years. Another project, for the formation of an international library of history and diplomacy, can only be alluded to here. Suffice it to say that all signs discernible point to the perpetuation of the congress thus auspiciously begun, and to results which must benefit civilization and the race at large.

W. E. G.

THE UNIVERSITY OF FRIBOURG IN SWITZERLAND.

FRIBOURG, September, 1898.

The tourist in Switzerland can hardly have

failed to observe how very conspicuous a place has been given this summer in the book-shop windows to certain pamphlets about the new university at Fribourg. If he has read the newspapers, he will also have come across occasional obscure intimations as to what the German universities are going to do to mark their sense of Fribourg enormities. The matter is worth looking into.

In 1889 the Great Council of the Canton of Fribourg voted to establish a university. To this resolution, doubtless, diverse motives contributed, foremost among them cantonal pride. But religious zeal also played a large part. All the other universities of Switzerland—Basel, Bern, Zürich, Geneva, Lausanne—are in Protestant cantons; and we cannot be surprised that the people of Fribourg, one of the chief strongholds in Switzerland of Roman Catholic faith, should be unwilling to subject their sons to what they naturally regard as dangerous influences. The faculties of theology, besides, at all these universities are either Protestant or Old Catholic; and Roman Catholic Switzerland has for some time been obliged to content itself, for the education of its theologians, with ill-equipped Episcopal seminaries. Fribourg saw its chance to become the intellectual centre of Roman Catholic Switzerland. For a little state, with a population of but 120,000, to undertake to have a university of its own was, indeed, a bold thing—perhaps an unwise thing; nevertheless, the Government set to work. An initial capital of two and a half-million francs was provided by the conversion of the existing public debt; the cantonal law-school was enlarged, and made into a faculty of jurisprudence; some nineteen scholars were invited from other parts of Switzerland, from France, and, above all, from Germany, to form a faculty of philosophy; and in November, 1889, the University was opened. Next year the cantonal Government made an arrangement with the General of the Dominican Order, in accordance with which some eight or nine members of that order were sent to Fribourg to form a theological faculty, and were received as colleagues by the professors of the other faculties. Finally, in 1896, a faculty of natural science, composed, like that of philosophy, of scholars drawn from Germany and other countries, was called into existence; supported partly from the profits of the state bank, partly from those of the state electric works. Thus in seven years a teaching force of some sixty persons has been brought together, while the concourse of students was steadily increasing. From 30 in 1889-'90, the number had grown in 1897 to 301—127 from Switzerland, 112 from the German Empire, 24 from Bulgaria, 10 from Russia, and 28 from other countries. The canton is bilingual—almost equally divided between a French-speaking and a German-speaking population — and not only have some of the lectures in the University been given in French and some in German, but the Dominican fathers have given their instruction in Latin. The cantonal Government might fairly congratulate itself on its success; it has created, it would seem, an institution well suited to the peculiar conditions of the canton, and it has given it a certain cosmopolitan character which attracts students from far beyond the cantonal boundaries.

Unfortunately, however, the internal history of the University has been by no means so encouraging. The relations of the members of the professorial body to one another and still more to the Director of Public Instruction, representing the Fribourg Government, have been marked almost from the first by a long series of misunderstandings and contentions, growing more and more acute until they have culminated in the present crisis. In December of last year eight of the professors, all of them "Reichsdeutschen," *i. e.*, subjects of the German Emperor, resigned in a body; the educational journals of their fatherland have for the last few months been filled with their grievances; and the *Denkschrift* (Munich: Academischer Verlag), in which they have set forth their version of the circumstances, has reached its second edition.

When we come to read the *Denkschrift* we find, if we may trust its narrative of events, that the University of Fribourg has been a sort of cockpit in which has been fought out anew almost every one of the battles that have engaged the attention of the academic world from the early days of the University of Paris to the most recent State foundation in the American West. The interest of the pamphlet is not diminished by its authors' ignorance of this—so to speak—microcosmic significance of their experience. The Director of Public Instruction, with the best intentions in the world, authorizing promises to win professors which he is afterwards unable to perform, and so little acquainted with the best university traditions that he is continually rubbing the teaching body the wrong way by apparent or real interference with academic autonomy—how familiar a modern figure he is. The suspicion, whether well or ill-founded, which the lay professors of Fribourg, all good Roman Catholics, be it observed, felt towards their Dominican colleagues—how it reminds us of many a long struggle in the mediæval universities against the pretensions of the religious orders. Just below the surface we seem to discern the everlasting difficulty how to harmonize the claims of ecclesiastical authority with those of scientific independence. And, finally, the racial antagonisms within the professorial body which even the neutral atmosphere of Switzerland could not dissipate, sound like faint echoes from the halls of the University of Prague, whether in Huss's time or our own.

The reader is so likely to have his mind made up on the several issues apparently involved that he is pretty sure to be carried away by the *Denkschrift*, and to take its authors at their own valuation, as deserving champions of the cause of science and academic independence. But it is fair to add that the *Antwort* (Fribourg: Universitätsbuchhandlung, Veith) prepared by the Government, puts a good many of the circumstances in a somewhat different light. "Six of one and half a dozen of the other" is a dull verdict, perhaps; and unless one could call for further evidence and cross-examine the witnesses, one would hardly be justified even in saying so much as that. But we cannot but suspect that the band of young German scholars, most of them with little previous experience, who had been brought into the sleepy little Swiss town, scarcely suffered from an insufficient sense of their own importance. We may even conjecture that, in their dealings alike with the Dominicans and with their French colleagues, their conduct was not unfailingly characterized by modesty or consideration for others.

It would be wearisome to enter into the details of the controversy. A couple of incidents may be worth citing as examples of *gravamina*. The story of each is, at any rate, full of human nature; and the adequacy of the governmental explanation may be left as a problem for the reader.

The first is of a certain student who prepared for his doctoral thesis a history of education in the Canton. He took occasion, it appears, to narrate *inter alia* the scandalous ecclesiastical conditions which once prevailed in the Canton. The Dominicans got wind of this, and, according to their critics, sought to have the dissertation modified, just out of a stupid desire to cover up clerical ill-doing, no matter in what period, at any cost to scientific freedom. To this the Government replies that the publication of these scandals was likely seriously to annoy certain wealthy ecclesiastical corporations and certain wealthy families, still existing in Fribourg; that these had it in their power greatly to help or injure the young University; and that the dissertation might have been just as valuable a contribution to scientific history if it had shown a little more "tact."

The second incident illustrates the national antagonisms which, according to the same critics, the Director actually fomented. An association of German students in Fribourg held a *Commers* on the Emperor of Germany's birthday. One of the German professors proposed the toast of the Emperor, and this was so ill received by a French lecturer present that he actually threw his glass under the table! The Director replies that the speech of the German professor proposing the toast dwelt so complacently on the superiority of the Germans to all the world as to be inevitably offensive to the non-Germans present. The French lecturer in question was polite enough to rise at the toast, but he was so excited that when he sat down he *accidentally* spilled his glass over the tablecloth and over the trousers of his neighbor! "The great conspiracy of the French thus reduces itself to a tactless speech, a nervous listener, and a bespattered pair of trousers." All this is solemnly set forth, together with the elaborate letter of apology and self-exculpation which the nervous Frenchman sent to his dean on the occasion. A pair of trousers has never, perhaps, symbolized so much international antipathy—unless when Mr. Balfour confiscated the garments of Mr. William O'Brien.

The places of the outgoing professors have been filled, and the work of the University will proceed. It is to be hoped that the cantonal authorities have received a lesson to go rather more slowly in the future; to take more care what promises their representatives make to the new comers; and to make up their minds just what sort of place they want their university to be. There are several ideals of a university, all good from a particular point of view, but not all compatible with one another. Let us add that when the authorities of the German universities have had time to digest the Director's *Antwort*, they will probably not be in quite so great a hurry to boycott little Fribourg as the outgoing professors may have expected. W. J. A.

ARARAT.

TIFLIS, August 22, 1898.

A round trip from here to the southward,

even if the traveller confines himself to Russian territory, is well worth making for more reasons than one. To be sure, there are certain things to be put up with. The scenery is, in the main, uninteresting, in spite of some fine districts, as the mountains are bare and few of them have perpetual snow; nor is this disadvantage made up for by particularly striking outlines. Even in the valleys or plains, where there are not wheatfields the vegetation is often sparse or nonexistent; the heat is at times great, and the comfort is usually, to put it mildly, primitive. These drawbacks will be diminished when the new railway from Tiflis to Kars is in working order, as it ought to be within a year, and the proposed branch has been made from Alexandropol to Erivan. When these are completed, one will no longer have to spend so many hot, weary hours in springless *perekladnayas* or at stations waiting for fresh horses. It will then be easier to see what is really worth seeing without much unnecessary trouble and expense.

Of the "sights" of this region, some are interesting historically, others for their natural attractions. The fortress of Kars is both, looming up, as it does, from the plain, when one approaches it from the north, the great key to the region, hardly less impressive than Gibraltar itself. Gazing on it, one wonders how the Russians, now at last the permanent masters, could have captured it three times in this century, with or without the aid of corruption among the defenders. Any one who cares about the early history and former glories, as well as the present fortunes, of the Armenian people would do well to make an expedition to the ruins of Ani, for centuries the capital of the state that first formally adopted Christianity—ruins which are in a better state of preservation than one is prepared for, though they are fast going to pieces, thanks to vandalism and neglect. Then there is Etchmiadsin, a celebrated monastery a thousand years old, still the residence of the *Catholicos*, or highest dignitary of the Armenian Church. The library has many manuscripts of great value, and the school or academy is an important centre of national reawakening. Of less consequence, but also deserving a visit, is the equally ancient monastery of Sevanga, on a little island a mile from the shore in the lake of Goktcha. For a Mohammedan centre one can turn, a few miles from Etchmiadsin, to Erivan, which is still in many ways a Persian city, showing numerous traces of its former rulers. The real glory, however, of this whole part of the country is Mount Ararat.

In history and in legend, since the flood, Ararat has been one of the most famous mountains in the world, of which the ancients believed it to be the centre. Its reputation for inaccessibility rather surprises one, for it does not—at least seen from the northern side—look as sharp as the Matterhorn, or, though it is in reality, as lofty as Mont Blanc, perhaps because of the much greater height of the snow-line in summer. The finest view I obtained of it was from the road above Erivan. Immediately at one's feet lies the city, with all its Oriental picturesqueness of mud houses peeping out of masses of rich gardens; beyond it stretches some thirty miles of plain, broken up by patches of trees, and from this foreground the huge mountain towers up in the air, a great, dark cone tipped with the whitest snow. On one side it is connected with a low, bleak range; on the other, or rather part of Ararat itself, is Little Ararat, dwarfed by its brother, and free from snow in midsummer, yet a sharp, stately cone, rising to nearly thirteen thousand feet above the sea-level. In the saddle between the two, at a camp called Sadar Bulakh, about three hundred soldiers are stationed during the summer to escape the heat of the land below and to keep in some sort of order the bands of wandering Kurds.

Ararat has been climbed a good many times in this century, notably by Mr. Bryce, who has given an excellent account of his trip; later by several foreigners (among others by two American bicyclists, Messrs. Allen and Sachtleben), and by a number of Russians. And yet, with officers and soldiers on its slopes for months every year, the only person I could find who had made the ascent was an Armenian guide, who declared he had been up fifteen times, but had been able to reach the top only three. At a distance, people spoke of such an enterprise as very foolhardy and dangerous; nearer to, they took a more sensible view, though some were dubious, and all pointed out how much depended on luck, for even in the finest weather in August (the best month for an attempt) the summit is almost always clouded over just before noon till near evening, and the morning itself is uncertain enough. However, Russian hospitality to the roving stranger, especially if provided with a letter with a good official signature, produced in my case the greatest readiness to give assistance. The colonel in command of the post offered a guard, and called for volunteers, with the result that when I started out on the morning of August 17, besides the Armenian guide and four Kurds, to carry wood, blankets, provisions, etc., I found myself wth an escort of five Cossacks (on foot), soon reinforced by nine infantrymen. At any rate, it saved one from the bother of carrying a revolver.

We proceeded slowly enough, with very frequent rests, the delay coming from the guide, who early became exhausted and complained of age and illness. At about half-past four we reached a spot where there was a general desire to camp. The Kurds naturally wanted to stop as soon as possible, the soldiers thought it would be cold higher up, and the guide was tired out. On the other hand, it seemed absurd to halt when there was still so much daylight, and when it was desirable to get well ahead for the morrow. As a means of cutting short discussion, I started on, followed with more or less willingness by the rest of the troop; and though we did not go much further, even a little was a decided gain. The place where we did camp was respectably smooth, and the night, owing to the fortunate absence of wind, was not as cold as we had supposed it would be. The party, therefore, slept well; only the guide tossed and tumbled about, groaning with fever, and keeping me, his next neighbor, uncomfortably awake. Luckily I had quinine with me, and, after filling him up with it, told him next day to remain behind with the Kurds and with one soldier, also fever-stricken.

We did not get away until 5 A. M., but then moved steadily and fast, keeping on the ledge of rocks that borders the snow, and stopping with increasing frequency only from fatigue and want of breath. To a veteran Alpine climber it might perhaps have been child's play; there was nothing perilous, nothing really difficult about it; it was only a persistent scramble upwards. To a tourist of sedentary habits it was, at least, exhausting, as the way was very steep, and the rarefied air made one lose one's breath easily, besides causing headache. Spiked shoes and a good alpenstock, instead of a birch stick with a sharpened end, would have been a considerable help. On we pushed, every man for himself, wasting our strength in amateur fashion, but making such continuous progress that, in just about four hours and a half, the first three of us, not many minutes apart, reached the summit, which consists of two cones one a few feet higher than the other, and by ten o'clock all fourteen were assembled on the top of the snow.

There are two ways in which one can take the view that spread below us, for we were fortunate in our weather, and had time enough to get a good look before a cloud closed in on us. One can survey the empires of Russia with its great present and future, Turkey and Persia with their great pasts; one can repeat that the thin stream beneath is the ancient Araxes, one can think of the exploits of famous conquerors, the cradles of former civilizations, and of Noah's ark—the scene is one that appeals strongly to the imagination. From what we might call the photographer's standpoint, it is less satisfactory. On every side lie unlovely plains, relieved only occasionally by a little water or a patch of green; beyond them are high, dull mountains, all with the same barren, scorched look save for a few distant snow-peaks. Perhaps at a season or on a day when there is no heat mist dimming the landscape, the prospect may be more attractive. Somehow, with all its historical associations, it did not tempt me to linger very long in the glare, but made me willing to join the soldiers in partaking of refreshments, or investigating the box with the names of previous visitors. And yet, though the view left only a blurred outline in the memory, that outline is something I shall never forget or cease being pleased to own.

The return was easy enough. Three thousand or so feet can be covered in a twinkling by coasting down a great snowfield, and, even if one is more cautious, he can descend rapidly through loose stones, though there is a very uncomfortable chance (as it takes nothing to set a lot in motion) of sending them flying at any time on to the men under you. Before sunset the last of the party was again at Sadar Bulakh. Here there had been quite a little excitement, for much of our progress, including the reaching of the summit, had been followed through field-glasses, and shots fired from the top had been distinctly heard; thus we had eye and ear witnesses of our success. Many were the toasts drunk that night.

On the whole, it seems to me that the most notable result of our climb is that it must provoke others. No one, even in the vicinity, can now maintain that the mountain is inaccessible or nearly so. Of course, like other such places, it is dangerous to get lost on in a storm (a man died in that way last summer), and accidents can happen anywhere; but there are countless less celebrated ascents harder in every way. Some day, then, in the future, we may expect to see numerous alpenstocks marked, among other names, with "Mt. Ararat."

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

THE COUNTRY NOT FOR WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the statement that the Maine and Vermont elections show a change in public sentiment in regard to the Cuban war, there is, I think, a mistake. I do not believe that the mass of the people have at any time been in favor of any war or any policy of expansion. Still less would they have been in favor of it had not certain papers, for reasons best known to themselves, persistently given a false impression of the situation. The mobs of the cities, to-day as yesterday and a thousand years of yesterdays, are ready to shriek for any measure or any barbarity, however wicked and senseless, provided only the cry is started. But, however much Paris may be France, neither New York, Chicago, San Francisco, nor all the cities taken together are the United States. There is a vast country constituency, slow to move, slow to reach, and slow to give expression, but which must finally be reckoned with. No opportunity has offered itself to this opinion for its expression until the late elections. In none of the New England States is the country constituency stronger than in Maine and Vermont.

We, the country people, want no wars, no expansion, no imperialistic policy. We yet have a weakness for the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. We are still sufficiently conservative to have a reverence for George Washington. We do not like standing armies; we do not believe in vast navies, supported by money wrung from our heart's blood, from our long years of toil and penury. We love peace and the gentler graces and milder manners that flourish in a free republic. We have no wish to see our women laboring in the fields while the young men are idle in garrisons or holystoning the decks of cruisers. The ancestors of some of us even have fled from the imperialist policy that would have sent them to duty in far-away and unhealthy lands amid a hostile people. *We* want none of it.

Then, too, if it is for unscrupulous politicians to seize and govern enslaved people abroad, may it not come to pass that the same policy will be pursued at home? As we have heard and read of the fate of ancient republics, it seems to us that so it befell. And this is the lesson we country constituency are silently and a little sullenly trying to impress upon alarmed M. C.'s, who thought only to reckon with the cities, that shouting and excitement will mislead and befool. W.

Pittsfield, Mass., September 26, 1898.

HARVARD'S PATRIOTISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your current number, commenting on the Commencement exercises at Cambridge last June, you take occasion to say: "In the melancholy 'patriotic' stampede which involved all the colleges to a greater or less extent, we certainly think Harvard's part was creditably reluctant and limited."

This opinion is doubtless of interest to many of your readers, as it is to me, and I ask that, if you have any evidence of its truth, you let it be known to us. If, on the other hand, you express merely a general notion, which may perhaps be rooted in personal convictions, will you not give space to a denial from one who, having been a member of the University community during the entire period of the war, feels that his opportunity of studying the attitude of Harvard undergraduates was as good as another's; who has made an especial effort to ascertain the part played in the war by Harvard graduates and undergraduates; and who is, in consequence, very strongly of the opinion that your praise of Harvard's reluctant and limited patriotism is as undeserved as it is unacceptable?

Very respectfully,

William Garrott Brown.

Cambridge, September 25, 1898.

[Our remarks had reference not to the undergraduates alone. If we chose to make invidious comparisons with other colleges in favor of Harvard, we could readily do so.—Ed. Nation.]

THE CURRENCY MOVEMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While heartily commending the article entitled "The Currency Movement" in your issue of September 15, I beg leave to point out one factor, and that perhaps the most important, in producing what you designate as the "relative scarcity" of currency as compared with gold at the present time. Spurred by loss of custom, due to the growing practice on the part of the banks of shipping currency by registered mail and covering the risk by insurance, the express companies, in April of this year, made large reductions in their charges for carrying currency, but left the rate for transporting gold unchanged. Between New York and Chicago the currency rate was reduced one-half, or, to be more precise, from $1 to 50 cents per $1,000. As a consequence, the country banks strenuously object to having gold sent to them, and, in order that they may be ready to respond to their calls as far as possible, the city banks are using every effort to husband their stock of currency of small denominations, always inadequate during a few weeks at this season of the year. On such small considerations do large movements, affecting, it may be, the welfare of the nation's finances, depend.

Yours respectfully,

Frederick W. Gookin.

Chicago, September 19, 1898.

RHYMES TO EYE AND EAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is somewhat surprising that scholars such as Prof. Brander Matthews and Mr. Andrew Lang should have failed to make any discrimination between two classes among the imperfect rhymes which have recently incurred their censure. When a rhymster matches *heaven* with *given*, or *sacrifice* with *lies*, he is usually quite aware of his poetical licentiousness, and either defends himself by pleading the hardship of finding a better rhyme, or else maintains that the imperfection secures a precious air of unpremeditated art. But such phenomena as the rhyming of *dawn* and *morn* (which both of these writers condemn) must be placed in another category. They are unconscious transgressions, if indeed we may call them transgressions at all. The culprit here would probably not acknowledge that he had used the rhyme *faute de mieux;* he has been betrayed by his accustomed pronunciation of the words; and in his speech *dawn* and *morn* are, as our friend "F. H." might say, unassailable homœoteleuta. In other words, the offender does not, with Prof. Matthews and Mr. Lang, say *morrn*, but *mawn*. If he were given to contention, he might argue that for so pronouncing he has the best of authority; that it is his critics who are upholding their provincialism against his use of genuine London English. For there is good evidence to show that, in the dialect of the upper classes in Old and New England, *r* is rapidly becoming, in most situations, an obsolete sound. Prof. Sweet states in his 'Primer of Phonetics,' section 221:

"This consonant [*r*] . . . never occurs except before a vowel, being elsewhere weakened into a voice-glide. . . . In Scotch, *r* is a strong trill everywhere. . . . In American-English, *r* before a pause or a consonant appears as a point-modification of the preceding vowel, . . . being completely lost in other American pronunciations."

It would seem, then, that Prof. Matthews has been misled by his "point-modification," and that the truth is hidden from Mr. Lang by his persistent habit of a "strong trill everywhere." The truly British poet may cling to his "voice-glide" and drop his *r*'s at will. How far he chooses to avail himself of this privilege, may be seen by the following specimens gleaned from one volume of Mr. Kipling's poems:

"Railways and roads they *wrought*,
For the needs of the soil within;
A time to scribble in *court*,
A time to bear and to grin."
—*A Masque of Plenty.*

"Dysentry touched him in June, after his *Chota Bursat*—
Lowered his portly person, made him long to *depart*."
—*Pagett, M. P.*

"It was under *Khyraghauty* I mused:—
Suppose the maid be *haughty*—
There are lovers rich and *forty*," etc.
—*As the Bell Clinks.*

"Now even after dinner when the coffee-cups are *brought*,
Ahasuerus walleth o'er the grand *piano-forte*."
—*Army Headquarters.*

"Long he pondered o'er the question in his scantily furnished *quarters*,
Then proposed to Minnie Boffkin, eldest of Judge Boffkin's *daughters*."
—*The Post that Fitted.*

"Bought a shiny bowie-knife, bought a town-made *sword*,
Jingled like a carriage horse when he went *abroad*."
—*What Happened.*

"And One, long since a pillar of the *Court*,
As mud between the beams thereof is *wrought*;
And One who wrote on phosphate for the crops
Is subject-matter of his own *Report*."
—*The Last Department.*

"I quarrel with my wife at home,
We never fight *abroad*;
But Mrs. B. has grasped the fact
I am her only *lord*."
—*Divided Destinies.*

This same pronunciation ("lawd") must be assumed in the final stanza of "The Last Chantey," a poem printed in the 'Seven Seas.'—Very truly yours, G. M. Whicher.

Brooklyn, September 20, 1898.

Notes.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will publish directly 'A History of English Critical Terms,' by J. W. Bray. These counters in literary criticism are arranged and discussed alphabetically.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, will publish immediately 'The Santiago Campaign,'

by Major-Gen. Joseph Wheeler; also, during the season, 'Washington the Soldier,' by Gen. Henry B. Carrington; 'Songs of Good Fighting,' by Eugene R. White; 'The Land of Contrasts: A Briton's View of his American Kin,' by James F. Muirhead; and a 'Treasury of Canadian Verse,' by Theodore Harding Rand.

Further announcements by Charles Scribner's Sons are 'The War of 1898,' by Richard Harding Davis; 'Commercial Cuba,' by William J. Clark; 'The Column and the Arch,' by W. P. P. Longfellow; and 'Music and Poetry,' first of a series of uncollected prose writings by the late Sidney Lanier.

'A Source Book of American History,' by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard, and Clara Tschudi's 'Life of Marie Antoinette,' translated from the Norwegian by E. M. Cope, are in the press of Macmillan Co.

M. F. Mansfield & Co., New York, will reprint from the English edition Kipling's 'Departmental Ditties,' with a new edition of the 'Barrack-Room Ballads,' in two volumes, with twelve color drawings by Blanche McManus; also, 'Youth at the Prow,' a novel by E. Rentoul Esler.

'Along the Bosphorus,' by Mrs. Susan E. Wallace, wife of Gen. Lew Wallace, and 'A Cruise under the Crescent,' by Charles Warren Stoddard, are announced by Rand, McNally & Co.

Henry Frowde is about to bring out 'The More Excellent Way,' by the Hon. Mrs. Lyttelton Gell.

T. Fisher Unwin's fall list includes 'Lithography and Lithographers,' by Joseph and Elizabeth R. Pennell; 'A Literary History of Ireland,' by Dr. Douglas Hyde; 'Unpublished Letters of Dean Swift,' edited by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill; 'Shakspere in France,' by J. J. Jusserand; 'The Life and Letters of Lewis Carroll (the Rev. C. L. Dodgson),' by Mrs. S. D. Collingwood; 'Through New Guinea and the Cannibal Countries,' by Capt. H. Cayley Webster; and 'The City of the Caliphs: A Monograph on Cairo and its Environs and the Nile and its Monuments,' by E. A. Reynolds Ball.

Purcell's uncomfortable 'Life of Cardinal Manning' has been reissued by Macmillan Co. in two volumes less elegant but not less readable than the much more expensive first. The same plates have been used, and the binding is fit for any library.

Gen. Miles's 'Military Europe,' the series of papers which he wrote after his official visit of last year, has appeared in quarto, illustrated by fifty-six engravings, most of them reproductions of photographs (Doubleday & McClure Co.). The circumstances of the tour were such as to preclude the idea of free criticism of the armies inspected by the author, but even the casual observations of so experienced an officer will have many points of interest. The numerous portraits of eminent personages and distinguished officers are not the least of the attractions of the volume.

The Macmillan Co. bring out a handy and useful little manual entitled 'Questions and Answers in the Theory and Practice of Military Topography,' by Major J. H. Bowhill, late Adjutant of First Battalion Wiltshire Regiment (England). It is a considerable series of practical problems in topographical engineering, beginning with the use of scales, and passing to the construction of maps, plotting from field-books and notes, contouring, eye-sketching, reconnaissance of roads, rivers, etc. The answers to the problems are given in the second part of the volume, and large scale-illustrations of the methods are supplied in an accompanying portfolio of loose plates engraved and printed in colors.

'Wireless Telegraphy,' by Richard Kerr, F. G. S. (Charles Scribner's Sons), is a very popular little book indeed; there is not a dry word in it. Mr. W. H. Preece, an adept in the art, supplies a chernimmatic preface which was richly deserved. He goes as far as he well could—not to the point of justice. Whoever reads the book should read between the lines of this preface. Mr. Preece, by the way, is at as much pains to do justice to Americans as Mr. Kerr seems to be to avoid mention of them. One blunder is worth notice simply because it is a frequent popular misapprehension. Mr. Kerr (p. 18) says: "It was conjectured by . . . Clerk Maxwell and others that light . . . and electricity . . . only differed in degree. . . . Their velocity . . . was the same." What Clerk Maxwell repeatedly said, as in his posthumous book ('Elementary Electricity,' p. 98), was: "It is quite possible that the velocity of electricity in a telegraph wire may be less, say, than the hundredth of an inch in an hour." The ratio between the dynamical and statical methods of measuring electrical phenomena is a quantity of the dimensions of a velocity, and that velocity was shown by Maxwell and later physicists to be the velocity of light. Hence, we have reason to believe that the luminiferous ether is really electricity. Electricity is not a vibration, like light; it is a thing, attracting and repelling as other things, though very differently from other things. It is a fluid, though a peculiar fluid. To hesitate to call it so is simply to boggle over names. Whether or not electricity is a chemical substance, or whether it be something *sui generis*, is a question probably needing a good many years definitely to answer.

Prof. Frank Sargent Hoffman's 'Sphere of Science' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) might do for a summer afternoon in a hammock. The writer is in a Cartesian stage of culture, but we do not remember any genuine old Cartesian book so nebulous. We were finding fault the other day with an example wrongly given as a *petitio principii* by an estimable rhetorician and quoted by Mr. MacEwan. We can recommend the present volume to those writers as a mine of the sort of argumentation of which they were in search.

'Whist of the Future,' by Lieut.-Col. B. Lowsley (Macmillan), though small, merits consideration, but we must reserve it until we can collect a pile of books on this active branch of science. It contains, we need not say, a discussion of American leads, and it takes moderate short-hand ground. But about half the volume is occupied with the laws of whist, with a limited American leaning.

In the current Proceedings (for May, 1898) of the Massachusetts Historical Society, Mr. John T. Hassam has a series of biographical sketches of early Suffolk Recorders from Stephen Winthrop (1639-1644) to John Ballantine (1714-1735). In the case of each of the Recorders his autograph is facsimiled; and since the portraits of several are extant, it would have been agreeable to find these also accompanying the text. The sketches consist chiefly of citations from early sources, and it is surprising how much of the history and manners and customs of the period thus incidentally appears. We may instance the first authentic record of any provision for the poor of Boston, the origin of the school committee, the founding of the Old South Church, the arrival of the first ship in New Haven, etc. "The Grammar Free School" was the designation of the Boston Latin School, since "grammar" then had reference to classical instruction. Recorder Daniel Allin had the good sense to vote (November 25, 1693) against a bill restricting candidates for Representatives to residents of the respective towns for which they were chosen. This, he contended, was contrary to Charter custom of England and of the Province, and "might prove destructive to the Province."

Virginia has of late years much outstripped other Southern States in matters genealogical. The latest product in this line in book form is 'The Vestry Book and Register of Bristol Parish, Virginia, 1720-1789,' a very careful reprint of the book which was lost from sight for nearly fifty years. The transcribing and editing have been done in the most exemplary manner by Mr. Churchill Gibson Chamberlayne, who is his own publisher (Richmond, P. O. Drawer 927), and the printing is noticeably elegant and correct. The contents possess chiefly a genealogical interest, culminating in an alphabetic register of births, baptisms, and deaths, and an index to the whole work. The vestry's accounts occupy a large space, seldom lighted up by such entries as (May 2, 1772) "To 2 quarts of Rum To Bury Jane Long." From year to year persons are appointed to "procession" lands, bounds, and lines, along with "counters" of tobacco plants. Specifications for parish buildings are also frequent, as are exemptions "for ye futor" to the infirm from the parish levy, the binding of an orphan or of a bastard to such a one, "suppos'd to be ye Reputed father," and allowance for the keep of paupers, including "Ann hanks" (p. 218), who might appear a collateral ancestor of Lincoln; but the list of errata bids us read "hauks." Capt. Thomas Jefferson figures in the entries for 1723. A free school for pauper children in connection with the poorhouse is talked of in 1757.

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for 1897 is mostly a continuing document, but Prof. Salisbury's report of progress on the surface geology—an altogether novel investigation—may be read with entire interest by any one new to the subject; and the same may be said of Dr. Kümmel's candid and perspicuous report of progress on the Newark system of sandstone and trap formations. The former is accompanied by a small colored map; the latter by well-chosen photographic views. Prof. W. B. Clark of Johns Hopkins reports on the Upper Cretaceous formations; Mr. Lewis Woolman extends his long list of artesian wells, throwing light on water horizons and on the succession of strata; while Mr. Vermeule restates the advantages of draining the Hackensack and Newark tide marshes, and the dangers attending their present neglect and pollution. Finally, the clay and mineral industries of the State are catalogued afresh.

The *Geographical Journal* for September opens with a technical description of the Yangtse-kiang, derived chiefly from the notes of recent travellers. It leaves a heightened impression of the vastness of the

river system and its importance to Central China, as great as that of the Nile to Egypt. The probable length of the river is 3,000 miles, of which half is navigable; but if its natural tributaries, the connecting lakes and artificial canals, were included, the amount of navigable water would be immensely increased. In the southern delta alone the total length of the small canals used for irrigation and navigation is estimated at 36,000 miles. An illustrated account of the circumnavigation of Lake Bangweolo is by Mr. P. Weatherley, and is noteworthy for its idyllic pictures of the native villages on the islands. Of one he says: "An English homestead in the heart of Kent could not have presented a more peaceful, prosperous sight." Singularly enough, these enviable Africans seemed to have no horror of slavery. Not only did they not "object to being sold," but "some professed great willingness, and even volunteered, to be purchased by me." Other articles are an account by Capt. Wellby of his remarkable journey across Tibet to China, and the description of a visit to Karaginski, an almost unknown island off the coast of Kamtchatka. The people showed some of the characteristics of each of the three Mongolian races which inhabit the neighboring continent. Their houses are *yurts*, solidly built mud-huts, with wooden doors, and *balagans*, "a thatched pyramidal hut, raised to a height of ten or twelve feet from the ground, on posts, and entered by a rough ladder, formed of a tree-trunk placed loosely leaning against one side of the floor, and having big notches roughly hewn in it to form steps. . . . Below the flooring hung the dried salmon which form the winter supplies of the natives." In one place the men and women apparently lived apart in separate villages, as is the custom, it is alleged, of the Koriaks on the mainland.

At a time when the race animosities of Czechs and Germans are so strong, threatening the integrity of the Austrian Empire and possibly the peace of Europe, it is encouraging to note any indication of the union of the two races, especially on the solid ground of a common religious faith. For some years a well-known and learned Russian, Gen. Kiréeff, has advocated the formation of a Czecho-Slavonian church in alliance with the Old Catholics. In Bohemia this proposal has hitherto been received with little favor on account of the prejudice against the Catholic reform movement as being largely of German origin. The resolutions passed last year by the Old Catholic Congress at Vienna, however, in praise of the theological teaching of Cyril and Methodius, and in condemnation of the burning of John Huss and Jerome of Prague, has done much to remove this prejudice. This is shown by the fact that on July 6 last, the anniversary of the burning of Huss, a large number of Czechs (deputies from various unions) laid wreaths on his monument at Constance, and then, going to Zurich, held a service in St. Augustine's Old Catholic Church, with the warm approval of Bishop Herzog. There was a large congregation, mainly of Czech nationality, and the Czech language was used throughout the service. At a dinner later in the day a large company pledged themselves to the task of organizing Czech congregations upon the Old Catholic basis.

The Trans-Mississippi Exposition at Omaha echoes the Columbian not only in its buildings but in its congresses, and one of these, of librarians, will be in session from September 29 to October 1, inclusive. Mr. W. H. Brett of the Cleveland Public Library has had the laying out of the programme, which involves the discussion of library support and control by the State; "travelling libraries" and their relation to women's clubs; the public library's value to the community; special training for library work; and the relation of the library to other formal educational work. The President and the Secretary of the A. L. A. join with representatives of Western libraries in carrying out the programme.

—Dr. Elliott Coues's editing of Lewis and Clark's narrative of their expedition to the Pacific was a rare example of literary, historical, and scientific ardor most industriously applied. That this ardor is unabated appears in the current Proceedings of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. For his botanical identifications, Dr. Coues depended on insufficient expertness, and subsequently the explorers' herbarium was discovered, and has recently been identified by Messrs. Meehan, Robinson, and Greenman. For every specimen bearing a date on its label, Dr. Coues now supplies the precise locality where it was obtained, and his paper (which is nothing like so dry as the herbarium discussed) deserves to be preserved along with his monumental edition. It is also a commentary upon the contemporaneous botanist Frederick Pursh, whose indications of locality were often very vague. Dr. Coues casts around for some botanist, as enthusiastic as himself, who will review "Lewis and Clark's botanical *text* as distinguished from their *specimens*." Their botany, he remarks, "runs in two parallel courses. One of these is represented by the specimens which they *collected*, and which became so many of Pursh's types; the other, by the herbs, shrubs, and trees which they *observed*, and noted in their narrative, but did not collect"—and about which they therefore had naturally most to say. There may of these, he thinks, be from fifty to one hundred species of which no specimens are known to be extant. He had already pointed out the possible economic importance of some of these which were used as food by the Indians.

—Vols. xxiv. and xxv. of the Jesuit Relations (Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.) are a living witness to the sufferings and fortitude of Isaac Jogues. This man, who shares with Brébeuf the first honors among French missionaries in America, was born at Orleans, and when captured by the Iroquois had reached the age of thirty-five. Although a scholar by training, he was no novice in matters relating to Indian character, nor did he ignore the dangers in his path. He had served his order among the Hurons, and they differed from the Iroquois only in degree. Together with three other Frenchmen and forty Hurons, he was waylaid by the Iroquois while threading the islands of Lake St. Peter in August, 1642. Had he been willing to desert his French companions, he might have saved himself, but he threw away his chance, or rather yielded with a full knowledge of the probable consequences. His subsequent afflictions demand a pen like that which depicted the Tower of Hunger. Their only solace was the occasional baptism of some infant savage or of some victim who was set aside for torture. Finally, through Dutch aid, he escaped to France, and the last we see of him in the present narrative is a glimpse at Rennes. Mutilated and forespent, he yet longed that he might go back and complete his task. "In conclusion, he is as cheerful as if he had suffered nothing, and as zealous to return to the Hurons, amid all those dangers, as if perils were to him securities; he certainly expects to cross the ocean once again, in order to go to succor those poor peoples, and to finish the sacrifice already begun." The Sillery Hospital, the Huron and Lower St. Lawrence missions form the other leading topics of vol. xxv., which contains portions of three documents. Maisonneuve's infant colony at Montreal, which was prominent in vol. xxiv., is hardly mentioned here. Barthélemy Vimont, Le Jeune's successor as Superior, contributes the bulk of the chronicle; indeed, Charles Garnier, writing from the Hurons, is his sole assistant. Vimont reports that the Iroquois have so extended their range that they terrorize the whole district from far above Montreal to Lake St. Peter, where, near the mouth of the Richelieu, they had built a fort. French, Hurons, and Algonquins are equally their prey, and, "as in Arabia," safety in travel is not to be had outside the caravan. One is always interested in seeing how the native mind worked. The most amusing among new obstacles which retard conversion is Huron and Algonquin scepticism when they observe the prosperity of the wicked. The Iroquois still worship demons and prevail. Of what use is Christianity unless it can bring success?

—"Greek," said the late Dr. Freeman, in his positive manner, "is the very crown and summit of the education of a gentleman and a scholar." Dr. Johnson puts the same opinion in his own fashion: "Greek, sir, is like lace: every man gets as much of it as he can." ("Quand on prend du galon, on n'en saurait trop prendre.") The Doctor had a feminine weakness for lace, and a masculine passion for Greek. This side of his multifarious learning has lately been illustrated by Mr. Gennadius, late Greek Minister to England, in a paper full of delightful humor and interesting facts, read last June before the Johnson Club at the old inn known as "The Spaniards," on Hampstead Heath. This little pamphlet should be placed on the shelf beside Boswell; it is quite as entertaining. It gives one rather a new view of the Doctor's erudition in a direction which was only a by-path from his larger occupations. Erudition is not exactly the word; it was rather a passionate taste, which he indulged whenever he could find a chance. He lived part of his busy life with his Homer, his Pindar, his Anacreon, and his Epictetus, and they permeated his thoughts. When he lay sleepless, he tells Mrs. Piozzi, he "used to drive the night along" by turning Greek epigrams into Latin. He had a very pretty knack at this. His own "tetrastick" on Goldsmith is more than pretty; Mr. Gennadius pronounces it "full of classic solemnity and grace." A modern Ph.D. might have made the language more difficult and the syntax more tortuous with less of genuine feeling and inspiration. "Johnson's diary bristles with Greek thoughts and allusions." On his journey to Wales he writes one day βρῶσις ὀλίγη, "short commons"; or again, "To-day read Phocylides"; elsewhere he notes the grammar of Lascaris, which he saw in the library of Blenheim, the first book

printed entirely in Greek type. This very copy is at present in the possession of Mr. Gennadius.

—To know Greek well was a passport to Dr. Johnson's heart—it quite subjugated his customary ferocity. He dedicates a gallant epigram to Mrs. Elizabeth Carter, of whom he wrote, "My old friend Mrs. Carter could make a pudding as well as translate Epictetus," and perhaps it was of this extraordinary combination of talents he was thinking when he observes, in a letter to Taylor: "Nature has given women so much power that the law has very wisely given them little." This reads like the ungracious and antiquated basis of another Greek epigram, possibly founded on Mrs. Johnson. A certain Bennett Langton had a similar claim on his friendship and admiration. Langton could crack jokes in Greek; he taught the language to his daughters, who used to sit with their embroidery listening while one of their number read aloud some Greek author; he even discovered that there was such a thing as modern Greek, and had one of his sons taught this then "undreamt-of accomplishment." The Doctor opines that this amiable and admirable Grecian "will surely go to Heaven! Sir, I will almost say, Sit anima mea cum Langtono." Boswell gives one picture of his idol's Grecian day: "I paid him a short visit both on Friday and Saturday, and, seeing his large folio Greek Testament, beheld him with reverential awe, and would not intrude upon his time." This awe was judicious and salutary; the Doctor had lately knocked down an intrusive and unreasonable bookseller with this very sacred book. The folio was to be seen, with the marks of its militant usage, in Cambridge, as late as 1812; as a weapon, it was made more effective by the fact that it contained the Septuagint as well as the New Testament. We need not apologize to Mr. Gennadius for lifting these plums from a pudding so richly stuffed with them; but we must offer him our compliments on his intimate acquaintance with literary gossip and with a literature which should be foreign to one of his name, but in which he shows himself perfectly at home. His printer has played him some sad tricks, of which doubtless he is aware, especially in the closing epigram on Epictetus.

—The admirable facsimile of the thirteenth-century world map discovered sixty-five years ago at Ebstorf, near Hanover, in Germany, which forms the subject of the fifth part of Dr. Konrad Miller's "Mappaemundi; Die ältesten Weltkarten" (Stuttgart; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) will be found by students of mediæval cartography to be not only an important addition to the available material relating to their researches, but also a most useful help in elucidating their field of labor to those unacquainted with the conventions of early map-making. The perennial puzzle in cartographic investigation is the difficulty of distinguishing the individual beliefs, conceptions, and idiosyncrasies of the various map-makers, and of separating these from the more important items of accepted geographic information which each recorded as a basis for his own efforts to add to that stock of information. The especial value of the Ebstorf map is that it seems to be an uncommonly accurate representation of the geographic conceptions of the contemporary educated public. It is probable that the more carefully this great map is examined, the more will students agree in recognizing in it the work of a well-informed draughtsman, who faithfully recorded the prevalent opinions of the more intelligent people about him in his German home, and who fortunately had few cosmic or other theories, and few peculiar or unique sources of travellers' information, from which to construct new and hitherto unheard-of variations in the lie of the land and its inhabitants.

LESLIE STEPHEN'S BIOGRAPHICAL STUDIES.

Studies of a Biographer. By Leslie Stephen. 2 vols. London: Duckworth & Co.: New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

During the past twenty years there has been growing up, even among men who are not primarily religionists, a tendency to looseness or indifference in the statement of fundamental belief. The late Henry Drummond represented a large and worthy if not clear-headed class of persons, who imagine that somehow the old creeds—whether Calvinism, Lutheranism, or Anglicanism—can be happily dovetailed with evolution. A much more acute thinker than Mr. Drummond, Mr. Arthur Balfour, has proved to the satisfaction of many that the foundations of belief are not other than the foundations of that strange institution, the Established Church of England. More recently, one of our own most brilliant philosophers, Prof. William James, has urged that it is perfectly reasonable for us to believe whatever we will. No wonder that Protestant pulpits are filled with clergymen who, after going through the old ritual of their respective creeds, preach sermons garnished with the catchwords and conclusions of modern science. The natural outcome of all this is confusion, equally harmful to the conscience and to the intellect. It has been Mr. Leslie Stephen's merit never to connive at this confusion. In his earlier ethical or philosophical essays he kept clear the unbridgeable distinctions between reason and faith; in the present essays, which are more avowedly biographical, we have the benefit of the same acumen and consistency. What this means we can best appreciate when we read his interpretation of Jowett, Matthew Arnold, and Tennyson, three men who experienced with almost equal intensity the confusion of the age, but grappled with it with very different results.

Of the three, Jowett chose the least satisfactory *modus vivendi* with evidently antagonistic conditions. That the man who wrote the well-known prefaces to Plato should have seen no impropriety in remaining an Anglican clergyman, has been a puzzle to many. He knew very well the bearing of the revolution in science and philosophy. He was conversant with many systems of thought. Yet he did not hesitate to wear the livery of the Established Church, and to give lip-homage to theological formulas which in his writings and his conversation he rejected. Mr. Stephen, who certainly does not judge this anomalous conduct harshly, concludes that we must excuse Jowett on the ground that he never knew exactly what he did believe. "He stood at the parting of many ways, and he wrote 'No Thoroughfare' upon them all"; nevertheless, he did not scruple to be paid for professing that one of those ways led to salvation. When Emerson ceased to believe in the Eucharist, he ceased to accept a salary for preaching that belief.

It has been said that "bad philosophies, when they die, go to Oxford." It may also be said that, in our period of transition, the mission of the Established Church in England has been to harbor very anomalous devotees. Dean Stanley, who, as Carlyle expressed it, spent his time in boring holes in the bottom of the Church of England; Maurice, who, as Jowett remarked, was trying to engraft neoplatonism on the Anglican trunk; Kingsley, so liberal; Pusey, so obscurantist; Jowett himself—here, in truth, is a strange group to be professedly fighting under one banner. Matthew Arnold, of course, took a very different path, on which no one could accuse him of subscribing to tenets he did not believe. He was too genuine a sceptic to treat as certainties those supernatural assertions which, from their very essence, lie beyond the scope of human proof. Through his writings, particularly 'Literature and Dogma,' he scattered the results of modern Biblical criticism among whole classes that had not before given heed to them. Yet he seemed to look forward to the day when "the Church might open its doors to all dissenters—not only to Protestants, but even, in course of time, to Roman Catholics." Just what such a church would be, stripped of its mediæval dogmas, purged of miracles and *Aberglaube*, giving equal welcome to Unitarians and Romanists, he never announced. Nor could he. But, after all, it was not the church as a theological institution that he had in mind: it was, as Mr. Stephen hints, the church as the centre of venerable and touching associations, a poetic vision, which he would have perpetuated. He would preserve it as one preserves an heirloom which has no intrinsic value, but is linked with precious memories. One might pertinently ask, "If you are going in for ancient associations, and not for the dogmas which are supposed to be the life-blood of churches, why do you stop at the Anglican? Why do you not choose the Roman, which is so much more venerable and more truly catholic, and appeals as an historic institution to the imagination of millions who reject its doctrines? Sentiment for sentiment, how modern and partial and unimaginative an heirloom you prefer!" After all, it is not necessary to press Arnold too hard on this side of his teaching, because he laid least stress on it himself, and made his deepest impressions along other lines. One almost suspects a joke when he, who had reduced the Anglican Trinity to a mere "stream of tendency that makes for righteousness," wished to preserve the church.

Tennyson, on the other hand, presents no such contradiction. Although in his late years he clung with an Englishman's conservatism to English institutions, he never seems to have found satisfaction in any creed. He believed unswervingly in immortality: the rest, for him, was trust. His son and biographer perhaps reflects his own reverence for theological dukes and bishops when he represents these as being the chief companions of the last part of Tennyson's life; for it does not appear that Tennyson, however much he may have liked to discuss theology with orthodox magnates, was orthodox himself. Mr. Stephen, who analyzes with some detail this aspect of Tennyson, resents the attempt of the late laureate's son to

make him out a master in either religion or philosophy.

"Even in the *In Memoriam*," he says, "he always seems to me to be like a man clinging to a spar left floating after a shipwreck, knowing that it will not support him, and yet never able to make up his mind to strike out and take his chance of sinking or swimming. That may be infinitely affecting; but it is not the attitude of the poet who can give a war-cry to his followers, or of the philosopher who really dares to 'face the spectres of the mind.'"

We have spoken thus at length of Mr. Stephen's treatment of the most serious concerns in order to indicate the depths of his interests. But we should create a false impression if we let it be supposed that his criticism is usually austere. He deals with many things besides the ultimate verities, and he is never polemical. Even in cases where he differs totally from the conclusions he is discussing, his method is to suggest rather than to argue. Unlike Arnold, who always had a text which he wove in and out of his essay, Mr. Stephen does not preach. His manner, at its best, reminds you of Sainte-Beuve.

Of the fourteen essays in Mr. Stephen's two volumes three are not primarily biographical or critical. The first gives an outline of the scope of the 'Dictionary of National Biography'—that immense work which Mr. Stephen planned and carried through a score or more volumes, and to which he has contributed many memoirs. In another paper he traces "The Evolution of Editors," from the Restoration to the beginning of this century. In a third he writes a sketch of "The Importation of German." Each of these contains much miscellaneous information. There is an entertaining article on "Johnsoniana," called out by Dr. Birkbeck Hill's recent volumes, of which it need only be said that it is worthy of one of the greatest of living Johnsonians. Two eighteenth-century men—John Byrom, author of the wittiest political epigram in the language, and Arthur Young—are described so sympathetically that we feel they are not mere names. In other papers Mr. Stephen analyzes Gibbon's career, and shows how fortune conspired to make him a great historian; he traces, with Legouis's recent book as a guide, the steps by which Wordsworth passed from early Jacobinism to Toryism; and he disentangles the snarled story of Scott's financial ruin, making it plain that Scott was the victim of his own imprudence. A pleasant review of Mr. Morse's Life of Dr. Holmes, and a masterly study of Pascal, in which Mr. Stephen tries to explain the paradox that Pascal was both a sceptic and a devout believer, complete the list of contents.

The success with which he has treated so varied a range of subjects is due to his interest in understanding and interpreting characters rather than in controverting opinions. We have not space to refer to the many happy *obiter dicta*, nor to passages which are not easily forgotten. His portrait of Boswell, for instance; his praise of the eighteenth-century life, to be compared with a similar passage in Lowell's essay on Gray; his description of the typical Oxford don and of the typical Cambridge man; his remarks on the dangers of intuitional criticism, and on the Philistines—these are but a few of the pages which prove that these volumes are real literature. Sometimes Mr. Stephen indulges a vein of satire not less amusing than that of Arnold himself; as when he discusses the "Greek note" and the "Celtic note" in English poetry, or when he says, "I have often wished, I must also confess, that I had a little sweetness and light, that I might be able to say such nasty things of my enemies."

We regret that this collection of Mr. Stephen's essays, like those which preceded it, should be put on the American market at a price which must lessen the number of its readers. English publishers still have a public willing to pay eight shillings for a volume of 60,000 words, but the equivalent price here cuts off many buyers. Especially is this the case when uniform copyright editions of Arnold or John Morley, with whom Mr. Stephen, in a sense, competes, can be bought here for a dollar a volume. For the sake of the dissemination of some of the best thought of the time, we hope that he may arrange to place his works within reach of a larger audience.

Through Unknown Tibet. By M. S. Wellby, Captain Eighteenth Hussars. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. xiv, 440. Maps.

The exploration of Tibet began two centuries ago, but a large part of it still remains absolutely unknown. The regions adjacent to its frontiers have been frequently visited by English and Russian travellers, and a few explorers have crossed the country from north to south. No European, however, had ever set foot in a great tract lying north of latitude 36° when Capt. Wellby started on his adventurous journey in the spring of 1896. This was owing partly to the inhospitable nature of the land, but mainly, in the last eighty years at least, to the determination of the Tibetans to prevent Europeans from entering Lhasa. The extreme solicitude with which they guard even the most distant approaches to the sacred city is remarkable. When this expedition, consisting of only two English officers and a dozen natives, reached the foot of the pass leading from Leh into Tibet, it was stopped, though Lhasa was nearly a thousand miles away. Threats, bribes of money and goods, as well as every other kind of argument, entirely failed to carry any weight with the Tibetan officials. "A loaded revolver pointed at a few paces distant at the chest of one of them had no other result than to induce the man to tear aside his garments, and, showing us his bare flesh, point to us to shoot at it." Against such opposition, backed as it was with a large armed force, further progress by this route was impossible. The travellers turned back, and found an entrance into the country by another pass which was left unguarded simply because it led into an uninhabited wilderness, the "unknown Tibet."

Through this region, called the Chang, the party journeyed eastward for a thousand miles without seeing a human being. For four months, at an average elevation of 16,000 feet, they followed nullahs and dry beds of rivers in this trackless waste, going from one broad valley into another, at times with distant snow-clad mountain ranges on either hand. For days they toiled over barren plains without vegetation or life of any kind, in which salt lakes mocked their thirst. These alternated with hills and vales covered with a coarse grass—there was not the vestige of a tree—on which fed herds of yaks, antelopes, and wild asses. The scorching heat of the day was followed by nights of freezing cold, in which their animals perished. Passes were crossed in blinding snow-storms, and, though it was the dead of summer, ice still covered the fresh-water lakes.

At first the constantly recurring mention of the daily search for water, the failure of provisions, the insubordination of the men, with the monotony of the country, is wearisome. But gradually interest is aroused in the absorbing question, When will the travellers reach an inhabited land? One day an ancient fireplace is discovered. On another there is picked up a stick which a man only could have brought into this treeless desert. A month passes and a stone is found engraved with the sacred "om mani padme hum." Hope beats high when a man and a boy are seen on the distant prairie, but they prove to be only two marmots playing in the mirage-haunted wilderness. At length, when the Lhasa caravan is overtaken, and the welcome bark of a dog and the cheerful voice of a boy singing are heard, the simple narrative reaches an almost thrilling climax.

The few days spent in company with the caravan were full of novel experiences which are well described. The organization and discipline of this body seem to have been well-nigh perfect:

"The 1,500 yak of which it consisted were divided into seven distinct companies, and moved in column, each company superintended by the merchants to whom the animals belonged, and kept in order by the servants and herdsmen under them. These seven companies were again divided into two wings, one consisting of four, the other of the remaining three companies. Every day they marched in the same order, generally with a considerable distance between the two wings, one moving off some time before the other; but everything was managed without the slightest noise or confusion. From the time the watchmen aroused the sleeping camp till the moment of marching off, scarcely a voice was heard; it might then be necessary for some one of the mounted men to scream at a refractory yak to make him fall into his proper place; but so little even of this was there that, after the first day or two, we slept peacefully on while our Tibetan friends passed close by our tent."

Capt. Wellby was especially impressed with the honesty and civility of everybody in the caravan. It was on its annual journey to China with "pulo" cloth and dried dates, to be exchanged for tea and tobacco. The interest of the narrative changes, but does not diminish after an inhabited land is reached. The account of the famous monastery of Kumbum, which was visited in company with a Dutch missionary who had resided within its walls for ten months, is especially noteworthy. It is surprising—in connection with the gold-tiled temple, the sacred tree on the leaves of which "a true believer can distinctly trace the figure of Sakya Muni, or his name in Tibetan characters," the images and prayer-wheels—to read of public and private reading-halls. The type of the latter is a "fine room, with rows of low forms about six inches high, comfortably cushioned, and big enough to hold about 2,500 priests." Mina Fu-yeh, "one of the greatest incarnate saints" on the eastern border of Tibet, and formerly abbot of the monastery, was an extremely interesting character. A devout believer in his religious tenets—talking "freely of his last lifetime, pointing out the site of the house in which he lived, and which was burned down about two years before his death"—he was nevertheless a man of un-

usual intelligence and broad-mindedness. In his chamber was "a colored picture of the day illustrating some English boys and girls out of school," and "at present he is very full of a plan to accompany Rijnhart [the missionary] next time he goes home, and very likely to go on to America." He endeavors to reconcile Buddhism with Christianity by saying that "Tsong Kaba [the restorer and purifier of the Buddhist religion, born in the year 1360 A. D.] must have been a later incarnation of Jesus Christ, and that in reality he worships the same divinity that we do, but in a different way and with different details." Across the Chinese frontier the travellers found the people still suffering from the recently quelled Mohammedan rebellion, of which a graphic account, derived from the missionaries, is given.

The remainder of the journey, through China by cart, raft, and wool-boat on the Yellow River, does not call for particular notice. The chief scientific results of the expedition were the disclosing the character and principal features of a previously unknown region and the discovery of the Chu Ma River, which may be one of the sources of the Yangtse-Kiang. It required remarkable pluck, endurance, and resource on the part of the two young officers to accomplish so much with so few followers. Two of those with whom they originally started, the one sick, the other sorely wounded, a stern necessity compelled them to leave behind in the wilderness. Most of the others deserted them, and they travelled for a large part of the way with only four companions. The fate of the deserters was unknown when Capt. Wellby wrote, but a recent telegram from India says that they found their way home in safety. A number of reproductions from photographs, some of which are unusually good, add greatly to the attractiveness of the volume: "a plain story plainly told," the author all too modestly terms it.

The Empire and the Papacy. 918-1273. By T. F. Tout, M.A. [Periods of European History II.] The Macmillan Co. 1898.

Glancing over the titles of the eight volumes in Mr. Hassall's series, one is struck by the fact that four of them ('The Dark Ages,' 'The Close of the Middle Ages,' 'Europe in the Sixteenth Century,' and 'Modern Europe') are simply chronological, while the other four ('The Empire and the Papacy,' 'The Ascendancy of France,' 'The Balance of Power,' and 'Revolutionary Europe') are expressly connected with topics. We should say that the chronological label is better. It may be less terse than the topical, but it is less apt to beget misconception, and to open the question of what is the leading line of progress through the given period. For instance, Mr. Tout, in 'The Empire and the Papacy,' considers the general development of European history from 918-1273. As he starts with the assumption that the world-church and world-state idea furnishes the main clue, his tendency is to slight the parallel subject of national advance. He does not omit to mention, and even emphasize it—he is too sound a historian for that—and in the important case of France, he fulfils all reasonable expectation. Our broad criticism is, that one rather makes a mistake in nailing his colors to a thesis when he writes for a series which is avowedly "comprehensive." To illustrate this point, we take a single example: Spain is so far sacrificed to the Holy Roman Empire that she gets only 14 pages out of 492. We may further add that the wide vogue of Mr. Bryce's essay renders it unnecessary to insist on the imperial aspect to the exclusion of other salient matters which, *ex hypothesi*, he was not bound to present.

We advance this stricture with no great aggressiveness, recognizing that every man must model his own ship. Mr. Tout has shaped a very neat and compact little craft, and we should be doing it injustice were we to haggle over proportions of length or beam. Having mentioned Mr. Bryce's name, we must add that Mr. Tout escapes the serious danger of appearing his imitator or legatee. Mr. Bryce subordinates narrative to disquisition. With Mr. Tout, narrative is everything, and he accordingly conveys much more information about Germany and Italy than his predecessor. He is also fuller on the side of the ecclesiastical system and the religious orders. His chief indebtedness is to the 'Histoire Générale.' Though not feeling it "in his power to enlarge upon the general history of civilization in the way adopted by" MM. Lavisse and Rambaud, he has "frequently availed himself of the help of [their] book in his selection and arrangement of his facts, and would like to refer his readers to it for such parts of the history as do not fall within his scheme." A short bibliography precedes each chapter.

We have said that Mr. Tout's object is to follow the sequence of events rather than to spin theories. Likewise he is no Michelet, picturesquely describing the gorgeousness or the squalor of the Middle Ages. He traces the course of politics, and of the thought or the ecclesiastical institutions which bear on politics. Within limits he also attempts analysis of motive, and expounds his theme rationally by indicating, wherever possible, the play of causes. The reader will be impressed by the care he shows in steering clear of complications. His twenty-one chapters hardly fall into more than three principal divisions: Empire and Papacy (including Germany and Italy); France; and the East (including Byzantine Empire and the Crusades). "The Cluniac Reformation," "The Monastic Movement and the Twelfth Century Renascence," "The Universities and the Friars," and "The Growth of Christian Spain" are especially considered, but do not withdraw the attention long from the solid sections just enumerated. Among the many good qualities of this text-book, those which have seemed to us most admirable are its first-hand information, and the marks which it bears of careful prevision. It is refreshing to find a point scored or an illustration adduced in the precise words of Widukind, Liutprand, Anna Comnena, Malaterra, William of Tyre, or Matthew Paris; and it is equally refreshing to find the results of a weighty monograph compressed into a single paragraph. We could easily select a dozen passages which have struck us as either better than the corresponding parts of existing manuals, or as completely superseding them. We shall be content with naming three: First, Mr. Tout's notice of the mark system; second, his estimate of the retroactive influence on Germany of expansion at Slavic expense; and third, his review of the great French fiefs in 1108.

We began by offering a piece of general criticism. We shall conclude by descending to particulars, one or two of which are minute. Mr. Tout's style is clear and correct, but his diction is at times a little hackneyed. Phrases like "it seemed as though" and "utterly defeated," along with others which have stood hard and common wear in school books, occur so frequently that they attract attention; and one thinks he can detect occasional hasty execution, *e. g.*, when such a contradiction of terms as the following obtrudes itself: "the order of Camaldoli; so-called from an inaccessible spot in the Apennines, near Arezzo, where one of Romuald's troops of followers had settled." Mr. Tout's description of Cluny is a disappointment, considering that the first part of Chapter v. is entitled "The Cluniac Reformation," and that Udalric of Regensburg would have supplied an abundance of suitable detail. We must also find fault with his notice of scholastic philosophy in that it employs the terms "Nominalism," "Realism," and "Conceptualism," and yet fails to tell the uninstructed reader the nature of these typical opinions. A useful statement regarding the question of universals might have been restricted to less than a page. Finally, we register a few misprints. P. 37, line 3, Otto *II.* should, apparently, be *I.;* p. 49, last line, for *sinking* read *striking;* p. 366, the dates assigned to Charles the Simple are "839-929," a slip which is repeated on p. 496; p. 81, *1194* should be *1094;* p. 483, in the statement that Montaperti "secured the triumph of the Guelfs over all Tuscany save in Lucca," Ghibellines should, of course, be substituted for Guelfs.

But much stronger then any adverse impression which we have formed of Mr. Tout's views or treatment is our sense that he has produced a scholarly and valuable outline of mediæval history from Henry the Fowler to Rudolf of Hapsburg.

The Nation's Navy. By Charles Morris. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1898.

The reconstruction of the navy and the modernizing of its material have been accomplished in a period of fifteen years, and it is a source of just pride and satisfaction to know how completely and thoroughly this work has been done. Before that period our vessels were of the type of the era of the civil war, and the matériel of the navy, as it came into comparison with that of other navies, was a source of humiliation. It is to be regretted that the book under consideration, owing to its inaccuracies, falls short of being the useful handbook of the United States navy which it might otherwise have been.

It commences with an epitome of the history of the navy, from the first naval fight afloat in the waters near Machias, Me., during the Revolutionary war, to the destruction of the *Maine* in Havana harbor. This is compact and succinct, and, in its earlier portions, may be termed fairly accurate. When the history reaches a comparatively modern epoch, the errors become more frequent. A few only will be mentioned. In speaking of the Koszta affair (which, by the way, occurred not in 1854, as stated, but the year before), the author represents the Austrian vessel, the *Hussar*, as larger than the *St. Louis*. As a matter of fact, it was but a brig-of-war, while Ingraham in the *St. Louis* had the superior force. Naturally, it was not the disparity of force that troubled

Ingraham, but the complications that might arise later. Again, the author is mistaken when he states that, in the Barrundia affair, the captain of the mail steamer *Acapulco* appealed to Commander Reiter, the senior naval officer present, for protection. No such appeal was made either by Capt. Pitts or by Barrundia. Pitts asked for instructions and advice from Mr. Mizner, the minister resident at Guatemala City in the interior, but made no request or appeal to Commander Reiter or any naval officer for protection. Without solicitation from either of these persons, Reiter suggested to the Minister at Guatemala the return of Barrundia, with the consent of the Guatemalan authorities, to Acapulco in the *Thetis*. This was not acceded to. No asylum was sought on board of the *Ranger* or *Thetis*, and hence there was no violation of the right of asylum. Barrundia was in a merchant vessel on his way to join the Salvadorian forces still at war with Guatemala, after an attempted rising in Northern Guatemala; a hostile proceeding emanating from Mexican soil, and which was brought to a close by Mexican authorities at the request of the United States.

The account of the *Itata* affair also contains many errors. The *Itata* did not at any time enter San Francisco Bay, while the Congressional insurgents did not gain the port of Valparaiso until long after the *Itata* affair. This vessel carried the Chilian flag as a merchantman, and, though under the control of the insurgents, she was not considered as in any way piratical; in fact, the instructions to our naval commander in the South Pacific with respect to the insurgent vessels took quite the contrary view, and yet the *Charleston* sought the *Itata* beyond our territorial waters, and, though she had been lost sight of, would doubtless have taken possession of her upon the high seas. This would have been in violation of international law, for even a seizure beyond the three-mile limit in violation of municipal law must be done as part of a pursuit commenced from this limit and while the vessel is *in flagrante delicto*. The surrender of the *Itata* at Iquique by the congressionalists was a matter of policy in the presence of a naval force, rather than a matter of right, as the subsequent release of the *Itata* showed.

Errors disfigure the descriptive portions of the book. The *Vesuvius* is called a dynamite-gun vessel when her explosive projectiles contain gun-cotton. The *Machias* is improperly classed with an incorrect tonnage. The possibility of the navigation of the Yellow River by a gunboat is probably known or surmised only by the author. The board of fortifications and harbor defence in 1886 was not of naval engineers, but of officers of the army and navy and representatives from civil life.

The book, after a thorough revision, may claim a place among works of reference, but until then its careless compilation seriously affects its utility.

Egypt in 1898. By G. W. Steevens. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898. Illustrated. Pp. x, 283.

This is a lively account, written in newspaper English, of a recent tour, in which considerable solid information is mixed up with much that is trivial. The sketches of the author's companions and of scenes, such as the coaling of the steamer at Port Said, or the ride across the desert, are excellent word pictures, which enable the reader vividly to realize what he saw and experienced. There is also a suggestive description of a school in Cairo, and of an interview with a "hostile" Pasha, which shows admirably the anti-English point of view of one of the governing class. The work of the English in introducing judicial reforms, in relieving the fellah from oppressive taxation, in extending and improving irrigation, is touched upon by Mr. Steevens, but so briefly and hastily that a somewhat confused and not altogether correct impression must be left upon the uninformed reader. He lays little stress, for instance, upon the revolution in the character of the peasant, who, under British leaders, is shaking off his century-long timidity and is becoming a self-confident and victorious soldier. In his epigrammatic way Mr. Steevens says that the one failure of the English rule is that it has not made a man of the Egyptian; he cannot yet bear responsibility. He seems to forget that more than sixteen years are needed to accomplish this; and he fails to point out clearly that the root of the evil lies in the fact, to use his own words, that "a Mussulman is never a boy. As soon as he leaves the harem—often already corrupted by the women—and is no longer a baby, he jumps at a bound to being a man." From a bright-eyed urchin of fourteen he becomes a "sallow, flashy, sodden, stupid, dissipated man about town." As long as the home is unreformed and the relations of man to woman are unchanged, England will remain in Egypt.

The least interesting chapters, in a book in which there is not a really dull page, are those descriptive of visits to the ruins of temples and tombs, but in them Mr. Steevens probably accurately pictures the impressions of the vast majority of tourists. On the Nile he was so fortunate as to meet a remarkable man, one better known in the country than even Lord Cromer, Mr. Thomas Cook, of whose personality and work he gives an entertaining account. An undue haste for publication has prevented the careful revision of the book and the elimination of passages evidently written originally to fill up space. This will prevent it from taking a place among works of permanent value, notwithstanding its many and obvious merits. The illustrations are from photographs, which were not always successful.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, A. Theories of the Will in the History of Philosophy. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Alger, Horatio, jr. The Young Bank Messenger. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.
Baskerville, Prof. W. M., and Harrison, Prof. J. A. Anglo-Saxon Prose Reader. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.20.
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Bourget, Paul. The Disciple. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Bowne, Prof. B. P. Metaphysics. Revised ed. Harper & Bros.
Bray, Prof. J. W. History of English Critical Terms. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Brooks, Noah. The Boys of Fairport. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Browning, Elizabeth Barrett. Sonnets from the Portuguese. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.00.
Burnham, Clara L. A Great Love. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Busch, Moritz. Bismarck und Sein Werk. Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Busch, Moritz. Bismarck: Some Secret Pages of his History. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. $10.00.
Carret, Alice de. Flames and Ashes. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Cawein, Madison. Idyllic Monologues. Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co.
Chamberlayn, C. G. The Vestry Book and Register of Bristol Parish, Va., 1720-1789. Richmond, P. O. Drawer 927: The Author. $5.00.
Chapman, J. J. Causes and Consequences. Scribners. $1.25.
Coale, Isaac, jr. The Sambo Book. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co.
Colquhoun, A. R. China in Transformation. Harpers. $3.
Cornish, F. W. Concise Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities. Henry Holt & Co. $4.00.
Croker, B. M. Peggy of the Bartons. New York: R. M. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Cummings, St. James. Staves of the Triple Alliance. Charleston, S. C.: The Author. 50c.
Curme, Prof. G. O. Lessing's Nathan der Weise. Macmillan.
Dembitz, L. N. Jewish Services in Synagogue and Home. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Demolins, Edmond. Anglo-Saxon Superiority. Scribners. $1.50.
Dickens, Charles. A Child's History of England, with illustrations from photographs by Clifton Johnson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Edgerton, J. A. Voices of the Morning: Poems. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 75c.
Egleston, Prof. Thomas. The Life of John Paterson, Major-General in the Revolutionary Army. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. Putnams. $3.50.
Eliot, Charles W. Educational Reform. The Century Co. $2.00.
Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts 16-18. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.00 each.
Farmer, J. E. The Grenadier. A Story of the Empire. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Fezandié, C. Through the Earth. The Century Co. $1.50.
Fiske, A. K. The Story of the Philippines. New York: The Army and Navy Illustrated.
Forbes, Archibald. The Life of Napoleon the Third. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Ford, J. D. An American Cruiser in the Far East. A. S. Barnes & Co. $2.50.
Ford, P. L. Writings of Jefferson. Vol. IX. 1807-1815. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
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Foss, S. W. Songs of War and Peace. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Gage, A. P. The Elements of Physics. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.20.
Galbraith, J. In the New Capital: Ottawa in 1999. Toronto News Co. 25 cents.
George, A. J. From Chaucer to Arnold: Types of Literary Art in Prose and Verse. Macmillan. $1.00.
Gesenius's Hebrew Grammar. Revised Translation. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Gildersleeve's Latin Grammar. School ed. University Publishing Co.
Gissing, G. The Town Traveller. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Glasgow, Ellen. Phases of an Inferior Planet. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Gray, D. Gallops. The Century Co. $1.25.
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Holland, Clive. An Egyptian Coquette. M. F. Mansfield. $1.25.
Holy Bible. Revised Version with References. Henry Frowde. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1898.

The Week.

The action of the Democrats in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut in turning their backs formally upon free silver and Bryanism, deprives the Republicans of the inestimable aid of the "sound-money" gag in this year's campaigns. These are the three doubtful States in the East which were compelled to give their support to McKinley in 1896 by the surrender of the Democratic party of the whole country to Bryan. So long as the Democrats in these as well as other States adhered to the platform of 1896, there was nothing for voters who believed in sound money to do but to train with the Republicans. They could not vote with a party which declared its purpose to give the country free silver if it were trusted with power. The Democrats in the East have at last discovered the folly of conducting their party in the interest of their opponents. They have discovered that free silver is a dead issue, and that no party which favors it can succeed at the polls. The change of front here will have a powerful influence upon the Democrats in other parts of the country. It sounds the doom of Bryan, and thus rids us of our most serious national menace. The effect will be good in many ways, but in none more so than in showing the Republicans that they will need to do something more for currency reform than to declare in favor of it in their party platforms.

Nothing has been more striking in the conventions of our two great parties in this State than the reception each gave to its boss. Platt was the hero and idol of the Republican assemblage. The cheers which greeted him made those for the hero of San Juan hill seem feeble. It was the "old man" whom the delegates loved and delighted to honor, and their only desire was to do what he wished them to, asking no questions. So, in the Syracuse convention, Croker was the man whose every appearance aroused the delegates to a transport of enthusiasm. Hill, Murphy, and other minor leaders were as nothing compared with the boss. What is the reason for this? Why do the delegates so love their bosses? Quigg says they love Platt because "age has mellowed him," but Quigg is always rather poetical in his views. They love him on the old principle, "Blessed be the hand that gives." Every man of them knows that when he wants money with which to conduct his campaign for either nomination or election, all he has to do is to call on the "old man" at No. 49 Broadway, and he will get what he needs, provided always that he has been regular—has done in every instance "what the old man wants." It is the same in Croker's case. He sits at the seat of customs for the great city of New York. All the party supplies must come through him. Demonstrations of affection are natural, spontaneous even, under such conditions. The sad fate of any man who is not enthusiastic, who ventures to do in any instance otherwise than his boss desires him to do, is of itself a constant incentive to affection.

The New York Democratic State platform is as long and windy as that of the Republicans. It is confined almost exclusively to State issues, and in that particular is better than the other. It contains no Jingoism. In that respect the Republican platform is as bad as possible. The Democrats "arraign" the Republicans justly for rascality in the management of the canals. For this they have a clear warrant, and it is not unlikely that they will gain a good many votes on that issue. They accuse Col. Roosevelt of tax-dodging, and here too they will probably gain votes in the rural communities. In the cities, where the incongruity of the tax laws is better understood, very few if any votes will be lost by the Republicans on that issue. The Democrats have avoided the silver issue and have not even endorsed the Chicago platform, having simply ignored the whole matter. This is better than reaffirming that platform, but is still much behind the Republican platform, although the latter left something to be desired. Finally, the Democrats denounce in fitting terms the "Metropolitan Force bill." This unconstitutional and usurping measure will come in play for the first time at the coming election, and will do the Republicans more harm in Greater New York than Col. Roosevelt's "tax-dodging" ten times over.

So far as personal character is concerned, there is nothing to be said against either candidate for the governorship in this State. Judge Van Wyck, so far as we have any knowledge of him, is in this respect as completely above reproach as Col. Roosevelt is. He has been an upright and competent judge, is a man of pleasing manners and fine attainments, and enjoys the respect and esteem of his neighbors and fellow-citizens. Between two such candidates it becomes simply a question of which will be more likely to act independently of his boss after election. To decide this question we must take into account the circumstances surrounding the nomination of each, and the traits of character which each has exhibited in his previous career. That Col. Roosevelt would go into the office of Governor more distinctly the choice of the people than Judge Van Wyck would, cannot be questioned. He would thus have a popular support for independent conduct which the Judge would not have. Then, too, Col. Roosevelt has had many opportunities to demonstrate his mettle as an independent, fearless exponent of good government, while Judge Van Wyck has had none. As a Civil-Service Reform Commissioner under President Harrison, Roosevelt left no doubt in anybody's mind about either his ability or his courage to uphold good government in spite of all obstacles. As Police Commissioner in this city he displayed again the same qualities. Nobody who has followed his career can doubt that in him, as Governor, civil-service reform would have a champion whom nothing could intimidate or seduce. On this and all other questions of civil administration Judge Van Wyck has no record whatever. He is simply untried, whereas Col. Roosevelt has been tried and not found wanting. It is impossible also to separate Judge Van Wyck from his environment. If he is elected, he will go into office as the personal choice of Croker, approved by McLaughlin, the local boss of Brooklyn. We should then have one Van Wyck, chosen by Croker personally, as Mayor of New York city, and another Van Wyck, chosen in the same way, as Governor of the State. Can any one imagine Gov. Van Wyck opposing legislation for New York city which Mayor Van Wyck desired? And does Mayor Van Wyck desire anything except what Croker desires? This would be, indeed, a "vicious circle."

A glimpse of one of the forces which will be behind the Democratic canvass in this State is furnished in the *Tribune's* Albany letter in the statement that the party will have the aid of "ample funds from the brewers, who desire to have taxation lowered under the Raines liquor-tax law." That the liquor interests of the State will work against Roosevelt is a fact that has been self-evident from the outset. This city, and probably all the other large cities of the State, are now in a more or less "wide-open" condition so far as the sale of liquor on Sundays and after legal hours is concerned. The most casual examination of the saloons in this borough and in that of Brooklyn on any Sunday will leave no doubt on this point. The Democratic managers will not be slow to raise the cry that to elect Roosevelt will be to close up all the saloons. In fact, that cry has been raised already and is being used with all possible force in all the cities of

the State. If in addition to guaranteeing continued "wide-openness" in case of Van Wyck's election, the Tammany-Democratic managers are willing to guarantee a reduced liquor tax, they are likely to arouse great enthusiasm for Van Wyck in all the centres of liquor activity, and the vote from that quarter will be even more "solid" than usual. The matter will need to be handled with great care in the rural districts, and to a certain extent in the cities also, for there are a good many voters who object to a liquor domination of their government.

"Attempted assassination of character has been almost the sole weapon of attack employed by Senator Quay's opponents for several years." So says his colleague, Senator Penrose, in an interview published in the newspapers on Tuesday. Fortunately, Mr. Quay's opponents have changed their tactics for once, and have decided to put him under arrest on a charge of conspiracy to defraud the People's Bank of Philadelphia. Of course, this institution had money belonging to the State Treasury on deposit. That is an old trick of Quay's. The money was paid back to the State after the bank had failed, and Quay paid what he owed the bank after it had gone into the hands of a receiver. The case has some features in common with that upon which Senator Kenney of Delaware was lately tried. In the latter case Kenney drew checks on a bank where he had no funds, and the cashier paid them. The bank failed, partly in consequence of these overdrafts, but Kenney afterwards paid his debt in full. His counsel contended in the trial that it was not a crime to make overdrafts on a bank if the bank officers chose to pay them, and if the drawer subsequently made his account good. Upon this plea the jury came to a disagreement and the case has to be tried again. In Quay's case we judge from the affidavit upon which he was arrested, that he caused the State's money to be deposited in the People's Bank and then borrowed it from the bank for private speculations, and that these and other similar borrowings caused the bank's failure. He has, however, like Kenney, paid his debt to the bank, and will contend that that fact "lets him out." Without attempting to prejudge his case, or Kenney's, we may point out the right of the shareholders of the banks to protection against conspiracies between the cashiers and outside speculators. It is no compensation to the shareholders, whose capital is scattered and sequestrated by a receivership, that the rascals who took their money paid it back again.

The Michigan Democrats declare this year for a constitutional provision by which the electors may first initiate legislation, and then at the polls pass upon "such laws as affect the rights of the citizen and the taxpayer"; while the Wisconsin Democrats proclaim their belief in the referendum, which they define as "the submission of all laws to the vote of the people," pronouncing it "the best and only means of safeguarding both the interests and liberties of the common people and averting oligarchic tendencies." The referendum, however, has existed in Wisconsin ever since its admission as a State, and has been brought into requisition no less than twenty-three times since 1854. The noteworthy feature of these many trials of the system is the fact that, with rare exceptions, only a small percentage of the people have improved the opportunity afforded them. The Milwaukee *Wisconsin* has brought together some interesting and valuable statistics on the subject, which show that in only one case, in 1865, when the proposition was to extend the right of suffrage to the negroes—which, by the way, was defeated by a few thousand majority—did the vote on such a question come anywhere near that for candidates for office. In one year the total vote on some banking legislation proposed was but 30,102, while the total vote on Congressmen was 116,339. In another case, where similar legislation was submitted, 23 counties cast no vote at all on it, while there was a full vote for Congressmen. In fifteen other instances where the referendum was applied, the total vote on such issues was in no case over one-half the total vote on officials, and was often less than one-quarter of the total vote on Governor and Congressmen. There has been no change of late years in this popular disposition to shirk the expression of opinion. In 1892 a proposed amendment to the Constitution received a total vote of only 24,823, while the total vote cast at the same time for elective officials was 371,559.

That was a weighty deliverance on the subject of territorial expansion which came from Bishop Potter on Wednesday week. Nobody has so clearly and forcibly put in a single phrase the real point at issue, as being, not what are we going to do with the unexpected fruits of victory, but, "rather, the solemn question, What are they going to do with us?" After the riot of sentimentality and hypocrisy in which so many clergymen were carried off their feet, it is refreshing to find a man in high authority in the church who recalls the silly and unbalanced to their senses with the solemn declaration that "at such a time, as never before, the Church of God is called upon, in the pulpit and by every agency at her command, to speak the words of truth and soberness, and to reason of righteousness, temperance, and a judgment to come—a judgment for nations as well as individuals—till impetuosity is sobered and chastened, and until a people in peril of being wrecked upon an untried sea can be made to pause and think"; and who goes to the root of the matter with such searching analysis of the situation as this:

> "The things that this community and this nation alike supremely need are not more territory, more avenues of trade, more places for place-hunters, more pensions for idlers, more subject races to prey upon—but a dawning consciousness of what, in individual and in national life, is a people's indispensable moral foundations, those great spiritual forces on which alone men or nations are built."

The prospect of Hawaii and Porto Rico as States in the early future is opening the eyes of many people who had before been blind to the dangers of the expansion policy. The *Iowa State Register* asks what a State government for Hawaii means, and answers, "Another free and unlimited silver-coinage State, with equal voice with New York in the United States Senate." The Boston *Record*, the organ of Representative Barrett, points out that the course outlined by Gen. Wilson "means that the 700,000 Spanish-American Indians and negroes in that island are to have as much influence in the United States Senate as Massachusetts; it means that another rotten borough of the very worst description is to become a State." For years we have had an earnest agitation against the admission to the United States of ignorant foreigners, on the ground that any further infusion of such an element would endanger our institutions. Now it is proposed to take into the Union whole batches of such ignorant foreigners, and give each of these batches as much power in the Senate as Massachusetts or Iowa, New York or Pennsylvania. No wonder that good Republican organs are protesting against the policy of expansion, because they see that "the admission of a very few such States as Hawaii, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines will mean the downfall and destruction of the United States."

It was announced some days ago that an embassy from the new government of the Filipinos under the presidency of Aguinaldo was en route to the Paris peace conference, with instructions to visit also the European Powers and lay before the latter their claims to recognition as an independent nation. Accompanying this announcement was a declaration of principles resembling in many particulars the Declaration of American Independence. It affirms that the Filipino government embraces fifteen provinces, including the city of Manila; that in these provinces, all of which are under their control except the city of Manila, good order and perfect tranquillity reign, and that the laws are administered by officers elected by the people according to regulations adopted when the government was formed in the month of June last. They say that they hold 9,000 prisoners of

war, who are treated with all the usages and regulations of civilized warfare and humanitarian sentiment, and that they have 30,000 men, on a war footing, organized as a regular army. Now, what kind of figure shall we present to the world and to ourselves in fighting a people who come forward bearing in one hand the guns that we gave them, and in the other a Declaration of Independence modelled upon our own? How much more becoming shall we appear—how much better shall we be—than George III. and his cohorts in the days of the Revolution?

To the public men of both America and England, irrespective of party attachments, the news of the death of Thomas F. Bayard has brought a sense of private grief and personal loss. Mr. Bayard was a type of the best class of the older generation of statesmen, of whom there are very few remaining, and hardly any now in public life. He came of a family of statesmen to whom a seat in the Senate of the United States was a kind of heirloom. In the whole list of Bayards there was not one who filled that seat more worthily. There was not one who filled so many other high places in the country's service with such distinguished ability and approval. He was born to the maxim *Noblesse oblige*, and he never forgot the responsibilities which it imposed. His public career began when his father retired from the Senate in 1868, and it continued with slight interruption until he was succeeded by Mr. John Hay as Ambassador to England last year. While he was in the Senate the two great questions of the day were Greenbackism and Reconstruction. Mr. Bayard was the leader of the sound-money forces of his party from first to last. He was opposed alike to greenbacks and to silver. He believed that the former ought to be paid and cancelled as past-due debts of the Government. He considered the free coinage of silver as a disguised form of repudiation, and he abhorred it accordingly. He voted against the inflation bill which President Grant vetoed; and when the specie-resumption act was passed, he tried to get a provision inserted to make the greenbacks, after they had been redeemed, no longer legal tender. In short, he set his face like a flint against every kind of financial tomfoolery and dishonesty. His term of office as Foreign Secretary was most honorable and acceptable to the country—so much so that when Mr. Cleveland was again elected President it was expected that Mr. Bayard would resume his former place as a matter of course. It was his own preference, however, to take the place of Ambassador to England. How well he fulfilled the duties of this position, it is not necessary to relate.

While the public mind was engrossed with the fighting in Cuba on the 1st of July, a new law with reference to the use of the mails went into effect, which is of no little importance. In European countries the Government has permitted the individual to manufacture and send private mailing cards, which might bear almost any device, but no such freedom has hitherto been allowed the citizen of the United States. At its last session, however, Congress passed an act making it lawful after the 1st of July to transmit such private cards by mail in this country, under regulations which the Postmaster-General might prescribe. The law provides that cards of this sort must be "no larger than the size fixed by the convention of the Universal Postal Union, and approximately of the same form, quality, and weight as the stamped postal card now in general use in the United States." The regulations framed by the department allow the message on such cards to be either in writing or print, "and there may also appear on the message side advertisements, illustrations, or other matter, printed either in black or in colors." A one-cent stamp must be attached to every card, and if there be a written message upon it, it cannot be mailed to a foreign country except at the letter rate of postage (five cents for a half ounce to countries included in the Universal Postal Union).

Under the new revenue act of last July, the Government's receipts are continuing to show a large increase over any years since the period of the civil war. It is somewhat interesting, in fact, to observe that last month's total revenue, though several millions less than that of July or August, nevertheless far exceeds the monthly maximum of the years when the "Treasury surplus" became embarrassing. The largest revenue of any month in 1887 was $35,619,000; in 1888, the maximum was $32,918,000; whereas, the total revenue for September, 1898, is returned as $39,778,000. It should be needless to point out that the customs revenue, the sole relic of Dingley's financiering, has played an insignificant part in these results. Customs receipts are still running two to four millions monthly below the autumn returns of a decade ago; but the internal revenue, even last month, was double the average of years such as 1887 and 1888. Despite, however, this large increase in total ordinary revenue, expenditures, because of the war, continue to run beyond receipts; the September deficit was $14,444,000, against only $3,435,000 in September, 1897. The recent congestion of money in the Treasury was occasioned, not by a revenue surplus, but by heavy payments against the $200,000,000 loan. This threatened danger has now, apparently, been in great measure removed—partly through the anticipation of some large October and November payments by the Treasury, but chiefly through rapid expansion of Government deposits with the banks, which have been increased by $15,200,000 since September 1, and by $24,200,000 since the opening of August. One of the oddities of the present situation is that this liberal use of banks as Government depositories, which was frantically denounced by Secretary Sherman's adversaries in 1878, and for which Secretary Fairchild was attacked by all the Republican stump oracles of 1888, should be practised now, on the most extensive scale of the generation, without exciting a word of hostile criticism.

When Gen. Kitchener announces, as he did on meeting Major Marchand at Fashoda, that the Sudan is hereafter to be Egyptian territory, he means, of course, Anglo-Egyptian. The Sudan was lost fourteen years ago as Egyptian territory, and the main reason it was lost was that it had been badly ruled by the Egyptian Government. Slatin Pasha explains how arbitrary and crushing taxation and all forms of injustice and oppression by Egyptian governors had made the Sudan ripe for revolt, even before the Mahdi rose to fuse all the discontent and complaints with religious fanaticism. Those mistakes must not be repeated. It must be a reformed Egyptian rule that is now extended over the Sudan—that is, an Egyptian rule under English auspices and control. In Egypt the proper condition of the fellaheen has been so greatly bettered, since the English have been practically in charge of affairs, that a return to the old ways would be regarded by the natives as the greatest of calamities. Taxation has been equalized and made impartial, the poorest peasant pays no more per foot of land irrigated than the richest landholder, and the idea of justice and equality before the law has for the first time made its way into the heads of Egyptians.

The moral for the French Government in the new anti-Dreyfus riots is that what they do in the matter of revision they must do quickly. Revised or unrevised, the Dreyfus case is a firebrand for France. It seems impossible to hold a meeting either for or against revision without exciting mobs and popular frenzy and illegal arrests. Nothing can cure this national disease except a new trial in which full publicity shall be given to all the evidence. Perhaps not even that will restore French sanity. Proofs as strong as holy writ have no effect upon minds in a certain state of pathological excitement, and doubtless there will long be Frenchmen to declare, no matter what the result of revision, that Dreyfus is an unhung traitor, and Zola and the professors the agents or victims of a gigantic conspiracy of the "Jews" against the nation.

LITERATURE AND WAR.

As the press has grown in power and importance, it has come to take a larger and larger part in international controversies. Despotisms are so well aware of this that they edit the periodicals on this class of questions themselves. At St. Petersburg or Constantinople the publishers are told by the Government what to say in a dispute with a foreign Power. But the support obtained in this way is feeble indeed compared to what democratic governments get from their periodicals. The lawyers, jurists, publicists, professors, and clergymen all fall to with ardor to show that whatever their own Government does or claims is absolutely right and justifiable. For instance, during our Bering Sea trouble, numerous lawyers and professors showed in divers magazines that our claim of Bering Sea as our peculiar property was right, and that American seals could be recognized without difficulty off the Cape of Good Hope. During the Venezuela trouble, Senator Lodge and various other publicists showed weekly in some journal the exact extent to which Great Britain had encroached on Venezuela.

It really does not make much difference whether the views thus propounded are sound or not. They are not expected to exert any determining influence on the controversy. Neither Power engaged in it thinks of adopting their conclusions. The purpose they serve is to satisfy the writer's own public that things are going well, and that the party in power deserves to be backed up by the nation. In England, which has so many foreign controversies, this does not hold quite so true, because England always has a criticising Opposition, which is often apt to take the side of the foreigner because its own ministry takes the other. The Afghans, for instance, the Egyptians, the Turks, and the Russians have had their friends among the Liberals. We have fewer of these foreign questions, and, since the war of the rebellion, we have had no rational criticising Opposition; whatever position the party in power may choose to take in any foreign controversy, the Opposition content themselves with "going them one better," or saying that they might have made the case stronger.

But we have had in the present dispute with Spain more curious examples of the literary backing of the Government than any others we can recall. In the first place, the object of the war was never clearly defined. Some said it was one thing and some said another. This has given an excuse for a great deal of discursive essay-writing. But the topics suggested by controversies about the object of the war before Dewey's victory were nothing in number compared to those which have been produced since. The sudden appearance of a theory of "expansion" or "imperialism" running directly counter to previous American ideas and policy would have looked, to careless observers, like an example of greed and volatility if there had not been numerous ready writers to explain it, and show that it is the most natural thing in the world for people who have always hitherto carefully confined themselves to the continent of America, to claim a group of islands on the other side of the globe.

The most entertaining of these writers whom we have met with is a Mr. Powers, who writes home to the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, from Berlin, explaining to us how right and natural has been everything we have said, thought, or done since last January. He acknowledges that a year ago we firmly held the "Monroe Doctrine," and that we have turned a complete somerset since then, and have more than repudiated the Doctrine within this year, after having held it aggressively for seventy-five years. Says he, "The rapidity with which these great questions have been forced upon the national mind has been bewildering, and our instinctive response must be regarded as highly significant of national character." This might seem to many careless observers a sign of our ignorance of the difficulties of governing distant dependencies, and of the absence of the habit of deliberation on grave questions of public policy. But Mr. Powers shows that it is nothing of the kind. He approaches the subject as a "scientist," and maintains "that we have not suddenly changed our ideals; that we are but slowly developing them after a century, and have suddenly discovered their application to a new situation."

Well, how does it happen that we have made this discovery so suddenly? We have not really made it ourselves; it has been forced upon us by something called "Manifest Destiny." What Manifest Destiny is, nobody exactly knows, but it is evidently the most useful phrase in the whole range of political terminology. As nobody is able to define it except as "a stream of tendency," any man or party, clergyman, professor, or "scientist," is able to ascribe to it any act or omission, crime or neglect, of which he has a mind to be guilty. It is simply the device now so much in use in treatises on criminology, for the exclusion of the human will from the government of human conduct. We thought at one time that the control of what the ancients called Fate, or Destiny, over the affairs of mankind had been reduced to very small limits, and that since the introduction of Christianity the moral responsibility of men for their own acts had been immensely enlarged.

In fact, one of the fundamental assumptions of the politics of the modern world is that what a Christian nation does has been done deliberately, and after full consideration of the pros and cons. Of course, if it were allowed to a civilized nation to start suddenly on new and aggressive courses, in which their previous ideas, standards, and policies were completely ignored, in which they turned their backs on all the doctrines they had previously preached about right, duty, or expediency, and gave no better reason for the change than that somebody said this was its "destiny," or somebody had had a "dream," or seen a vision, or met a black cat in the highway, the whole civilized world would be plunged in inextricable moral confusion. There is no duty which a nation or man owes to its or his fellows more sacred than the duty of letting them know what it or he will do next. In fact, this knowledge is what is called "character." It is the only proper basis we have for our dealings with our fellows. A man whose course in any matter of social intercourse nobody can predict is said to be a man without character. The same thing may be said of a nation. A nation which can make an alliance, or a claim, and abandon it in a month or two without giving reasons one way or the other, and the grounds of whose policy on any grave question can be ascertained, not from the speeches of statesmen or the public papers of its responsible representatives, but only from the hazy essays of "scientists" or inflated "patriots," signifies very distinctly an unwillingness to continue in the family of nations, or acknowledge subjection to any law but its own power.

The delusion under which the American people are in danger of getting at this crisis, through listening to the jargon of "scientists" and "sociologists," is the notion that a people can "expand" through wealth and power when wealth and power are not backed up by institutions. Nothing can be sillier than to suppose that we are the only people who have felt the desire to "expand" or who have "expanded." We have had half-a-dozen expanding nations, from Egypt down—Greece, Rome, Charles Fifth's empire, Napoleon's empire, and Great Britain. They all expanded or desired to expand. "They wanted the earth," as Mr. Powers says, and some of them got hold of a large patch of it. They have all except Great Britain disappeared, not because the desire for wider dominion died out, but because the desire ceased to be supported by sound administration and healthy moral training. Rome had a far wider dominion than we can aspire to, and was a successful conquering Power for three times as long as we have existed. Spain had the greatest land and sea power in the world for three centuries. Napoleon far excelled any of our legislators, present or probable, in knowing how to cast down the proud or rule the vanquished, but he found at the end

that a stable empire must rest on other foundations than large revenues or big armies or great navies.

There is nothing more certain, if human history teaches us anything, than that the affairs of a nation, to be managed successfully, must, like those of an individual, be managed by its leading minds; that as soon as its leading minds, the minds of those who know and remember, cease to manage them, confusion and decadence set in, no matter what its material resources. This is the most we know about "Manifest Destiny." What Cato said in the Senate two thousand years ago is as true to-day as it was then, that by *vigilando, agendo, bene consulendo*, national affairs prosper, and not otherwise—not by destroying fleets or storming redoubts.

Mr. Powers maintains, again, as a "scientist," that the "ideal of national isolation is due to 'laws' as fundamental as the constitution of protoplasm." "We deprecate," says he, "the petty politics, the short-sighted sentiment, and the unbridled passions which carried us with indecorous haste into a war whose cost we had not counted and whose results we could not foresee. But whence have come this pettiness and indecorum, these bickerings and feuds, this lawlessness and irresponsibility which are the repellent characteristics of American political and private life? From this same isolation and immunity from danger and responsibility." This is a characteristically vague thought, but, as well as we can make out, what it suggests is, that we need more people to rule in order to purify our politics and get rid of "the bickerings and feuds and the lawlessness and irresponsibility." We advise all persons who labor under this mischievous delusion to study John Wanamaker's speeches made in Pennsylvania this year, and then to apply themselves vigorously to investigate the causes of the appearance of the boss in our States and larger cities. Having studied them, they will be able to tell the world whether it is Manifest Destiny which makes us obey the Boss implicitly in spite of his notorious rascality, as well as to long for more people for him to rule over.

WHAT TO DO WITH THE PHILIPPINES.

A correspondent makes the perfectly reasonable inquiry what we should ourselves do with "the Philippines, the Carolines, Porto Rico, and all the rest," if we had our way, if, as appears plainly enough, we do not wish Uncle Sam to keep them. This inquiry we feel we ought to answer, and we certainly ought to be able to answer it.

For driving the Spaniards out of Cuba there were many excuses of various degrees of value. The gross spectacle of bad and cruel government which the island had afforded for many years, the nearness to our shores, the disturbance to our peace of its frequent rebellions, were all things which might have been fairly treated as reasons for interfering, according to the practice and precedents of international law, whenever the people of the United States deliberately determined to do the Cubans a good turn, no matter at what cost to themselves. The chief argument against interference which we always used was the effect on ourselves. When Congress solemnly announced that the war was simply a war of liberation, there was no more to be said. The liberation has been accomplished. The destruction of the regular government of Cuba, and her close contiguity to us, make it impossible for us to cast her loose. We must take charge of her, and do the best we can with both her and Porto Rico. But we are bound by our own solemn pledges not to make a conquest in either case. That we need a "coaling-station" in one of these places has no more to do with the matter, after what we have ourselves said, than my want of a watch would have to do with my right to steal one.

Of course, any one who replies that we may do whatever we have the strength to do, has us on the flank. One does not argue with the master of twenty legions. It was not we who said originally that, to make this war result in conquest for our own benefit, would show that it was a war of "criminal aggression." It was President McKinley. It is to him that any one must apply who wants to know what we are going to do with Cuba. In Porto Rico there were no rebellions and no discontent to our knowledge. The only excuse we have heard of for taking the island is that we wanted it ourselves. This as an American excuse is certainly very novel, though as an excuse for conquering it is very old and familiar; but it is not an excuse one can argue about, as we have already said. This is one of the difficulties which the theological professor recommended his students "to look steadily in the face and pass by." When a man has stolen something, there is no use in getting advice as to what he had better do with his "boodle."

The Philippines seem to us to stand in a different category from Cuba or Porto Rico. We have never had anything to do with them. But few of our people had ever heard of them before this year. We were, when the war broke out, no more responsible for them than for any other part of the globe. They were not near us. They were as remote as they could be with the present configuration of the earth. They had in no way troubled our peace. They had never appealed to us for help against oppression. They were not of our faith, language, or religion. Our commerce with them was small. Other relations we had none. When the war broke out, no admiral or general was directed to carry on operations against them. Spain had a fleet in their vicinity, which Admiral Dewey was directed to destroy, not for the purpose of freeing the Philippines, but of compelling Spain to relinquish Cuba. Under the original McKinley programme, therefore, the thought which came to him after Spain had relinquished Cuba, or even after it was plain that her relinquishment was only a question of days, was clearly a "criminal" thought. His mind clearly worked in some such way as this, after Dewey's victory:

"It is true I gave out, before the war began, that it was to be a war of liberation, and to have in view solely 'the elevation of mankind.' But that was before I knew how easy victory over the Spaniards would be. I thought then the fight might be long and costly. It is turning out such an easy matter that I see clearly I asked too little. I see now I can get twice as much out of Spain as the liberation of Cuba, at little or no expense. So why should I not get it? Our own people are so proud of what Dewey has achieved that I am sure they will not object. England will not object either, as she is just now very anxious for our friendship, and we need not mind what the others say. Of course that talk of mine about 'criminal aggression' was a little thoughtless, and is now a little awkward when I come to explain matters to the church-members and the clergy, but my friend Hanna has suggested to me an excellent plan for shutting them up. What he recommends is that we should call Dewey's victory a *providential* extension of our original programme; that we should say it was made very clear, by the Philippines being near the scene of the victory, that God Almighty meant that we should occupy them, in order to convert these poor heathen and Catholics to good American Christianity, and destroy the power of their wicked and unscrupulous clergy, and spread good Republican civilization through the islands. This will be 'taffy' to the religious people especially, as they are just now intoxicated with victory, and will also please the speculators, who expect to make money in the Philippines, and the politicians, who expect to get salaries through annexation, as well as anything we could say. So it will not do, at all events, to withdraw as yet."

Now for what we think should have been done after the Dewey victory. We think that a thoroughly honest and consistent President would have ordered our Admiral to leave Manila, to give himself no more trouble about the Philippines after he had destroyed the fleet, but to come back to the West and go after Camara's fleet, to follow it steadily until he caught and destroyed it also, or shut it up in some impregnable port, and after he had caught Camara and destroyed him, we should, if he were not needed over here to assist in the reduction of

Cuba, have ordered Dewey to resume his station in the Pacific.

If, however, he had chosen, as good naval strategy, to continue the blockade of Manila, we should, the minute the Spaniards agreed to surrender Cuba as a condition of peace, have sent him word that the object of the war had been achieved, and that he was not to meddle with Spanish property or government in the East; that we must not allow the world to suppose that we had been guilty of lying or false pretences when we said the war was simply for the liberation of Cuba, and not for conquest. We could not, in fact, very well charge ourselves with the seizure of the Philippines on the ground that they were badly governed, without also, on the same ground, taking possession of Spain, which is also badly governed, and whose bad government is, in fact, the *causa causans* of the bad government of all her colonies. By conquering Spain we should probably do more for the "elevation of mankind" than in any other way within our reach. But is it our duty to conquer her for that reason?

As matters now stand, having possession of Manila, we should do what we could to make Spain give the Philippines a better government or hand them over to their lawful owners—the inhabitants. We have no more right to them, on our theories of government, than to Ireland. If they do not succeed in setting up what we consider a good government, it is none of our affair. Is there such a government in New York or Pennsylvania?

After all this has been said, Bishop Potter's "solemn question" remains. But this question is not, "What are we going to do with the Philippines?" but "What are the Philippines going to do with us?" That is, our politicians being what they are, and our public being what it is, what will be the effect on our government and public morals of the possession of a distant province, occupied by an alien race, when the Verres whom we send to rule it come home and practise their newly acquired arts on us? If people will only bear in mind for what purpose this government was established, they will save themselves a great deal of worry about our duty towards the Spanish colonies. It was "to establish justice [not Platt and Quay], insure domestic tranquillity [not to keep any particular party in power], provide for the common defence [of the United States], promote the general welfare [of the American people], and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity" [not the Tagals, Cubans, Porto Ricans, and *their* posterity]. There could not be a nobler undertaking. The qualifications of some of the expansionists for something larger would draw laughter from a horse, could the matter be properly laid before him.

THE TERRITORY OF HAWAII.

The return of our Commissioners from Hawaii has started a discussion respecting the form of government to be given to that interesting acquisition. Among the rumors that have gained credence since the Commissioners reached San Francisco is one to the effect that there will be a property qualification for the exercise of the suffrage, and that nobody will be allowed to vote who is not worth as much as $3,000. According to another report, the proposed restriction on the suffrage applies only to the local Senate or upper branch of the Legislature. The restriction, whatever it may be, is intended to keep the control of the government in the hands of the small number of persons who overthrew the old government. Logically this is the proper course to pursue. The Dole government is an oligarchy. It was set up by a revolution not unmixed with fraud, for the interference of our war-ship and our marines in the affairs of a country with which we were at peace was fraudulent and indefensible. True, that is all past and beyond recall, but as one fraud usually makes another necessary, a property qualification for voting, sufficiently high to exclude all except the perpetrators of the original one, follows naturally and almost inevitably. What effect this restriction of the suffrage may have upon ourselves—how it may react upon our own institutions and modes of thought—is a question that time only can determine.

Another question soon to confront us is whether Hawaii is to be a Territory of the American Union or not. If a Territory, then a time of statehood will surely come. Any Congress at any time can admit this Territory into the Union as a State, with two Senators, one or more Representatives, and at least three electors of President and Vice-President. Hardly anybody is prepared for this dénouement at present. Probably four-fifths of all the persons in or out of public life who favored annexation never contemplated any such thing as the State of Hawaii, since that implied Hawaii governing us, or more properly the mutual government of Hawaii and the United States. In the "rush of business" that we have done during the past six months, it has been pretty generally assumed that Hawaii would never be one of the United States, but would be a kind of attachment or dependency, like a colony of Great Britain. That depends! It depends not upon what the present Congress thinks, but upon what some future Congress may think—perhaps in the heat of an excited campaign, when votes are wanted to carry some election or some measure. A Territory of the Union, it may be safely assumed, will some day be a State of the Union, and when once admitted it can never be expelled. The State of Hawaii will then be the equal of New York in the Senate of the United States, as Nevada is now.

Turning from the political to the industrial and strategical aspects of Hawaii, we observe that Senator Cullom is reported as saying, in an interview at San Francisco, that those islands will undoubtedly become vastly profitable to this government in the matter of commerce with our western coast, and as a protection to it in case of military necessity. The Senator was not counted as one of the Hawaiians in the beginning, but he is resolved to find reasons for approving annexation. We had free trade with Hawaii before it was annexed. We cannot have freer trade now. People's appetites in Hawaii or on our Pacific Coast are not increased by annexation. Their need of clothing is no greater now than it was before, nor are any other needs augmented. The flag-raising in which the Senator participated makes no new commercial demand, except, perhaps, for the flag itself, but the demand for bunting will be easily satisfied. We are told that the sugar industry will be doubled by annexation, because the planters will no longer apprehend a repeal of the treaty of reciprocity. That may be true, but the fact will not be welcomed with acclamations by the beet-sugar producers of California, nor can it be regarded as a gain to our government to have double the present quantity of Hawaiian sugar put on the market without payment of duty. The commercial advantages of annexation would amount to little in any event because the population of the islands is small, and is not susceptible of much increase. In view of the fact that our trade with them has been unhampered by tariffs for twenty years, the amount of possible growth, except in an increase of sugar, will be imperceptible.

Senator Cullom's views as a strategist are taken at second hand. Before annexation was accomplished we heard much about the military and naval advantages to be derived from possession of the islands, but nobody gave us any particulars. Nobody attempted to show how they were to be utilized for the protection of San Francisco harbor, for example—"protection" is the word the Senator uses. The distance of the islands from our nearest coast is 2,000 miles. No kind of artillery has been devised that will carry projectiles that distance. It was of no use to point out, before annexation, that we already had the right to establish a naval station in Hawaii, to our own liking—that we had selected the only good place for one that the contour of the islands afforded, and had never made any use of it, but that the right to do so still remained. Now we have not only Pearl Harbor, but everything else that the islands can give for naval purposes, and our curiosity is excited to know what we shall do with

all these new facilities for protecting our Pacific Coast. How shall we make Pearl Harbor or Honolulu available for defending the harbor of San Francisco? That we can spend much money there is true, but how will the guns that we plant there or the ships that we keep there deter an enemy coming against us from anywhere? Of course, we shall need more ships to defend San Francisco and Honolulu than we should need for San Francisco alone. Suppose that we have ten fighting ships in the Pacific; will they be more effective for defending our coast if five of them are 2,000 miles distant? That seems to be the theory of those who propose to establish defences for San Francisco and Seattle in some port of Hawaii. This is as great a mystery as the suffrage question and the Territorial and State questions.

THE NEW YORK REPUBLICAN PLATFORM.

The platforms of both parties have of late years been so rapidly becoming stump speeches, instead of programmes of legislation, that it seldom pays to analyze them. They are generally, at least in this State, simply a deliverance by the boss for the time being of what he wishes the voters to hear about public affairs, by no means a declaration of his intentions. His intentions are revealed at his office or club later in the year to a few intimate associates. Consequently we do not look to the Republican platform adopted last week for an account of the legislation we are to have at Albany next winter. We read it mainly in order to ascertain what Platt is thinking just now about the voters of this State.

The first thing we learn in this field is that he thinks the war the subject of the greatest popular interest, and he accordingly begins by boasting of it. He declares "it was not undertaken for conquest, but for the sacred cause of humanity and for the just protection of American interests." A little farther on, however, as he warms up in his rhetoric, he forgets what he said about "conquest," and speaks of "the people of the islands we conquered," and, warming up still more, "commends the annexation of Hawaii in the interest of national security and national development." This means, and can only mean, that he has conquered also Hawaii, not "in the sacred cause of humanity," but in order to make money, and to prevent anybody's interfering with him while he is making it.

Treating of the Philippines, he says he has conquered them not "to partition them among the European Powers." But he does not explain why not. Which of the European Powers, we should like to know, carries on a worse, more corrupt and degraded government than his own in this State? Is not his government the one he would transfer to the Philippines the first minute he could? Does any of the European Powers carry on a worse government than his, and is not his effrontery in proposing it for any other State or country, before a large audience which knows all about him, something delightful?

His war plank is good summer reading, but we do not think it equals on the whole his currency plank. Says he, "The Republican party is fulfilling the pledges we made at St. Louis." The principal pledge it made at St. Louis was a pledge of a higher tariff. That pledge it redeemed, and it vigorously denounced the lower Democratic tariff, but its own tariff, when made, failed to bring in revenue enough. In fact, after the first half year there was a considerable deficit. Instead of frankly acknowledging this deficit, the party covered it up, denied its existence, and went to war to liberate Cuba. Nothing has been done, and very little has been said, by either President or Congress about the finances. No step was taken to remove the danger which was said to hang over them in 1896. In fact, there has appeared to be no subject of politics in which the Republican party has shown less interest during the last two years than the finances, and the subject is brought up in this State now, not to propose anything or promise anything, but simply to recommend the retention of Platt in the position of boss.

The convention was plainly held in Platt's interest. He made all the arrangements; he awarded the nominations exactly as he did in the municipal campaign last year. Mr. Roosevelt takes the place of Gen. Tracy, but that is the only difference. There is not the smallest sign anywhere in the platform that the agitation about boss government and boss corruption which we have been carrying on for a couple of years, has produced the least effect. In fact, judging from Mr. Roosevelt's acceptance of the Platt nomination, and from President Low's written commendation of it, it would seem as if we had lost ground, or, in other words, that the cause of reform in this city and State was in a less favorable position than it was a year ago.

One looks in vain, in the convention, too, for the new type of statesman which the expansionists and the Jingoes have been telling us would appear after the war, to manage our new affairs. We cannot perceive the slightest change, except a great increase in the evolution of platform gas. There are evidently a few more things to blather about, but not a sign of a new man or a new kind of man. Many thought, when Mr. Roosevelt was nominated, that he, coming back covered with the laurels of San Juan, would breathe a purer air into our politics; that for once Platt would have to cease his fooling, and let the honest man have a little turn at government. But nothing of the kind has happened. The scandals and discussions are of the old trivial or degrading or personal character. Charges abound, charges of falsehood, of "tax-dodging," of self-stultification of every description. Platt has brought up the old currency "gag," and thundered against the old enemies, with whom he is now, since the Democrats have made their nominations, probably entering into secret contracts. The only man who seems to us to loom up larger in consequence of the war is our friend Abe Gruber. He has certainly gained in port and importance. He seems to us to have grown in wisdom and thoughtfulness. His plea for Black was hard to answer, and it was not answered. The platform showed clearly that Black ought to have been renominated, and if Abe had not put in a word for him, the absurdity of repudiating him would have been complete.

DREYFUS AND THE TRIUMPH OF THE INTELLECTUALS.

NEWPORT, September 24, 1898.

"A people's great action ordinarily proceeds from the minority; a nation's greatest men are those it puts to death." These words of Ernest Renan's, referring to one of the greatest dramas in history, occasionally acquire, in the course of events, a striking timeliness. Never, in particular, have they appeared more true than in this French crisis now approaching its end, and which, amid much that is melancholy, will have brought some reassuring evidences; foremost among them that of the superiority once again of thought over brute force, of truth over falsehood, of mind over matter. If, in fact, out of the darkness, humbug, and fanaticism which have enveloped the Dreyfus affair, light has after all emerged, in spite of the savage forces conjured up against it, the honor is due to the intelligence, perspicacity, and courage of a few men; and these men who have triumphed over the ill will of the public authorities, the hostility of the military chiefs, the indifference of the crowd, the resistance of all but the whole of their fellow-citizens, are no other than the Intellectuals—that is to say, a small minority of professors of Latin, chemistry, and philosophy; a handful of writers, poets, journalists, and novelists. It is precisely, and without any sort of exaggeration, the triumph of these men which to-day is identified with the triumph of truth.

Notoriously the lightning stroke of the arrest and suicide of Col. Henry, revealing the fact that the Dreyfus *dossier* contained forgeries, was needed to make the blind open their eyes and the deaf hear. Hitherto the mass of the people had been quietly reposing in the affirmations of the army chiefs, and held with M. Cavaignac that the decisive proof against Dreyfus was the piece written in a jargon which was neither French, German, nor African, and in which a distinguished diplomat was assumed to have written to one of his colleagues, two years after the Dreyfus affair, for the sake of a mutual understanding as to the attitude to maintain toward their respective governments: "Si on vous demande dites

comme ça car il ne faut pas qu'on sache jamais personne ce qui est arrivé avec lui." Now it was over this document that the Intellectuals won their great victory. Everything in this uncouth paper—form and substance alike, the circumstances in which it was produced, and the rude semblance of authenticity—smacked of forgery. The officials and politicians let themselves be taken in by it, but the Intellectuals at once exposed and neutralized it. First among them was Col. Picquart, just thrown into prison, a fine type of officer, cultivated, possessed of a critical spirit as well as of good sense, who exclaimed at once, "It is a forgery." I recall him yet, in the course of the Zola trial, after Gen. de Pellieux had injected this sensational document into the debate, saying what he thought of it in his clear voice, with a tone of moderation and coolness which never deserted him, while the generals affected an air of indignation.

The day on which M. Cavaignac, who nevertheless prides himself on being an historian, read this grotesque document to the Chamber, and adorned his reading with proofs of its authenticity, none of the 581 Deputies (though there are some Intellectuals among them) dreamed of calling it in question. But the next day all the Chartists (instructors in the École des Chartes), all the savants, all the writers having the least penetration, began to analyze it and to show how unlikely it was not only that an attaché of an embassy should write in this fashion, but how impossible that he should have dreamed of writing on the subject two years after the occurrence, to a colleague whom he might see every day.

These demonstrations were made in succession by half-a-dozen Intellectuals. Immediately upon Cavaignac's discourse, M. Joseph Reinach, former Deputy, former secretary to Gambetta, and one of our most brilliant polemical writers, wrote in the *Siècle* that the document smelt of forgery. M. Albert Réville, a professor in the Collège de France, declared that the paper "was stamped with its apocryphal character." M. Trarieux, former Minister of Justice, published a letter to M. Cavaignac in which he summed up all the arguments in favor of Dreyfus's innocence, and affirmed that this letter, "in its general aspect, as well as by its *forme logomachique*," could not have had for its author the officer from whom the minister pretended that it emanated. Then M. Jaurès, reviewing, with the critical sense of an historian, the close-knit logic of a philosopher, and the passion of a tribune of the people, the whole Dreyfus affair, arrived at the same conclusion, and wrote, some days before the discovery of the forgery, that "it betrayed on its face a forger of the fourth order."

These demonstrations, however, could not convince the non-Intellectuals. They said, with M. Cavaignac, that the assertions of people who qualified as spurious a document *which they had not seen*, deserved no credence. M. Arthur Giry, a professor in the École des Chartes, and learned author of a treatise on diplomacy, then discussed, in an article in the *Siècle*, the question "whether one could treat as spurious a document he had not seen." And in the same number of the journal which announced the confession of the forger Henry, he related the story of a famous mystification in France, to which the celebrated scholar Michel Chasles fell a victim twenty-nine years ago, buying from a forger pretended letters of Pascal, Newton, Galileo, Louis XIV. Full of confidence, he took these ridiculous documents to the Institut, which was also deceived by them, while on all sides savants *who had not seen the originals*, but had read the contents of them, indignantly protested against the grossness of the deception. It needed an offer of letters from Jesus Christ and Mary Magdalen to induce the aged scholar to turn them over, not to the Institut but to the police, who settled the matter on February 24, 1870. After relating this story, M. Giry added these lines, which appeared on the very morning of the official intelligence of Henry's forgery: "It cannot be doubted that a similar discomfiture awaits the spurious documents of the Minister of War."

This was not the only triumph of the Intellectuals. Another lay in the defeat of the insulting Brunetière, who, after his dishonoring article against them in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, dared to renew his abusive attacks in a newspaper, and was forced to succumb as the result of a controversy about which it is worth while to say a few words.

The *Siècle*, which, since the public authorities in France betrayed their duty, has become the organ of the Intellectuals, published, about the beginning of August, a brilliant and cutting article in which M. Brunetière was taken to task. The author signed it with a pseudonym; but the talent it evinced and its fine style were quickly recognized by connoisseurs as pointing to a distinguished man of letters, who is also a high functionary in the University. In a few words he first severely laid bare Brunetière's impudent sophisms, and then inquired how this writer could ever again praise Voltaire, the defender of Calas and redresser of a judicial error. M. Brunetière is fond of polemics. He replied, and for a fortnight the *Siècle* printed every other day a letter from him, followed by a rejoinder from M. Yves Guyot. Never was a controversy more vigorous on both sides or fuller of animation and ideas. M. Brunetière successively treated Voltaire as a "blackguard," accused him of ambitious motives in interesting himself on behalf of Calas, affirmed that the Intellectuals had taken up Dreyfus from "exasperated vanity," and that the proofs of his innocence were "trash" *(misérables)*. And thus he revealed at once his want of heart, his meanness of feeling, and ignorance of the real questions at issue in the Dreyfus case, not to speak of his narrowness and obstinacy of spirit, supported by contemptible sophisms. M. Yves Guyot, who is an economist, showed himself in this encounter a very cultivated writer. He defended Voltaire, and especially pointed out to M. Brunetière, in masterly articles, that blind submission to external authority, belief without examination in fictions like "la chose jugée," were but another form of that contracted Catholicism to which M. Brunetière has gone over, from expediency, not from faith.

Still others joined in the polemic—M. Hyacinthe Loyson, the celebrated Gallican priest; a professor of philosophy, who recalled the fact that M. Brunetière, two years ago, manifested his scientific good faith by refusing to correct, in a learned work, a calumny against Calvin of whose existence he was aware. Finally, M. Albert Réville, examining seriatim the capital points in Dreyfus's case—the question of the bordereau, the formal charges, the secret documents—showed with resistless logic how audacious it was for this man to characterize as "trashy" the arguments on which the best minds in France harmoniously based their conviction.

M. Brunetière ended by weakening; and the very day on which Henry's confession became known, M. Brunetière likewise made very grave concessions, so that M. Yves Guyot was moved to say: "M. Brunetière felt that confessions were in the air, and has accordingly made his own." He, in fact, admitted the rôle played by anti-Semitism in the Dreyfus affair, the feebleness of M. Cavaignac's arguments resting on "subsequent proofs"; he castigated Col. Henry's action, and declared that "there is no sophism more dangerous" than that which says that the end justifies the means, adding this energetic phrase, which is the condemnation of all those whom he had hitherto defended: "The road to justice is not through injustice, nor to truth through violence." It would be hard to say better, but M. Brunetière was slow to say it. If, instead of supporting the retrograde notion of the French clericals in their blind faith in reasons of state and the "chose jugée," he had, like Duclaux, Gabriel Monod, Pressensé, Stapfer, Buisson, Gaston Paris, and the whole cohort of University men, listened to the voice of his conscience and his heart, he would have spared himself a dishonor which will cling to him for life. *They* have shown what can be achieved by thoughtful and intelligent men who will not leave the field clear to charlatans and demagogues; have shown once again, too, how true still is Lincoln's word—*when Intellectuals intervene:* "You cannot fool all the people all the time."

OTHON GUERLAC,
Editor of the Paris *Siècle*.

THE NEW CABINET IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, September 7, 1898.

Government by party in Japan seems to commend itself to popular favor hardly more than that which it superseded. Its first appearance was hailed with much applause, but its efficiency in the way of actual administration so far has not been great enough to provoke the slightest enthusiasm. The important newspapers of the Empire, with the exception of a few partisan sheets, preserve a critical or dissatisfied attitude towards the new Cabinet, and the opposition organs are loud in their attacks on its shortcomings. Even the warmest friends of the new régime cannot claim that so far it has in any way justified the hopes it raised in the beginning of its existence.

The causes of this comparative lack of success lie pretty plainly on the surface. In the first place, the two parties that joined their forces some two or three months ago still retain traces of antagonism at various points. In the late election the tension at times came near the breaking-point. Just previous to the election a corrupt-practices ordinance of the most severe description was promulgated by the Cabinet. The most innocent offering of tea and cakes by a candidate to a voter was counted a misdemeanor. In spite of these rigid rules, however, it was said by the old Jiyuto organs that the administrators of the election ordinance, who were, for the most part, of the old Shimpoto party, favored their own candidates. The charge was vigorously pressed for a time, but is hardly sustained by the

returns of the election. While the Shimpoto wing of the Constitutionalists show a gain over the former election, the increase is hardly important enough to prove that any interference took place. The former Progressionists secured 110 seats, while the Liberals obtained only 93 or 94. These returns are not very widely different from those of former years. One thing, however, is clear, that if the two wings of the Constitutionalists act together, as they have proposed to do, they will have an overwhelming majority in the next session of Parliament. Indeed, the opposition party can scarcely be said to exist, as it scarcely controls 50 votes out of a possible 300.

A curious incident of the election has served to increase the ill feeling between the two members of the leading party. The Vice-Minister of Justice, a member of the former Shimpoto, was a candidate for election in one of the Tokyo districts. He expected to be returned without opposition, but at the last moment the former Liberals of this district put up a candidate of their own and began to organize a vigorous campaign. As an electioneering measure they met at a tea-and-talk club—a form of reunion that happens to be remarkably popular at the present moment in political circles. The Vice-Minister's supporters now laid a charge against the Liberal candidate for treating his constituents, but the Chief of Police, before whom the charge was lodged, declined to move in the matter, on the ground of insufficient evidence. When this was known, the Minister of Justice, also of the Progressionist wing, appealed to the Public Procurator, by whose orders several houses were searched, to the great annoyance of the Liberal voters, especially as it was shown that at the tea-and-talk reunions each voter had settled his own score. At least a dozen arrests, it seems, were made in connection with this miserable affair. Various complications, too trivial to explain, served to add to the friction between the lately formed allies, and finally one voter brought suit against the Vice-Minister, who promptly responded by bringing a counter suit. The head of the Home Department, Count Itagaki, an old Liberal leader, and one of the chiefs of the new Cabinet, after investigation of the affair, made a report to the Premier in which the Vice-Minister was severely scored. Finally, a section of the Kenseito, composed largely of old Liberals in Tokyo, called upon the Vice-Minister to resign his post—a very bitter piece of advice to that official, which he at first indignantly resented. It became evident, however, that these differences would lead to a complete rupture between the Liberal and Progressionist elements of the Cabinet unless the Vice-Minister resigned, and this step he finally consented to take for the sake of party unity, though he refused to the end to acknowledge the justice of the charges laid against him.

This incident, though insignificant in itself, has brought to light the weakness of the present Cabinet—the lack of hearty coöperation between the two wings of the Constitutionalists. Another evil, however, scarcely less disturbing to the strength of the Government, is the curious relation that exists between the Cabinet and the party committee. The former Satcho cabinets had their freedom of action bounded merely by an uncertain and vague public opinion on the one hand, and by the will of the outside Satcho leaders on the other. But within these broad limits they moved with complete independence. Under the present régime, however, the Cabinet, it seems, is to be held strictly accountable to the party leaders out of office. The power behind the throne is now the standing committee of the political party. This committee passes judgment upon the acts of the Cabinet, and at times comes perilously near playing the part of a Jacobin club. Some weeks ago an extraordinary committee of the Kenseito visited the Premier and formulated a programme for the guidance of the Government. It was understood that the acceptance of this programme by the Cabinet was necessary if it wished to have the continued support of the party in the next session of Parliament. This was going a step further in the direction of party government than public opinion demanded. The Tokyo press began to question the propriety of imposing conditions upon a cabinet that had only just come into power and had not had time to familiarize itself with the details of administration. The upshot of the matter was that the members of the committee tried to explain away their premature interference. They declared that what they had submitted to the Cabinet was not a command, but rather a suggestion or memorial. This jealous attitude of the party committee toward the Cabinet is likely to hamper its working powers, and in this way defeat one of the objects for which party government was established.

On the whole, the Cabinet at present is by no means firm in its seat or secure of public opinion. The various elements of discord that exist within the Cabinet itself and between the Cabinet and the newly fledged party that rode it into power, may at any moment overthrow it. Each day shows some fresh difference of opinion between the two opposing halves. Now it is a question of an increase of taxes, and again it is a question of higher salaries or of administrative reform. Some newspapers profess to see advantages in these conflicts. They hold that these occurrences will tend to rouse the Cabinet to greater activity and therefore to greater union. But for the most part the press is inclined to take a negative view of the situation. Two or three of the most powerful journals urge a complete separation between the Liberals and Progressionists. The *Jiji Shimpo* declares that the parties differ from each other in all essential points, and that therefore they should no longer join forces. Another paper likens the arrangement to an "ill-matched husband and wife, who quarrel perpetually, but cannot agree to separate." The *Kokumin Shimbun* compares the Cabinet to a "half-killed snake, which can neither advance, retreat, nor remain quiet."

All these difficulties, however, may be merely inevitable incidents of the novelty of the political situation. So great a change as has been accomplished in the past few months is bound to suffer reactions. Hopeful signs are not altogether lacking that the Cabinet may weather the storm. There can be no doubt that the individual ministers are showing great energy in their respective departments. Various measures already carried into effect have had an excellent influence on the public, and others now in process of investigation will, if accomplished, do much more to strengthen the hands of the Cabinet. Apparently there is no intention of abandoning the reforms promised in the party manifesto. The Prime Minister has stated in semi-official terms, that, as soon as the official inquiries now going on are completed, definite reforms will be introduced.

One other interesting feature of the present administration has been the extraordinary pressure for office. During the first month of its existence the present Cabinet turned out a large number of officials to make place for political partisans. Various newspapers urged, if not the spoils system, at least a clean sweep of all the present official incumbents with the exception of technical experts. The plea of these papers was that the Government must rid itself of every vestige of clanism. But the common sense of the public on the whole was definitely opposed to any revolutionary step of this kind; and, better still, the Cabinet leaders soon found that their own efficiency depended to a great extent upon the knowledge and experience of the officials in charge. The pressure from the local party workers for a place in the Government service was enormous. It is said that in some cases the official residences of the ministers were besieged night and day by a small army of these needy henchmen. Under these circumstances, the time of the ministers was so absorbed that they could give no attention to the actual work of administration. But this furor for office has, temporarily at least, abated as a result of the storm of criticism which the press drew upon the Cabinet and the office-seekers. However desirous the Japanese may be of purging the administration of clanism, they see pretty clearly that the successors to the present office-holders must have better qualifications than party zeal. The end of this slight dip into the spoils system will undoubtedly be a liberal system of examinations in which graduates of Government schools will not, as heretofore, take precedence over those of private schools of equal standing. Fortunately for Japan, the spoils system in politics has no deep hold upon the country, nor has it the traditions that give it a certain dignity and authority as in the United States.

G. D.

THE REMBRANDT EXHIBITION.

AMSTERDAM, September 16, 1898.

It is now more than two hundred years since Rembrandt died in Amsterdam, poor, neglected, forgotten. To-day, when that town, with the rest of Holland, is celebrating a great national festival, it can devise no worthier way of honoring the occasion than by holding an exhibition of his collected works. So time brings its revenge with it, and the painter who was allowed by his contemporaries to fall into disrepute at the very period when his powers were most perfect, is exalted by posterity and becomes the nation's hero. And it seems the more remarkable since the event celebrated is the coronation of a Queen who hitherto has shown, or rather has been permitted to show, but little practical interest in art. Indeed, the House of Orange has never been very conspicuous as a patron of painting, if we can judge by an historical exhibition, also open at the moment in Amsterdam, in which the portraits of innumerable princes and princesses are, with a few rare exceptions, the work of second-rate artists, until we come down to the Queen herself, who is content to be represented by an endless series of photographs—but the photograph is really the delight of modern royalty every-

where. It is the prosperous, comfortable burgher who has always figured and still figures as the real patron of art in Holland.

The Rembrandts are shown in the Stedelijk Museum, the large new building just a little way beyond the Rijks Museum. The paintings and drawings fill four large and three small galleries, while another room is set apart for the "Night Watch." Let me say at once, so as to be done with fault-finding, that in one's first impression is something of disappointment. When so much is exhibited, regret that there should be so little—paradoxical as this sounds—is all the keener. I had hoped, as I wrote some few weeks since, that the "Lesson in Anatomy" and the other famous Rembrandts would be brought from The Hague, but even for the moment the gallery of the capital has not been deprived of its chief attractions. Naturally, too, the treasures of the Hermitage, the Louvre, the National Gallery in London, remain where they are, so that the temporary collection does not render to Rembrandt at Amsterdam the service the permanent collection renders to Velasquez at Madrid—the master is not to be studied in a series of his masterpieces. Then, too, a few of the contributors, notably the Queen of England, have not let their generosity carry them quite far enough; only two pictures have been sent from the English royal collections, and these are by no means the finest they can boast. Here and there one comes upon a canvas whose genuineness seems at least doubtful, here and there upon another which, if genuine beyond dispute, is too obviously one of Rembrandt's failures, to have been included. The same fault is to be found with the drawings; many need not have been shown; the others are of such interest and importance that they actually help to emphasize the incompleteness of the collection. I can fancy Mr. Colvin in the Print Room at the British Museum, with the aid of one or two of the same collectors, making a far more notable exhibition.

There are no etchings hung; the reason given to me by one of the directors being that in the near Rijks Museum the finest collection in the world is to be seen. According to this argument the "Syndics" and the "Night-Watch" might as well have been left in their usual places on the walls of the same gallery. Nor is the hanging beyond criticism; the pictures are not overcrowded (all, except the very small ones, being on the line), but no chronological or any other sort of order is followed, and therefore to the student of Rembrandt a great opportunity has been lost for ever. Besides, in two of the rooms the walls are covered with hangings of a golden yellow, and when I add that one of these rooms is devoted to the "Night Watch," the seriousness of the blunder will be realized. The directors may have wanted to show how much Rembrandt could stand, but they have succeeded only in proving that even he can be killed by his background.

The last and most unpardonable mistake is the catalogue. It could and it should have been made into an authority for all time. Nor is this asking too much of the compiler. Had he begun the task in entire ignorance of his subject, he had only to consult M. Émile Michel to find out at least where all the necessary information was to be obtained. The day for the slipshod or the incomplete catalogue has passed, a fact that you find has dawned upon even a conservative body like the Royal Academy, which last winter surprised the world by producing a model catalogue for the Millais show. But at Amsterdam a wonderful chance has been lost. Simply the barest facts, not always authenticated, have been given; the drawings have not been entered at all. There is no excuse: to plead haste or lack of time on so memorable an occasion would be to plead guilty.

Now that I have said what there is not in the Rembrandt show, let me say what there is. To begin with, there are one hundred and twenty-three paintings, and, though all are not masterpieces, it would be impossible to get so many Rembrandts together and not make a marvellous exhibition. They come from places as remote as Cracow, Sinaia, and Budapest, as near as Paris, London, and Berlin. Not only the Queen of England, but the German Emperor, the King of Rumania, the King of Saxony, the Prince of Liechtenstein, are among the royal contributors. Besides the museums of Holland —of Amsterdam, The Hague, Haarlem, Rotterdam—those of Berlin and Dresden and Weimar and Leipzig and Glasgow and Copenhagen, to mention a few, are well represented. Private owners of famous pictures, like the Duke of Westminster, Lord Iveagh, Earl Spencer, the Duke of Devonshire, M. Kann, Dr. Bredius, M. Bonnat, and a host of others have not hesitated, for the benefit and pleasure of the public, to let their famous Rembrandts run the risks of the long journey by sea and rail. When you consider what these risks are, it is no wonder collectors in New York and Chicago have been less public-spirited. Mr. Heseltine and M. Bonnat have loaned their well-known (known by reputation, that is) and unrivalled collections of drawings. Surely I have said enough to explain that, despite that first disappointment, the interest of the exhibition is fairly overwhelming.

While I am cataloguing its special virtues I should not forget to mention that the directors have been at some pains to hang the "Night Watch" and the "Syndics," for the first time in many years, if ever before, in a good strong side light. The experiment was well worth making, though, for my part, I am not sure the "Night Watch" looks so well as in the large gallery of the Rijks Museum; you can see the detail as you could not see it there—the dog in the foreground; that strange enigmatical figure of a girl in shining raiment who has puzzled generations of critics; Rembrandt himself, where he stands, in the remote shadows; the architecture of the background. But it seems to me that the mystery, the rich severity of the composition lessens in proportion as the detail is revealed—or is it that dreadful yellow wall, where, on my last visit, the sunlight lay in two shining bars that eclipsed even Banning Cocq's lieutenant in his golden tunic and the girl beyond? Fortunately, the wall in the room of the "Syndics" is a deep neutral red, that cannot distract the eye from the picture, which, however, is hung too low, giving to the perspective, especially of the table, a violence that disappears when one looks up to it slightly, as Rembrandt no doubt intended one always should.

That the largest collection of Rembrandts ever gathered together should increase one's respect for the powers of the painter, should confirm one's faith in his genius, is only what was to be expected. At the Louvre, at the London National Gallery, where but a few of his pictures are collected, he stands out a master among masters. A series of one hundred and twenty-three, supplemented by a large number of his drawings, can but give one a larger, a juster idea of the scope of his powers and the variety of his genius. Because there are certain qualities one always seeks in Rembrandt, qualities that have come to be associated with his name, his originality, above that of all other men, is too often thought to depend upon the fact that he was always entirely and solely himself in his work, that he owed nothing to his fellow-painters. But the original man is he who is ever ready, if not eager, to borrow what is good in the work of others and to adapt it to his own needs. Titian could afford to study Giorgione; Velasquez was not above learning all that he could learn from Titian. And if you imagine that Rembrandt was the one great exception to the rule, you have only to go to Amsterdam to be undeceived, and to find out, further, how well he knew what was being done or what had been done by artists of his own and other lands. There is a small portrait of one of the princes of Orange as a boy, painted about 1658 or 1660, it is supposed—that is, when he was doing his finest, his most characteristic work—and now belonging to Earl Spencer, that, if you chanced upon it elsewhere, you would be quite ready to attribute to Velasquez, so like the great Spaniard's methods is his treatment of the flesh in the fair young face, and still more so of the costume. There is another picture, belonging to the same period, and from the same collection, of a girl holding flowers in her hand, beneath which you would not be surprised to see the name of Titian. And there are portraits that might be claimed for Franz Hals without a protest from you. So, too, among the drawings, you find heads copied from Persian originals, designs borrowed bodily from Italian models, and altogether eloquent proofs that Rembrandt was sufficiently great not to have to shut himself up in precious solitude and never look beyond his own canvas or paper, in order to be and remain himself in his work. Neither did he have to force variety by seeking far and wide for subjects, by depending upon elaboration and eccentricity of composition. His variety was in his methods—in his way of seeing and putting down what he saw.

There are but two or three landscapes in the exhibition; save for the "Syndics," the "Night Watch," and a few Biblical and classical subjects, almost all the pictures are portraits. Yet never once do you find him repeating himself, and I am not sure that this is not the most extraordinary feature of the collection. It is more extraordinary still when you note how many of the portraits are of the little family group he never wearied of painting. Here is his father (it is useless now to stop to ask whether it really is his father), the old man with the sparse gray beard and keen eyes, thin, wiry, alert; here his mother, benevolent, kindly, wrinkled; here Saskia, fair, fresh, golden-haired; here Titus, that wonderfully beautiful boy as he appears in the portrait belonging to Captain Holford; here, above all, is Rembrandt himself. I wish I had space to describe these pictures in detail, for most of them belong to private collections, and consequently are not so familiar as the portraits of the same group in the national galleries. The expression of cha-

racter, so subtly varying in each, the imagination displayed in the use of costume which with Rembrandt is never mere studio property, the new effects obtained from the same material—all these things are almost unbelievable. In not one case are they so marked as in his portraits of himself. In this series you can follow him, from the youth with cheeks as soft as a woman's, and but a light down upon his upper lip, with mouth slightly open, posing for himself; to the successful young painter who has filled his studio with gorgeous costumes and jewels, and arrays himself in them that he may the better study their beauty and possibilities; to the large, portly, middle-aged man (and perhaps in this little panel, the property of Herr von Mendelssohn of Berlin, the painting of the large, fat, flabby cheeks is as astounding in its way as Velasquez's rendering of the middle-aged Philip); to the old man, sorrow-laden, full of cares. There is hardly a great gallery that has not one example at least of Rembrandt's presentments of himself in his old age; but I know of few that can compare to the portrait owned by Lord Iveagh and lent to the exhibition. About 1656 is the date given in the catalogue; M. Michel says from 1662 to 1664. At any rate, it belongs to much the same period as the "Syndics" (1661), the period when Rembrandt produced his most masterly work. With all the insolence of his indifference to an ignorant public, he seems to have put into it every beauty of which his brush alone knew the secret; beauty of color in the rich sombre red doublet and sable-trimmed cloak; beauty of light and atmosphere in the mellow golden glow in which the figure is enveloped; beauty of old age in the dignity of the wrinkled face and the stateliness of the pose. I do not want to read unnecessary meanings into a picture which needs no other meaning than beauty; but since much is known of the events and accidents of Rembrandt's life, one cannot help remembering the misfortunes that filled the very years during which he was producing masterpieces like this, and in his noble conception of himself in the midst of troubles that would have killed a man less strong, you cannot but be conscious of that "unconquerable soul" which Mr. Henley sings. Certainly, "under the bludgeonings of chance," no man could say with as much truth as Rembrandt that his head was bloody, but unbowed.

I have attempted, knowing the limits of an article, only to suggest the character of the exhibition and the impression it makes. To speak of each picture separately would be out of the question unless a book were at one's disposal. Besides, many have been described too often or too recently. Most of the English pictures, for instance, have been seen at the Royal Academy's old masters' exhibitions, and I myself have had occasion to write about them in the *Nation*. But I should have liked to dwell at greater length on the beautiful, picturesque little study for the etching of the Burghermeister Six, the property of M. Léon Bonnat; on the suggestion for an angel in golden-green drapery against a golden-green background, as decorative as anything in the Primitives that Burne-Jones worshipped; and on a dozen other canvases or panels as unfamiliar and amazing which I have now seen for the first time. As for the drawings, they should have an article to themselves. But I hope I have said enough to make it clear that the exhibition is one which no one who has the chance to see it can afford to miss. N. N.

Correspondence.

BRITISH SYMPATHY WITH THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Great oracles of English and American thought vex themselves about the alleged sympathy of the English people with the South during the American civil war—or their alleged want of sympathy with the Northern States—denying its existence, explaining it, or limiting it to a small section of the population. I refer especially to the articles of Dr. Bryce and Dr. Hosmer in the July number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. But the causes of the sentiment complained of, so far as it really existed, seem to a contemporary of the event to lie on the surface and to be overlooked in the search for deeper and hidden ones. They were:

(1.) The stopping by an American warship of the British passenger and mail steamer, the *Trent*, on the high seas, while plying between two British ports, and forcibly taking from her the two Southern Commissioners, Slidell and Mason; and the vote of thanks of the American Congress to Commander Wilkes for this international outrage.

(2.) The threat of an attack upon England as soon as the domestic trouble should be ended, in retaliation for her demand for the restoration of the captives to the protection of the British flag, uttered in an inflammatory speech by one of the most accredited and able organs of Northern public opinion, Senator Sumner, and reëchoed with intensified violence in almost the entire Northern press.

(3.) The early policy of Secretary Seward to seek to unite the North and South by a foreign war, Great Britain evidently presenting the most obvious and eligible point of attack—a policy thwarted perhaps as much by the humane instincts and lofty principles of President Lincoln as by the skilfulness of English diplomacy.

(4.) That remarkable open letter of President Lincoln to Horace Greeley, dated August 22, 1862, which, wise and sound as in the light of events we now see it to have been, shocked and grieved even Greeley and other ardent abolitionists in the North. In this he said:

"My paramount object in this struggle is to save the Union, and is not either to save or to destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing any slaves, I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing all the slaves, I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing some and leaving others alone, I would also do that. What I do about slavery and the colored race I do because it helps to save the Union; and what I forbear, I forbear because I do not believe it would help to save the Union."

This, to the English mind, eliminated the subject of slavery from the issue, and led to the opinion, expressed by Lord Brougham, that the North was fighting for empire and the South for independence; and the people of both North and South being alike of kin, it seemed to the average Briton that there was no special call for sympathy on behalf of either of the combatants. To many the legal right of secession seemed incontrovertible, on the same grounds that justified the thirteen colonies, the people being their own judges as to their grievances; the notion that the Union, being the voluntary act of independent States, might be voluntarily dissolved by either, seemed plausible; and the expression, "Erring sisters, depart in peace," voiced the feeling of some prominent Northern as well as many English people. A. W. Savary.

Annapolis Royal, Nova Scotia,
September 27, 1898.

LOG-ROLLING—SILK-STOCKING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms' he gives the word "log-rolling," but is unable to find an earlier use of it than 1832. The same work does not even contain the word "silk-stocking." The following extracts from letters of Jefferson, therefore, possess some philological value.

Respectfully yours,
Paul Leicester Ford.

Brooklyn, September 29, 1898.

JEFFERSON TO GALLATIN, JUNE 16, 1817.

"Without this caution, intrigue, negotiation, and the barter of votes might become as habitual in Congress, as they are in those legislatures which have the appointment of officers, and which, with us, is called 'logging,' the term of the farmers for their exchanges of aid in rolling together the logs of their newly-cleared grounds."

JEFFERSON TO GERRY, JUNE 11, 1812.

"But I trust that such perverseness will not be that of the honest and well-meaning mass of the federalists of Massachusetts; and that when the questions of separation and rebellion shall be nakedly proposed to them, the Gores and Pickerings will find their levees crowded with silk stocking gentry, but no yeomanry; an army of officers without soldiers."

Notes.

The American publishers of the Life of the Rev. Dr. Newman Hall will be T. Y. Crowell & Co.

The Baker & Taylor Co. announce 'In Nature's Image: Chapters on Pictorial Photography,' by W. I. Lincoln Adams, profusely illustrated; 'The Gentle Art of Pleasing,' by Elizabeth Glover; and the 'Life of George Müller,' by the Rev. Arthur T. Pierson, D.D.

'Zoroaster,' by Prof. A. V. Williams Jackson; 'Instinct and Reason,' by Henry Rutgers Marshall; and 'A Popular History of France,' to the Death of Louis XV., by the Hon. Thomas E. Watson, are in the press of Macmillan.

The Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready 'Jerusalem the Holy,' by the Hon. Edwin S. Wallace, United States Consul at Palestine during the past five years. It will be illustrated.

The translation of Edmond Rostand's 'Cyrano de Bergerac' about to be issued by R. H. Russell is the joint work of the dramatist's sister-in-law, Gladys Thomas, and Mary F. Guillemard.

Early next year John Wiley & Sons will publish 'The Sanitary Microscopy of Drinking Water,' by George C. Whipple.

George Routledge & Sons announce 'Twentieth Century Magic, and the Construction of Modern Magical Apparatus,' by N. Monroe Hopkins.

In 'The Borderland of Society,' by Charles

Belmont Davis, another son of Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis makes his début as a writer. The book will be published by Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, who also announce 'Etiquette for Americans,' by "A Woman of Fashion," and the late Capt. Sir Richard Burton's 'The Jew, the Gypsy, and El Islam.'

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in hand 'Personal Sketches of Recent Authors,' British and American, with Renan and Tolstoy also, by Mrs. Hattie Tyng Griswold.

Mr. Goldwin Smith has reissued his 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence' (Macmillan) with an additional chapter, "One Word More." In this he partly replies in detail to certain of his critics, and generally restates and reinforces his previous position touching the authority of the Bible, the belief in God, the ground of duty. Thus, recurring to an observation made in his opening article, in review of Drummond, Kidd, and Balfour, and contrasting man with the illimitable universe, he says: "The thought may even present itself that the comic element in us, with the significance of which philosophers in general have failed to deal (though Swift in his *Day of Judgment* has not failed), may point to truth; and that what seems to us of overwhelming importance may, in reality, be less serious than it seems." His conclusion is: "Of this our nature assures us, if it can assure us of anything, that we are faithful servants of God, if there is a god, and must be safe so long as we steadfastly adhere to the truth."

The well-known Reeve-Bowen translation of Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America,' formerly bearing the imprint of Little, Brown & Co., has just been launched anew, still in two volumes, with portrait and index, by the Century Co. To it is prefixed an introduction, by President Gilman of Johns Hopkins, contributing some biographical details concerning the author, a survey of the state of this country and of Europe at the period of Tocqueville and Beaumont's visit to these shores in 1831, and a summary of the contents and purpose of the work, with comment appropriate to the subsequent fortunes of the American democracy.

Mr. Clifton Johnson's varied use of the camera for historical purposes has been well applied in connection with Dickens's 'Child's History of England,' which has just been very handsomely brought out by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Nothing but good can be said of the nearly fifty views of places selected, or of the photographer's skill. St. Michel's Mount, Normandy; an old street and Joan of Arc's statue in Rouen; the battlefield of Crécy, mingle with scenes on the other side of the Channel, with Stonehenge, the wall of Severus, the Roman military road between Dover and Chester, Runnymede, Bannockburn, Edinburgh Castle, Holyrood Palace, Shakspere's birthplace, Whitehall, to Wapping Old Stairs. In the case of some of these, like the transformed Smithfield, the hand on the dial of the childish imagination must be set back; but most of the monuments need no such correction. And now if a child could choose between the same History thus illustrated and one equipped wholly with portraits from authentic sources, which would he naturally prefer?

'The Complete Works of Artemus Ward (Charles Farrar Browne)' have, after thirty years of popularity, been reissued by G. W. Dillingham, from new type and with a speaking photogravure portrait of the humorist. The additions to former collections give another distinction to this edition. It would have been well to omit all the illustrations except those of the panorama accompanying the lecture on the Mormons at Egyptian Hall in 1866-67.

The lapse of ten years since the first publication of the 'American Girls' Handybook' (Scribners) fully prepares us for additional chapters in which bicycling and golf appear for the first time. This is in the order of history, but it is odd that swimming is only now introduced, in one of the eight additional chapters, together with some hints on physical culture, etc. The fresh matter, like the old, is illustrated.

Dr. William E. Griffis has made more than usual preparation for telling the familiar story of the Pilgrims, from their beginnings to the formation of the New England confederation, in 'The Pilgrims in their Three Homes—England, Holland, America' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The little volume is necessarily only a sketch; yet it is the fruit, Dr. Griffis informs his readers, not merely of study of the documentary sources of Pilgrim history, but of "three leisurely visits also to the three homes of the Pilgrims in England, Holland, and America: in 1891, 1892, and 1895." The most marked feature of the book is, as one would expect, a high degree of picturesqueness of scenic description based on personal familiarity with the localities associated with Pilgrim life. This picturesque quality is heightened by the author's suggestive comparisons of the England of Elizabeth and James with Japan as he saw that country a quarter of a century ago. Dr. Griffis displays his well-known admiration for things Dutch, but not to such a degree as to disturb the balance of his narrative; and the vivacity with which he writes renders the volume an interesting résumé of Pilgrim story, not merely for the "young people" whom the author had specially in mind, but for his readers generally.

The 'Transactions and Proceedings of the Second International Library Conference, held in London July 13-16, 1897,' has just appeared in a form elegant and dignified, with a list of members, an index, and other apparatus. The financial exhibit of the Conference was eminently satisfactory, the membership fees and donations together having been sufficient to leave a surplus of some $2,000, one-half of which provided for the cost of the present volume.

The eleventh census is bowed out with a folio statistical atlas edited by Henry Gannett and his colaborers. Despite the distrust with which that debauched census will ever have to be regarded, at least in many important particulars, this atlas furnishes valuable food for study, with its fine series of colored maps and charts and its statistical text. We notice that the *centre of gravity* of population is erroneously charted here as the "centre of population." It still moves on the same parallel, with a remarkable persistency, and halts for the moment in Indiana, near Westport, Decatur County. It is bound westward, down the valley of the Ohio, at about the velocity of one degree per decade.

Hungary's most popular writer, Jokai, who is now in his seventy-third year, is residing on the Schwabenberg—a sort of refrigerator for those inhabitants of Budapest who cannot go away far from the city—preparing the complete edition of his works. This edition is to comprise one hundred volumes, and yet there must be omission of a number of pieces of minor importance. When the publisher undertook his project, it was generally predicted that he would be ruined, for the price of the edition is 250 florins, but the subscription already amounts to 6,000 sets.

With the September number the English periodical the *Artist*, now in its twenty-third volume, takes on an American edition (Truslove & Comba, 65 Fifth Avenue). It is well and abundantly illustrated, and is a good representative of its class.

Reference was made some time ago in these columns to the disproportionately small number of Catholic students in the higher schools and universities of Germany. More detailed statistics pertaining to the matter may now be found in vol. i. of the Commissioner of Education's Report for 1896-'97 (p. 167), which has been recently sent out. From another source we learn that of the 2,178 professors employed in the German universities in 1896, only 277 were Catholics. In Berlin, *e. g.*, the proportion of Catholics to non-Catholics was 19 to 326, in Leipzig 12 to 161. The only two faculties in which the former outnumber the latter are those of Munich (86 to 78) and of Münster (23 to 9). It will hardly seem farfetched to discern a certain relation between these facts and the lowering in recent times of the intellectual and social level of the highest Church dignitaries, which Dr. Sigmund Münz affirms in an article on "Die Welt des Vaticans" in the September *Cosmopolis*. "If one names to-day," he writes, "the Italian Capecelatro, the French academician Perraud, and the American Gibbons, he has almost exhausted the number of cardinals who have distinguished themselves in any domain of the intellect." And no less an authority than the eminent theologian and scholar Franz Xaver Kraus is quoted as saying: "At no period in the history of the Church has there been a greater dearth of distinguished *(bedeutende)* men than at present." According to Dr. Münz, the college of cardinals has degenerated in point of worldly splendor and social refinement as well, and the sons of the patrician families of Rome and Italy have ceased to covet the cardinal's hat.

The anonymous author of the leading article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for September 1 discusses with great clearness and much plausibility the significance of the projected pilgrimage of Emperor William to the Holy Land, in which he sees the "result of a system and the completion of a maturely conceived design." The whole policy aiming at the preponderance of the German protectorate of the Christians, both in the East and in the far East; its history, beginning soon after the close of the Culturkampf; and the various attempts made to obtain the sanction of the policy by the Pope, are treated in a spirit of mingled apprehension and hopefulness by the writer, who would fain see republican France preserve intact her historic religious prestige in distant lands, which has in modern times been recognized and confirmed. The statement, in a footnote, relating to the recent exodus of eight German professors from the University of Freiburg in Switzerland, will not, as our correspondent showed last week, satisfy those who are familiar with the case from impartial sources.

German interest in Asia Minor is indicated

by the account of a reconnaissance of the country bordering on the Anatolian Railway by two Prussian staff-officers, published in supplemental number 125 of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. In addition to a detailed description of the route followed, there is a scholarly account of the numerous ruins examined, and especially of the inscriptions found in them, making the report an important contribution to the classical geography and history of the region. Incidental references show how little the railway has developed local traffic. "With the exception of a Greek restaurant," writes Major von Diest of one town, apparently typical of all the rest, "there was not a single new building near the station; not one wagon, nor a horse, nor a pedestrian did we see on the great road leading to Kutaia during our stay of several hours." Had the peasants any desire to raise more on their fields than their personal needs demand, the lack of roads, heavy taxes, and railway freight charges would be prohibitive of such enterprise. Strong testimony is borne to the fact that in "hundreds of places" Armenians, Greeks, and Mohammedans live in perfect amity and content, in spite of arbitrary taxation and corrupt rulers. The accompanying maps are of the highest order of beauty and excellence.

The German Mennonite colonies in Southern Russia are the subject of the principal article in number eight of the same periodical. The different colonies are at present divided into districts, each with its magistrates elected by the householders, its bank and insurance company. The community provides for the orphans, the care of the land, and the foundation of new settlements as the increase of population demands. In many of the villages manufactures, especially of wagons, ploughs, mowing-machines, reapers, and threshers, have taken the place of agriculture. The young men, on attaining the age of service in the army, against which they have religious scruples so strong as to cause some years ago the emigration of large numbers to this country, are now permitted by the Government to serve for the four years in one of the forestry departments. A series of maps are accompanied by statistics of each district. In 1890 there were in Southern Russia 513 of these German villages with a population of 310,342.

From the Advance Sheets of the Consular Reports, issued daily by the Bureau of Foreign Commerce, Department of State, we learn that China's recent abortive decision to follow her more active rival, Japan, in coming into line with "Western civilization" included the enactment of copyright and patent laws. According to Minister Conger, the Emperor of China, on July 5, 1898, issued a decree to this effect, the text of which is quoted from the *North China News* of July 12. After some preliminary lines on the duty of Government, and on the present and future greatness of China and her resources, the Emperor went on to command "that from henceforth, if there be any subject of ours who should write a useful book on new subjects, or who should invent any new design in machinery, or any useful work of art and science which will be of benefit to the country at large, he shall be honored and rewarded by us in order to serve as an encouragement and exhortation to others of similar genius and talent." Some of the possible awards mentioned were of a truly Oriental character, *e. g.*, gifts of official posts, decorations, and fine raiment; these last, it is explained, are "in order to show the masses the persons who have gained honor by their talents and genius." But the more practical reward was also suggested of granting to the authors or inventors the sole right to manufacture and sell their productions for a limited time.

In the same series of sheets Mr. Edward Bedloe, Consul at Canton, reports on Russia in the Chinese markets. He states that the American petroleum trade in China already suffers from Dutch and Russian competition, and the fear is expressed that the completion of the trans-Siberian railway will prove a "very grave menace" to our trade in China so far as cotton goods, kerosene, and flour are concerned. The Chinese are said to have bound themselves to charge one-third less import duty on all Russian goods entering China through Mantchuria than is paid on similar products from other foreign countries landed at Chinese ports. "Reasoning by analogy," Mr. Bedloe argues, we may profit by remembering that British trade in Khorassan and northeastern Persia has been ruined by the Russians, "not by means of preferential rates for Russian merchants, or lower import duties, or similar acts in violation of treaty rights to which exception could be taken, but by a rebate on Russian imported [*i. e.*, exported] cotton goods," on every pound of which the Russian manufacturer receives a Government allowance of three half-pence, which covers the cost of freight and leaves a penny per pound profit, to be added to the usual profit on these goods. Russia has thus killed competition, according to Mr. Bedloe, by the device of a countervailing grant, or bounty, in aid of her own industry, and he asks, "Why not help our American trade by similar means?"

On another page, however, in a letter from Consul-General Goodnow, Shanghai, in reply to an inquiry from a cotton firm in New Orleans, the writer states that he finds two great obstacles in the way of America doing business with China. The first difficulty is that the American firms do not take care to fill their orders exactly. "There is somewhat of a feeling at home, 'Oh, anything will do for the Chinese,'" while the fact is that there are no people more particular than the Chinese; and Mr. Goodnow further points out how necessary it is to have an agent on the ground in whom they can have confidence, and that this man, if he is wise, should know the trade and its demands and cater to it. In the second place, almost all English and German firms have an arrangement by which claims for damages from faulty packing, etc., are settled promptly through the arbitration of their consul at the place where the goods are delivered; whereas, in similar cases of damaged American goods, the Chinese dealer is forced to stand the loss rather than go to the expense and delay incident to suit or arbitration in the far-away United States.

The Photogravure and Color Co. of this city (241 W. 23d St.) send us two large plates representing the *Maine* in New York harbor and President McKinley respectively. The ship is the better picture; but enough remains, in the portrait, of the characteristic traits of the Executive now daily extolled in each new Republican party platform.

—*Scribner's* for October has for its principal features three war articles (all illustrated), by Richard Harding Davis, Capt. Arthur H. Lee, British military attaché, and James F. J. Archibald. Mr. Davis's articles are, we believe, shortly to appear as a book, and will then probably attract more attention than they have hitherto done. There is nothing more wonderful about the war with Spain (which, in political and military theory, is only suspended, not finished) than the liberty of criticism allowed by those who are in charge of it. We may easily defy any other country or time to produce such incidents as the "round robin," the story of the face-slapping of a general by a war correspondent, or the newspaper publications of Gen. Miles's friends. Mr. Davis, when a little boy, was perhaps taken to see the "Grande Duchesse," and if so, the impression left on his youthful brain by *General Boum* may have aided him in forming the estimate which he here gives of Gen. Shafter. He traverses the "unthinking" defence made of the General that "he was sent to Cuba to take Santiago, and he took Santiago," declaring, as an eye-witness of much of the campaign, that "he did not take Santiago." His troops took the hills above Santiago, according to Mr. Davis, without the aid "they should have received from him," and "Admiral Cervera, by running away and taking with him the guns which covered the city, made a present of it to the American army." On July 2 Gen. Shafter sent a "panic-stricken" despatch, expressing his desire to withdraw himself; and finally, as to his control of the operations which got the army into such a position as led to the Spanish surrender, "he did not see the battle of San Juan, nor direct the battle of San Juan, nor was he consulted by those who did." Verily, verily the *sequelæ* of the war promise to be worse than the war itself. How curiously does what we patriotically try to "hush up" blaze out in letters of fire!

—*Harper's* contains a second paper on "Social Life in the British Army," by "a British officer," which gives some curious information about the life in a crack cavalry regiment. What the writer shows, though without intending it, is that the love of luxury and display, so characteristic of "society" in England and America at the present day, and so much deplored as it shows itself in the universities on both sides of the water, is quite as much in evidence in the English army, whenever that is recruited from "society." A crack cavalry regiment, for instance, has polo for its fashionable sport, racing for one of its amusements, for its mess valuable plate. We hear of soldiers "dressed in livery," selected for their "smartness," "clean-shaved in defiance of regulations," soon picking up "the ways of the professional footman." Then there is the regimental coach, and there may be the regimental hounds. Altogether, a commission in a crack cavalry regiment is a berth fitted only for a wealthy man. In fact, the poor man cannot go into it. The article will make the half-starved, hard-worked Continental officer stare with wonder. But it is only one of the fruits of the enormous wealth that the English have managed to heap up. A beggarly German baron, who cannot marry money out of his own class, and cannot find any to marry in it, is no doubt much more aristocratic in a variety of ways than a young English "blood" in a cavalry regiment; but the latter gets most out of life, or thinks he does. "Our Future Policy" is a masterly protest against imperialism by ex-Secretary

Carlisle. It ought to be reprinted and circulated by the million.

—In the *Atlantic*, the second instalment of the "Unpublished Letters of Carlyle," by Charles Townsend Copeland, is a distinct contribution to Carlyliana, and the admirers of Carlyle will probably feel that they owe a debt of gratitude to the editor. The impression created by Froude's curious mismanagement of his friend's memoirs has never hitherto been entirely effaced; what was needed for this purpose was some "intimate" traits of the man, showing his humanity and essential goodness of heart, such as are given in these letters. His correspondence with his mother is in a certain sense utterly irrelevant to his position as an historian or essayist, or indeed to anything literary, but no one can read the letters without feeling touched. Here we are not in the great world, but in a simple Scotch peasant's home; indeed, we feel rather like intruders. Carlyle himself would no doubt never have published such letters at all; but they show him for what he was in the closest relation of life, and we can only take our hats off and withdraw. Prof. A. V. Dicey has an interesting article on "England and America," in which he recurs to his plan of a common citizenship for the whole English-speaking people. This is a scheme which, he says himself, does not lie within the present range of practical politics; the habit of submitting all disputes to arbitration, especially if made binding by treaty, would do much to render a common citizenship unnecessary. The multiplication of sovereignties would do no one any harm if peace on earth, good will to men, were recognized as the first object of every government. On the other hand, with every nation armed to the teeth, would a common citizenship all over the world advance us much? It is chiefly men like Mr. Dicey himself who help the cause of Anglo-American unity on. Mr. Irving Babbitt contributes a paper on "The Correspondence of George Sand," in which he brings out the character of her mind very clearly by contrasting it with that of Flaubert.

—Those who like sea stories should read "A Storm at Sea," by H. Phelps Whitmarsh, in the *Century*. We have taken the liberty to ridicule Stephen Crane's marine realism, and it would not be difficult to prove our case by comparing the two writers' attempts to convey the impression made by a shipwreck adventure. Mr. Whitmarsh meets with no high-colored sounds nor shrieking odors, but his sea is the genuine ocean and his schooner is a real schooner. Charles Reade, Marryat, Russell, and others have described such before, and to any one who has ever been in danger of his life at sea the accent of verity in marine matters is unmistakable. The editor of the *Century* vouches, quite unnecessarily, for the truth of the narrative. We believe in the writer—as we do in his friend Capt. Blake of the schooner *Dolphin*, and the dinghy in which they were both picked up, after that ill-fated vessel had gone down—not because they are vouched for, but because things happen to them as things happen in real life, and because they behave as real people behave when in danger. There are several entertaining illustrated articles in the number, including one on Detaille, the military painter, accompanied by a number of unpublished sketches. Prof. Worcester continues his account of the Philippines, and confirms the impression that the climate of Manila is abominable, and that Anglo-Saxons will never go in any numbers to the Philippines. The English who go, or rather went, to India, to make their fortunes, like the Americans who at one time established great commercial houses in China, never went to stay, for the very good reason that they could not bring up their children there. If there is anything proved about the Anglo-Saxon race, it is that it will not "settle" in the tropics and "grow up with the place."

—Mrs. Kate Freiligrath-Kroeker has published in a recent number of *Cosmopolis* an article on her father's work as a translator. With the rapid increase of publications of all kinds the output of translations has kept pace, and in this cosmopolitan century no work can gain even a moderate reputation in its native land without experiencing one or more transmutations into the idioms of other countries. On the whole, it may be said that there has been a gain in scholarly accuracy, but the translators of the olden time, in spite of a somewhat irreverent treatment of the text, produced versions of such idiomatic vigor that no tell-tale traces were left of the language from which they came. The so-called "Tudor translations" bear witness to this. And now, in these days of multitudinous and careless renderings, it is a wholesome thing to call attention to the reverent fidelity and untiring labor which the poet Freiligrath brought to what a German philosopher called "a sacred task." In the case of versified versions it must be borne in mind that, except for the occasional potboiling of the impecunious, no human being is under obligation to render into his native tongue the verses of a foreign poet. When, therefore, it is done, it should be done well, since excellence is its only excuse for being. In Germany a certain national conscientiousness, aided by the almost Greek pliability of the language, has enriched the literature with model translations until it has come to be known as a key to the literatures of the world. Germany possesses probably a greater number of faithful and vitalized translations of foreign masterpieces than all the other literatures put together, although, as in the case of Matthew Arnold's assertion that conduct constitutes three-fourths of human life, it would be difficult to verify mathematically the exactness of the statement. To this general excellence of German versions the fact that poets, men with a true reverence for the craft, have laid hand upon the work, has in no small measure contributed. Goethe, Schiller, and, before all, Herder, have labored in this field, and Schlegel, in his marvellous rendering of Shakspere, reached, especially in "Othello" and "Lear," the highest perfection to which it would seem possible to attain.

—In the front rank among the poet-translators of Germany stands Ferdinand Freiligrath. Translation was with him almost as imperious a passion as the impulse to original composition. He was practically the first to introduce Tennyson to the German public. Longfellow, too, was a favorite; indeed, the list of the poets of France and England whose poems Freiligrath translated is long and varied. Chief among them is Burns. He knew that some poems were untranslatable, and these, after heartbreaking efforts, he heroically abandoned, but he attacked every difficulty before allowing it to daunt him. The most notable example of an inspired rendering of a single line is the refrain, "For a' that and a' that," "Trotz alledem und alledem." This phrase became a kind of campaign cry in the Revolutionary days half a century ago, and Freiligrath, who had it engraved on his seal, was jealous of his right to its authorship. "The fact is," he wrote, "that the great mass of the reading public has no conception of what poetical translation really means." He subjected himself to the severest restrictions, following the original metre with the utmost exactness, and reproducing even the internal assonances and alliterations. A careful study of methods like these on the part of the wretched bricklayers of verse who furnish music-publishers with their ludicrous versions of French and German songs, would bring at least a measure of relief to a long-suffering public. Freiligrath was justly indignant at the helpless rendering of "Hark, hark, the lark" for Schubert's music, but confessed his own inability to translate it as it should be translated. What would he have said to most of our English travesties of Germany's most exquisite lyrics? Renderings from the Latin tongues may demand a little more latitude of treatment. Rhymed couplets, as in the case of "Cyrano de Bergerac," would have a disturbing effect in English, however perfectly executed. Miss Gertrude Hall, in her version of "Cyrano," has accordingly chosen a strong prose style, while in the version published by Heinemann a confused and bungling rhythm has been adopted as a substitute for Rostand's flowing lines. Creative works like Fitzgerald's "Omar" belong to a different class. His work is an English variation on a Persian theme, and not a transcription at all. But as a specimen of strictly faithful, purely idiomatic, and entirely flawless translation, let one read Freiligrath's rendering of the "Ancient Mariner," which he made at the age of nineteen. Mrs. Kroeker's article is a valuable vade-mecum for our professional interpreters.

—A note of alarm regarding foreign commerce in China is sounded by Dr. Paul Goldmann in the *Frankfurter Zeitung*. Chinese merchants, he says, are gradually and quietly crowding out their foreign competitors in the trade with the interior. They begin as clerks in foreign houses, learn the language and the tricks of trade, make themselves useful as "compradors," and soon gain as much—sometimes twice as much—by each transaction as their chiefs. Many of the finest villas in the European quarters of Chinese cities have already passed into the hands of native merchants, and the doctor foresees the time when foreigners will be known only as clerks. Another correspondent of the same paper calls attention to the remarkable growth of the vernacular newspaper press in Chinese cities. Among the earliest were some missionary organs. Then came secular papers, all started with foreign capital, but passing soon under native control. Shanghai has already five Chinese newspapers, and the indications are that others will rapidly follow, as was the case in Japan when once the floodgates were opened. The typesetters, printers, and most of the editors are natives, and the tone of the papers, even though they are run with foreign capital, is usually hostile to the foreign devils. There are newspapers for educated families; cheap sensational papers, appealing to the vulgar; papers that make a

specialty of advertising, and in Shanghai also a comic weekly containing about twenty pages of pictures and a few pages of text. The daily papers have leaders, local news, correspondence from Chinese cities, and foreign intelligence, but there is as yet no direct telegraphic service, the dispatches being copied from Japanese papers and the English papers printed in China. These dispatches are always credited conscientiously to their source. Letters to the editor asking for information are also a popular feature, and betray a lively popular interest in all sorts of topics. As a specimen of the kind of topics discussed editorially, the correspondent gives the substance of a memorial to the Chinese Emperor by a Japanese, which has been much commented on. It calls attention to the fact that the European Powers are on the point of dividing China among themselves and wrecking the ruling power; that Japan, too, was once in the same danger, but escaped it by adopting European institutions, and especially by organizing an army on foreign models; argues that China, to escape ruin, must do the same thing; and calls the Emperor's attention to the case of Sweden and Charles XII. and to Plutarch's account of Alexander the Great.

ROYCE'S ESSAYS.

Studies of Good and Evil; A Series of Essays upon Problems of Philosophy and Life. By Josiah Royce, Professor of the History of Philosophy in Harvard University. D. Appleton & Co. 1898.

As if fearing that his "indolent reviewers" would not read all his essays in this volume, Prof. Royce has written an elaborate introduction, and possibly those will be most successful in reviewing him who stick closely to that, which gives an admirable account of each separate article, and endeavors (with some waste of ingenuity) to relate them all to the main title of his book. They are, in fact, of diverse character. Four of them, all in the vanguard, are "Studies of Good and Evil," clearly enough, while the ninth article, "An Episode of Early California Life: The Squatter Riot of 1850 in Sacramento," is a study of evil only within certain narrow limits. The tenth and twelfth articles are biographical and critical studies of Meister Eckhart, the scholastic mystic, and Jean Marie Guyau, the young French philosopher whose early death so touched his brilliant life with pity and regret.

The ninth article, "Originality and Consciousness," is much less abstract and difficult than Prof. Royce's account of it in his introduction, and those who are scared away from it by that account will lose what is certainly the pleasantest chapter in the book, and the one that comes most clearly within the range of practical ethics, albeit the ethics of the intellect. Written for the *Harvard Monthly*, it is possible that this article makes some concession to the weakness of the undergraduate mind; but in general Prof. Royce will be found as clear as anybody when he is writing of simple matters, and only difficult when he is penetrating mysteries for the expression of which language is too dull an instrument. The thesis in this article is that the conscious wish and intent to be original is one of the most powerful enemies of effective originality in art or life of any kind. "It is Life, and not Consciousness, that, in us men, is the originator." But there are happy moments in the thinker's and the artist's life, in the man-of-action's, too, and, when they come, to bid them stay is to achieve the originality which no deliberate volition can effect.

"I have supposed," says Prof. Royce, "that the essays from the fifth to the ninth in the present volume might serve to contribute in a genuine way to the issues suggested by my title," but he confesses that these essays lead us into "very theoretical regions, where the ethical problems are, for the time being, in the background." They are very far in the background, and the only ethical implication of these articles, except the fifth and ninth, is through the fact that "consciousness is the basis of all the good and evil that we human beings know." They are all studies of self-consciousness in one aspect or another, and are as stiffly metaphysical as Prof. Royce can be in his most characteristic mood. If one wants a good intellectual gymnastic he will find it here if anywhere in contemporary philosophy, but not a few will find these exercises somewhat dizzying in the intricacy of their involutions. The first of the three essays which are exclusively metaphysical, is Prof. Royce's contribution to the discussion which was excited by Huxley's 'Romanes Lecture.' Its subject is "Natural Law, Ethics, and Evolution." Huxley could find no ethics in the cosmical process; he declared the cosmic process to be anti-ethical, and for much of the way in his essay Prof. Royce keeps Huxley company. Conceive the cosmical process as one of describably rigid law, and then, he says, the ethical process can form no part of it. It is utterly opposed to the cosmical process so conceived. But (and here Prof. Royce parts company with Huxley and combats his general position) the opposition resides entirely in the ethical point of view which desires novelty, progress, the unattained ideal; and "against such things there is no law" in the cosmical process. Merely to state this is not to make it plain, but that it is so to Prof. Royce those who read his essay carefully will generally agree.

The sixth, seventh, and eighth essays are even more remote, if possible, from practical ethics than the fifth, and more profoundly metaphysical. They are entitled "The Implications of Self-Consciousness," "The Anomalies of Self-Consciousness," and "Self-Consciousness, Social Consciousness, and Nature." They are intimately related, and have for their common note the Hegelian interpretation of man as an essentially social being. "It is not the goal but the course that makes us happy," said Jean Paul, and not a few, we imagine, will find an illustration of the proverb in these fine-spun disquisitions. The doctrine of the first essay of this series is that "there is and can be only one complete Self, and that all finite selves and their objects are organically related to this Self, are moments of its completeness, thoughts in its thought, wills in its will, individual elements in the life of the absolute individual." The same doctrine has been urged in Prof. Royce's 'Religious Aspect of Philosophy' and his 'Spirit of Modern Philosophy,' and, with much more elaboration, in his part of 'The Conception of God,' a discussion in which he took part with Professors Howison, Le Conte, and Mezes, endeavoring to show that human personality is not an illusive bubble on the surface of the Infinite Reality. He did not succeed to the satisfaction of Prof. Howison, with whom many of their readers will agree. But the discussion there, as here, was proof how strong was Prof. Royce's (possibly illusory) sense of his own "life in himself"; and of that sense, and of his sense in general of the reality of human personality, we have abundant proof here in these essays, and much more in the closing sections of 'Spirit of Modern Philosophy.'

The argument of the article on the anomalies of self-consciousness is that self-conscious functions are all of them in their finite, human, and primary aspect social functions, due to the habits of human intercourse. In the next following essay we hark back to the one immediately preceding for much of the way, and there are some delightful paradoxes to the effect that we cannot be egoistic without being altruistic. "I can aim, for instance, to be a political 'boss.' That appears to be a very egoistic aim. But the political 'boss' exists by the suffrages of interested people, and must aim at their conscious, even if illusory, sense of advantage in so far as he wills them to be sincerely interested." But this essay goes beyond the preceding, first as showing that, except through our social relations, we can get no idea of the non-Ego which we call nature, and then in arguing for a Self of which nature is to us the visible experience. "No evidence can indicate nature's inner reality without also indicating that this reality is, like that of our own experience, conscious, organic, full of clear contrasts, definite." On the way from the social ego to this inner Self of things we have a doctrine which suggests the mind-stuff theory of Kingdon Clifford, but which Prof. Royce carefully distinguishes from that: "Natural objects, if they are real to us at all, are prima facie simply other finite beings, who are, so to speak, not in our social set, and who communicate to us, not their minds, but their presence." So stated, this doctrine appears fanciful, but it appears less so when Prof. Royce's skilful dialectic is brought to bear upon it. This essay concludes with considerations that really constitute a separate essay, which has a kind of cousinship with the doctrine of Prof. Cope and Mr. Charles Peirce that the laws of Nature are fixed habits which she has gradually acquired. Prof. Royce is not so sure that they are fixed; imagining that our conviction that they are so is possibly an illusion of our contracted "apperceptive span," while in reality the world is one of mingled permanence and novelty. Whereupon, will not the miracle-mongers cry, "He has become as one of us"?

Turning now to those essays which most clearly justify the title of the book, the first of these—first in the book also—"The Problem of Job"—is an attempt to solve that problem by identifying the sufferings of mankind with the sufferings of God: "When you suffer, *your sufferings are God's sufferings*, not his external work, not his external penalty, not the fruit of his neglect, but identically his own personal woe. In you God himself suffers, precisely as you do, and has all your concern in overcoming this grief." This is less doubtful consolation when it is urged that God is God in virtue of his triumph over evil, and we most God-like through our coöperation with him on this line. All this is worked out much more effectively than here in the concluding sections of Prof. Royce's 'Spirit of Modern Philosophy.' And however elsewhere

he may seem to merge our human personality in God's, his sense of it here, and wherever the same thought is prominent, is as rigorous and strenuous as we could wish. Strangely enough we breathe the same moral atmosphere as in Prof. William James's 'Will to Believe'; we have the same conviction that we have there that it is a real fight in which we are engaged; we are in the procession, not mere lookers-on.

Prof. Royce has a very stout abhorrence of what he calls "pseudo-idealism," the idealism which explains away the sin and evil of the world as illusions of our subjectivity. He wrestles with them, like Jacob with the angel in the dark. He will not let them go unless they bless him. He is happier in his pessimism than are the optimists in their optimism. His third essay, on "Tennyson and Pessimism," compares the "Locksley Hall Sixty Years After" with the first "Locksley Hall," and finds the pessimism of the second poem healthier than the optimism of the first, because the evil is recognized as something we can master and control, and the good is something that will come because we will to have it come. This paper also was written for the *Harvard Monthly*, and the young men who read it must have felt their hearts knocking against their ribs in no unmanly fashion. In the Job article various solutions of the problem of evil are reviewed and set aside. Some that are extremely popular in the pulpit are subjected to satirical analysis and hilariously laughed to scorn. Prof. Royce makes no pretence that his solution is any of those offered in the book of Job, where we have three at least.

"The Case of John Bunyan" is an essay in cerebral pathology, an account of Bunyan's spiritual miseries which hardly seems to justify the labor spent upon it. "The Knowledge of Good and Evil" pleads in the true Hegelian spirit for knowledge as in itself an unmixed good. How the knowledge of evil can be made subservient to virtue, while yet we may not continue in sin that grace may abound, is shown in a very pretty piece of exposition. But Prof. Royce is not equally satisfactory in his making all virtue identical with struggle and victory. In his despite we must believe that the best man is the man who is good with the least effort.

It is a long way from these abstract considerations to such an essay as that on the Sacramento riots of 1850. The essay is an expansion of certain parts of the concluding chapter of Prof. Royce's 'California' in the series of State histories. It was written for that and proved disproportionately long. Even as printed here it is too long for the importance of the matter. It is interesting to find Dr. Charles Robinson, of Kansas fame, the leading rioter. Prof. Royce praises him and damns with amusing incongruity. But his account of him makes it easier to understand how at one time Robinson could praise John Brown to the skies, and years afterward execrate his memory. Evidently Robinson had no ethical "wholeness of tissue." Prof. Royce's concluding essay, "Jean Marie Guyau," is more than an extremely sympathetic appreciation of a brilliant young philosopher. It contains some general reflections on the operation of the French as compared with the German and English mind that are extremely pertinent, praising it for its superior fearlessness. Guyau's 'L'Irreligion de l'Avenir,' a translation of which has recently been published in America, is highly commended, while the title is criticised as misleading. Prof. Royce tells us that he should unhesitatingly call Guyau's opinions religious if they were his own, for the reason that he should himself see in them what Guyau saw, the fulfilment in reasonable form of what the religious instinct of humanity has been seeking. But in these days, when so many are using the old names to obscure the new thought, it is refreshing to find a writer loving frankness so much that he exaggerates his difference from the conventional type.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Christmas Accident, and Other Stories. By Annie Eliot Trumbull. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Tales of the City Room. By Elizabeth G. Jordan. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Judith Moore. By Joanna E. Wood. Toronto: The Ontario Publishing Co.

Spun-Yarn. By Morgan Robertson. Harper & Bros.

Caleb West, Master Diver. By F. Hopkinson Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Red Bridge Neighborhood. By Maria Louise Pool. Harper & Bros.

The Man Who Outlived Himself. By Albion W. Tourgée. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

The Imported Bridegroom, and Other Stories of the New York Ghetto. By Abraham Cahan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

At You-All's House: A Missouri Nature Story. By James Newton Baskett. Macmillan. 1898.

The Looms of Time. By Mrs. Hugh Fraser. D. Appleton & Co. 1898.

Willowbrake. By R. Murray Gilchrist. London: Methuen & Co.

Rose à Charlitte: An Acadian Romance. By Marshall Saunders. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

"If the effect of Christmas could be depended upon to last into the summer, this would be a very different sort of world," says Miss Trumbull. Perhaps it does last far enough to prevent the possibility of a critical attitude towards a Christmas story in early autumn. What has the cold scrutiny of a muggy September to do with the glowing activities of the Christmas-tide? Let the cruel turn gentle, the miser prodigal, and the curmudgeon take on a heart of graciousness on the evening of December 24. We shall find no improbability, moral or literary, therein. If it is not so, it ought to be so, and Christmas stories may help to make it so. Thus much for the sketch which gives Miss Trumbull's volume its name. Its followers are of varying interest and merit, an especial charm attaching to the "Memoir of Mary Twining," a portrait of a last-century girl in delicately sombre tints. Some New England coast oddities are cleverly drawn; some complex contrasts of youth and middle age less well because less spontaneously. None of the papers, however, are without an engaging quality and a twinkle of the eye, so to speak, which make them pleasant reading.

An art critic has defined a realist as one having a native gift for science who has taken to art; a definition which may be quoted, by no means in disparagement, in noticing Miss Jordan's sketches of journalistic life. If the details of the newspaper office and the incidents that befall the woman reporter come under the general classification of facts, the writer's knack at grouping and combining them has assuredly something of the artist. Infinite curiosity is the motive power of the time. The reporter being the stoker who feeds the power, the author who reports the reporter is as near to the *Zeit-Geist* as flesh can come to spirit. Miss Jordan has done her reporting interestingly, tastefully, and picturesquely, with due deference to the claims of the real and the romantic.

'Judith Moore' reminds one of a pale water-color in a white frame with pink corners. It is about a prima donna who went for a summer rest to a secluded Canadian village, drank new milk and practised "isolated notes or short crescendos" alone under the trees. That is, the cunning author would have us know that she thinks she is alone. But even an agnostic would venture to affirm that a brawny son of toil, one of nature's noblemen, heard her as he was sowing seed, "hand and foot moving in rhythm, and cadenced by the sharp swish, swish of the grain as it left his hand." Inasmuch as she sings and he sows in rhythm, the story proclaims itself musical in part. There is, besides, the village with a host of rustic characters and rustic comicalities, presented jerkingly, but with an evident love of fun; there is the landscape, affectionately dwelt upon, and, finally, there is the writing, which, when not busy with the village, soars above the village level to such heights as these: "It was a simple and austere melody, yet endued with a peculiar pathos, the yearning of a defrauded life for the joy that should have crowned it, the regret of a barren present for a fruitful past, the wail of the must-be for the might-have-been." Now, the woods are full of such as admire this sort of thing, and they can have their fill in this little book, which, whatever its limitations, has the merits of brevity and cleanliness.

'Spun-Yarn' contains far and away the best sea stories we have read since Kipling's. They are reminiscent of his, possibly, but mainly in merit, not matter, and also because of a mystical, half-grumbling, half-sentimental introduction which seems to refer to Kipling, and which might advantageously have been omitted. The book is quite marked and original enough to stand on its own resources, and its whining preface explaining its existence does it injustice. The stories are largely of men cast away on deserted craft, and might be termed inverted shipwrecks. They are strongly conceived, absorbingly interesting, and abounding in cold thrills. Even the old hand at marine mysteries, if we are not mistaken, will find veritable sensations awaiting him here; the more stirring because of the excellently restrained manner in which the narration goes forward—such a manner as insures conviction of the wildest improbabilities. Horrors there are, of course. Yarn spun at sea is not for the weak of nerve, but your eater of strong meat will find nothing unpalatable, and your lady reader who objects to technicalities can skim lightly over some of the belaying-pins, anchor-stocks, quarter-bitts, clove-hitches, ram-bows, and sponsons. She will read untrammelled by a chaperone, as, saving the briefest appearance of a sailor's aged mother, there is not a woman in the book. This fable teaches that though all the world loves a lover,

there may be written a book thoroughly interesting without one.

'Caleb West,' for instance, is an example of a book that would have been better minus the love element. So long as a light-house is the hero and a diver his prophet, the story is admirable and delightful. But the social element, the bachelor quarters in New York, the Venetian flagons and floral monograms, bring in an air of the journalistic society column which is dissatisfying, a dissatisfaction not allayed by the scenes laid on lower social strata, the Industrious-Apprentice, Rake's-Progress effects which even the pretty kitchen interiors cannot make quite real. One likes to escape from the cocktails and silken cushions of Mrs. Leroy's yacht, and from the superhumanly saintly forgiveness of Caleb West and the preternaturally patient ever-cooking of Aunty Bell, to the slippery rocks of Shark's Ledge and the company of fish revealed to Caleb at the bottom of Long Island Sound. The melodramatic note, too, uttered in the story of the old diver's young wife, is rather like a children's symphony performed on toy instruments—at once artificial and weak. Neither does the presence of an old friend, Major Slocomb, confer the unalloyed pleasure which he endowed an early sketch withal. He is too thin to be thus long. But if the characters are somewhat savorless, still the book is saved by salt; and we defy any one who follows the admirably told tale of wonders that we are too apt to scan with inadequate amazement, not to doff his hat whenever thereafter he sees either a diver or a light-house.

In Miss Pool's last book there is the tale of colossal sorrow invading the lives of simple folk; country manners and world-wide griefs; New England dialect and the tragic muse. Miss Pool's rustics are well known, and so is the strong and unswerving touch with which, having created a morbid situation, she meets it. The text of this story is Avarice, with its attendant train of horrors. The sadness, never absent from her writings, is heightened, as one follows this novel to its close, by the knowledge that soon after finishing it she laid down her pen for all time.

The three stories in Judge Tourgée's little volume have all the ease and flow to be expected from his pen, and all his originality of topic as well as treatment. We have found them more original, perhaps, than absorbing, though they fairly hold the attention, and show a close observation and intimate knowledge of various phases of nature and humanity. A striking yet not repulsive study of insanity may be quoted as an instance of what the pen of a skilled workman can accomplish by doing and by omitting; while the description of a snowstorm in "Poor Joel Pike" is an equally effective achievement in the portrayal of a beautiful aspect of nature.

The mere sight of the word "Ghetto," nowadays, sits heavily on the literary spirits. The American fashion of converting a novelty into an antique in twenty minutes obtains in the field of fiction no less than elsewhere, and for a few years past we have had Ghetto stories from Greenland's icy mountain to India's coral strand written or translated by the tireless American pen. The New York east-side Jew, with his adjacent but never mingled poetry and sordidness, product of the Old Testament and Chatham Street, the peddler with his Pentateuch, is as familiar to our magazine pages as to the dwellers in university settlements. Striking, indeed, must be the stories of this people that set to vibrating a new chord in readers' consciousness. Yet this is what Abraham Cahan's collection of five Ghetto sketches has done. Their novel effect is partly because of the clever selection of his themes, and even more because there is always a glint of the link between the east-side Jew and his native Russia. These sordid, devout, oppressed, or successful Asriels, Reubens, and Davids, who recite Kaddish, twist their oily side-locks, press trousers, and lay up money to buy plush furniture, once had homes and parents in far-away Kieff or Kropovetz. Their mothers still live there, perhaps, rejoicing in the tidings of the Brussels carpets of their American children; their ancestral graves at all events are there, summoning their thoughts continually across the seas. The past, the distance, are used in a peculiarly telling way as a background against which stand forth with double impressiveness the modern features of Bayard and Hester Streets. The Oriental learning, or reverence for him who has it, pervades the heart of every one of these only half-occidentalized children of Israel. They desire that their sons-in-law should have Talmudical learning, even though they themselves sell flour and their daughters call their sweethearts "birdie boy." Mr. Cahan has possessed himself of several freshly interesting episodes out of which to build his stories, and has made a forcible combination of story and race photography in every instance.

A book which offers authentic first-hand observation of nature is never devoid of charm even when, as in Mr. Baskett's Missouri "Nature Story," humanity is less fortunately dealt with. One can forgive the impossibly priggish schoolmistress for the sake of the field-lore which even her sententious lips cannot make commonplace. The Missouri summer unfolds before our eyes more consequently than Dolly, under whose sunbonnet her neighbor Shan is not allowed to peep in April, while October finds her discussing the mysteries of the Immaculate Conception with the visiting engineer. Mr. Mabie, in his contributed introduction, points out that Missouri has hitherto suffered slight through lack of representation in the gallery hung with portraits of her sister States. Her reproach is now taken away, but one shrinks from a logical application of this idea which would add new terrors to our imperial policy.

Those who ask to be thrilled and are not too exacting in the matter of verisimilitude, will find gratification in Mrs. Hugh Fraser's romance, 'The Looms of Time.' The plot hinges on the attempt of a Chilian bailiff to pass himself off as the master of an estate after having murdered the real owner, a young orphan lad half his own age. That the villain Carlos could succeed in imposing himself on old family servants, after five years' absence, by wearing smoked glasses and a heavy beard, every generous reader of romance will allow, but what is one to make of the unaccountable action of the heiress, sister of the murdered boy? Arriving on the scene from England, at first deceived but finally dispossessing the villain to the accompaniment of Andean thunders, floods, and earthquakes, she then absolutely refuses to permit the working of the gold mine for which so much crime has been wrought. "It has done harm enough already," she declares, and turns her back for ever upon the cavern whose walls are glittering with the yellow metal. Nor are we given any hint that her betrothed, a young English captain, did not entirely acquiesce in her decision. The style in which all this is told is simple and direct, and some vivid glimpses of Chilian landscape add merit to the book.

Not often does the time-honored English theme of a noble family haunted by a claimant to the estate produce a book of such vapidity as 'Willowbrake.' Further description were to "draw up custard by a hook"—an attempt from which Epictetus warns us.

The growing popularity of the summer trip to Evangeline's country no doubt explains the existence of 'Rose à Charlitte,' a "novel of locality," as the phrase now is. Its inordinate length is more difficult of justification even from an advertiser's point of view. Five hundred pages of flabbiness, while they enable one painfully to realize the long years of waiting for the final happiness of Rose à Charlitte and her lover, are rather more than the tourist cares to undertake. The enthusiasm of the author for her theme is evident, but its more judicious application might have resulted in a wider audience for her descriptions of the excellence of Acadian inns, the beauty of Acadian landladies, the spirit of romance so easily invoked by the Basin of Minas.

The Life of Napoleon the Third. By Archibald Forbes. Dodd, Mead & Co. [1898.]

The war correspondent bears to the historian a relation like that of the kodak and the painting, and Mr. Forbes's success as a war correspondent might lead one to suppose that he could scarcely write a good history. This is not the case, however, for in this Life of Napoleon III. he has produced a creditable historical work—a much better history than Blanchard Jerrold's, for instance, and one that can be recommended as the best in English on this subject. The style, too, although sometimes journalistic, is in the main sturdy and concrete. Mr. Forbes does not add any new elements to Napoleon III.'s portrait, but he shows that he is familiar with many of the sources, in French and in English, from which a true portrait may some time be made. Since much material concerning the Third Empire has recently been unlocked, it is to be regretted that Mr. Forbes has given no references, even where he quotes at considerable length. Perhaps he feared that foot-note references might detract from the popular character of his book.

A more serious, because structural, defect is the lack of proportion which appears in the treatment of different parts of Napoleon's career. Thus the Strasbourg and Boulogne incidents are described in greater detail than the *Coup d'État*, and the military operations of the short-lived Mexican Empire occupy more space than the account of those political transformations in France herself which marked the decay of Napoleon's despotism. Similarly, a reader unacquainted with the Carbonaro conspiracies would infer, from Mr. Forbes, that Napoleon and his brother played very conspicuous parts in the revolt of 1831, whereas they were merely subordinate plotters. On the other hand, Mr. Forbes's chapters on the Franco-German war are admirable. Rarely have the events leading up to the declaration of war been described more succinctly, and the nar-

rative of Napoleon's miserable collapse, between Gravelotte and Sedan, is remarkably good. One would have to search history widely to find a parallel in abjectness and incompetence to the last three weeks of Louis Napoleon's emperorship; and Mr. Forbes, by telling this story straightforwardly, has made it impressive enough for even the casual reader to understand its bearing.

Mr. Forbes does not try to solve the enigma of Louis Napoleon's character. Kinglake, judging him by his deeds, has written him down a villain; Jerrold, judging him by the fine phrases in his proclamations, has made him out a benefactor of mankind. Which is right? This mystery, felt by every one in dealing with Napoleon, makes him still interesting after we have mastered the external events of his career. Mr. Forbes falls in with the recent fashion of attributing Napoleon's decline and fall partly to the disease which tormented him from 1862 on. We think this a mistake. Napoleon III. did not change his methods when disease came upon him; had he kept his health up to 1870, there is no reason to suppose that he would have been less perfidious, or less truculent, or less unsuccessful. It would be well if the chapters of Mr. Forbes's book which relate to his imperial schemes could be widely pondered by our people to-day. His Mexican empire seems the prototype of our prospective Philippine empire. *Absit omen!*

A word should be said of the excellent illustrations to this volume. There are thirty half-tone portraits, all of historical value, and nearly all well executed. But there is no index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atherton, Gertrude. The Californians: A Novel. John Lane. $1.50.
Bayliss, Sir W. Rex Regum: A Painter's Study of the Likeness of Christ. London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Chamberlain, Mellen. John Adams, and Other Essays and Addresses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Ellinwood, T. J. Autobiographical Reminiscences of Henry Ward Beecher. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 75c.
Fitzmaurice Kelly, J. History of Spanish Literature. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Gardiner, P. A Drummer's Parlor Stories. New York: A. P. Gardiner.
Hall, Ruth. In the Brave Days of Old. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Johnston, Mary. Prisoners of Hope: A Tale of Colonial Virginia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Kaemmerer L. Hubert und Jan Van Eyck. Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Monte, Rev. C. C. G. Colossian Studies. Armstrong. $1.75.
More, P. E. A Century of Indian Epigrams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.00.
Morris, C. Historical Tales. Russian. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
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Moses, Prof. Bernard. The Establishment of Spanish Rule in America. Putnams. $1.25.
Mott, W. F. A Queen of Sinners. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Mundo, H. The Recovered Continent. New ed. Columbus, O.: Harper-Osgood Co. 25c.
Musgrove, Charles H. The Dream Beautiful, and Other Poems. Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co.
Norris, W. E. The Widower. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Paton, Rev. James. The Story of John G. Paton. Told for Young Folks. Armstrong. $1.
Perry, W. C. The Women of Homer. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Pickford, Mrs. A. M. Lucy Broad's Choice. American Tract Society. $1.25.
Pike, G. R. The Divine Drama: The Manifestation of God in the Universe. Macmillan. $1.50.
Pinocchio's Adventures in Wonderland. Boston: Jordan, Marsh & Co. 30c.
Primer, Prof. S. Goethe's Egmont. Macmillan. 60c.
Purcell, E. S. Life of Cardinal Manning. New ed. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.50.
Robinson, Mrs. H. H. Loom and Spindle; or, Life among the Early Mill Girls. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Slosson, Annie T. Fishin' Jimmy. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.00.
Smith, Prof. W. B. Infinitesimal Analysis. Vol. I. Macmillan. $3.25.
Stanley, H. M. Essays on Literary Art. London: Sonnenschein; Chicago: Hayes, Cooke & Co.
Stanwood, Edward. A History of the Presidency. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Stratemeyer, E. Under Dewey at Manila. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Swift, B. The Destroyer. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Taylor, H. Origin and Growth of the English Constitution. Vol. II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.
Tennyson, Lord. Poetic and Dramatic Works. [Cambridge Edition.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Thackeray, W. M. Contributions to "Punch," etc. [Biographical Edition.] Harper & Bros. $1.75.
The Legal Revolution of 1902. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.00.
Thomson, Prof. J. J. Discharge of Electricity through Gases. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.00.
Tocqueville, A. de. Democracy in America. 2 vols. The Century Co. $5.00.
Tolstoy, L. N. The Christian Teaching. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Tomlinson, E. G. The Boys of Old Monmouth. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Tschudi, Clara. Marie Antoinette. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Van Rensselaer, Mrs. J. K. The Goede Vrouw of Mana-ha-ta at Home and in Society. 1609-1760. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.00.
Vivian, T. J. The Fall of Santiago. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
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Wilson, L. L. W. History Reader for Elementary Schools. Macmillan. 60c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 13, 1898.

The Week.

The best feature of the canvass now within a month of its close is the demonstration that the war cannot be worked for political advantage, and that the McKinley Administration will be no better off in November than it would have been if there had been no war—indeed, will be worse off, because of Algerism and the attempt to whitewash it. The fact is admitted by all candid Republicans everywhere. In Iowa, for example, Congressman Clark frankly says, in the Keokuk *Gate City*, which he edits, that "the war with Spain will not give so much strength to the Republicans in this fall's election as seemed probable in the first enthusiasm"; and he philosophically adds that "this is well enough, and it is probably better for the country and the Republican party to get away from unsubstantial generalities and pyrotechnics of patriotism and go straight to the common-sense business of the situation." In Pennsylvania the Philadelphia *Bulletin*, a Republican newspaper, opens a review of the campaign in that State with the confession that "the attempt to keep the canvass on a distinctly national plane has been a failure"; that "the war has not been the bonanza of popular capital for the regular organization in this State that was expected before it suddenly came to a close"; that "a large portion of the Republicans in Pennsylvania have refused this year to be influenced by the plea that the late war and its sequels are the paramount issues in the present campaign"; and that "they have been more concerned on the questions which Dr. Swallow and his honest-government friends and John Wanamaker have raised than they have ever been before when such questions have been agitated in a gubernatorial or a senatorial campaign."

The delegates to the Massachusetts Republican convention held in Boston on Thursday had some views of their own, and the meeting of the committee on resolutions was not a brief gathering of automatons, who responded to the touch of a button by a boss, and produced a type-written manuscript prepared in advance by him. Senator Lodge, a candidate for reëlection, comes the nearest to being a boss that the Republican party of Massachusetts has ever had. A month ago it would have seemed to a New Yorker or a Pennsylvanian, familiar with the way that bosses run conventions in those great States, that the attitude of the Massachusetts Republicans toward imperialism was a foregone conclusion. But the earnest discussion of the subject among the people had shown such an overwhelming sentiment against the policy that the presiding officer, Representative Moody, evaded the question in his opening speech, Senator Lodge withheld the Jingoism with which he was charged a few weeks ago, and the convention adopted a platform the salient plank of which was a declaration that "the people of Massachusetts do not propose to abandon the ancient doctrines of republican liberty upon which the commonwealth and the country are builded, and by which the American people have grown to be without a rival among the nations in wealth, power, and happiness"; and, instead of a demand for the annexation of the Philippines, an expression of the "desire that the diplomatic negotiations now in progress be so conducted and terminated as to secure to the Philippine Islands and to Cuba, in amplest measure, the blessings of liberty and self-government."

Senator Lodge, nevertheless, delivered a speech in which he grandiloquently remarked that he believed the American people to be "the most capable governing nation on the face of the earth"—the obvious reference being to the government of inferior races, as the expansion policy was in his mind. At the very time that he was speaking, a battle was in progress between troops of the United States army and a band of Indians in Minnesota, one of the oldest States in the West. The fighting was the direct result of shameful misgovernment of the red men by the whites. The chief of the tribe had been forced to leave the reservation and take a long trip to Duluth as a witness. When he was dismissed, he was refused his witness and mileage fees and forced to trudge home afoot, begging his way. He, naturally enough, declared that, if he should ever be summoned as a witness again, he would not go, and the tribe backed him up. He was summoned, he refused to go, and the fighting followed. Every life that was sacrificed on both sides is directly due to the shameful treatment of these Indians by representatives of "the most capable governing nation on the face of the earth."

The Massachusetts Democrats are not easily deceived. No bogus prosperity can be palmed off upon 'cute Yankees like them. Finding it necessary to maintain that the business of the country is "in reality in a more deplorable condition than in 1896," they feared that scoffers might point to the signs of better times—lessened failures, increased bank clearings, etc. So the Massachusetts Democrats answered the objector in advance. All that he may urge is, they tell him, only a "specious local activity." What the country needs, on the other hand, is clearly a solid and general activity. Increased bank-clearings must be as marked in East Haddam as in Wall Street. Summer board in Topsfield must be at the same rates as in the Fifth Avenue Hotel. Otherwise, blessings are obviously unequal, which proves that the gold standard is one of the works of the devil, and that the true ratio is 16 to 1. We like "specious local activity" as a phrase for explaining away prosperity. Since Gen. Hancock spoke of the tariff as something that he used to hear of as a local issue in Pennsylvania, we have had nothing quite so good. It would be a rare sign of good times that George Fred Williams could not denounce as either "specious" or "local." Being so, you cannot impose it upon him. He will remain implacable until you bring forward prosperity firm as a rock, universal as the air. Meanwhile, there is nothing specious about him. His demagogism is of solid texture from circumference to centre, though the steadily diminishing vote of the Massachusetts Democracy under his leadership shows how "local" he is and promises to continue.

It is made very plain by the regular Republican nominations for the Legislature in this city and other parts of the State that, however deeply other persons may be absorbed in sound money and other national questions, Mr. Platt is not allowing them to distract his mind from the main business in hand. He is "setting up" a majority in the next Legislature with his customary care and skill. The nominating machinery in nearly every instance is running very smoothly, and is putting in the field only such Republicans as can be depended upon to obey orders. In this city, for example, the only candidate thus far receiving a Republican nomination for Assembly who is other than a Platt man is Mr. Gherardi Davis, who carried the convention in the Twenty-seventh District, defeating the machine candidate. This district is the only one in the city which is not controlled by the machine, for it is the only one in which a large number of independently disposed Republicans took the trouble to enter the primaries under the new primary law. In all the other city districts, so far as we can discover, Platt has either got his man into the field as the regular nominee or is preparing to do so presently.

An instructive glimpse of the way in

which the modern science of government is operated by experts in the Republican machine is furnished by a little encounter between Mike Dady and ex-Sheriff Buttling in one of the Brooklyn districts. Mike has been much favored by Platt in recent movements, and has been disposed to look down upon Buttling as out in the cold. What happened to Dady in the convention is thus described by Buttling himself. Having obtained control of the convention, he proceeded as follows:

"I nominated this ticket just to show the Buttling family was still alive, and right in it, and would be in the Republican party when Dady was out of it: For delegates, William J. Buttling, Albert J. Buttling, Thomas F. Buttling, and George Benjamin Buttling; alternates, Avery H. Buttling, Dominick B. Buttling, Gustavus C. Buttling, and, there not being any other Buttlings, I named my dearest friend, George W. Shanley, for the last place. I guess Dady will recognize I am in it. Then, just to make it interesting, I nominated Roderick for Assembly, to please the boys. I had never seen him. When he came before the convention he wore a white vest and a pink tie —I tell you he was just the thing. He's a bright, able young fellow, and will make a good run. I don't know how the Buttling family delegation will vote—we haven't decided yet."

The nominee for the Assembly, in a "white vest and pink tie," put in the field to "please the boys," is one of the candidates we are asked to vote for to save the "cause of sound money" from destruction.

Mr. Croker makes with unnecessary emphasis an announcement that he "will not resign the leadership of Tammany Hall," and that he "will hold it as long as he lives." Who supposed for a moment that he would resign it? He has no other business, and can desire no other. No business known to man can begin to compare with his in any respect. He has unlimited power with no responsibility. He enjoys a noble income from steadily swelling revenues and keeps no accounts whatever. Nobody can ever pry into his books, for he has none. The idea that any man in possession of his faculties would resign a business like this, at the moment when it was on the very highest wave of prosperity it had ever known, is preposterous. He says he needs assistance in "attending to details," but, so far as the general conduct of the business goes, he is quite capable of managing that single-handed.

"Thorough" is evidently not the motto of President McKinley's investigating committee. They listen to long volunteered statements, but lamentably fail when it comes to pushing home searching questions at critical points. On Thursday, for example, a critical point was reached in Gen. Boynton's testimony. He admitted that the conditions at Chickamauga were at one time very bad. This pained the committee, but they questioned the witness only languidly. Was Gen. Brooke at fault? No, the lax administration of the camp was noticeable only after he went away. Who then was responsible? "The brigade and regimental commanders," replied Gen. Boynton. There was the chance to ask who the derelict commanders were; who the colonels were who did not know that a camp was more dangerous than a battle, and who let their men fall sick; who appointed these ignorant officers and assigned them to duty. But the committee shied and ran off to the subject of green coffee and spoiled onions. This sort of investigation will lead to nothing. It is all adrip with whitewash. Far from forestalling or staving off a congressional inquiry, the President's lame and faltering committee are making such an inquiry more imperative than ever.

A curious explanation is put forth, apparently by the War Department, of the much greater mortality from disease than from wounds in the late war, and especially of the bad showing the figures make as compared with those of the civil war. Why, it is said, the difference is due to the "humane" Mauser bullet, and particularly to the advance in antiseptic surgery. If medical knowledge had not made such progress since 1860, the percentage of recoveries among the wounded would not have been so astonishingly large, and then the number of deaths from disease would not have appeared so out of proportion. Well, medical knowledge of disease has made progress as well as of wounds. A typhoid epidemic in a camp that would have been pardonable thirty years ago is absolutely inexcusable now. The veriest country doctor would be ashamed of himself if he could not locate and stamp out typhoid infection. Yet there were 5,000 cases of typhoid at Chickamauga—all "introduced," so the medical officers testify. And their account of the shocking laxness about sinks and refuse, the flies carrying the infection straight from the latrines to the tables where men and officers fed, is a positive indictment for crime of those responsible. At any rate, it is a queer way to excuse ignorant blundering in one department of the medical service by pointing to high skill in another.

The power of the Senate to ratify or reject the treaty to be made with Spain regarding her possessions in the Indies, East and West, includes the power to prescribe the terms upon which they shall be accepted. It may receive them with or without conditions. It may refuse to make them a part of the United States on any terms. If the subject had been brought before either house of Congress six months ago they would have been rejected by a vote as unanimous as that by which Congress declared that we would not acquire Cuba, but would immediately withdraw after delivering her from tyranny and oppression. Therefore the temper of the Senate is a very important matter, even more important than the decision of the Paris Commissioners. The temper of the Senate is itself amenable to public opinion, and much will depend upon the result of the November elections. If the Republicans lose the next Congress, that fact will be taken as evidence that the country is not in favor of "imperialism." Both the President and the Senate will construe it as a command to go slow in the matter of annexations.

What is the political status of Porto Rico in contemplation of law? Our Treasury authorities assume that the island is now subject at all events to our navigation laws, so that a foreign ship cannot carry either goods or passengers from a port of the United States to a port of the island directly, although it may clear from New York to Bermuda and from Bermuda to Porto Rico. If our navigation laws apply to Porto Rico, why do not our tariff laws apply equally? Under those laws every kind of goods from the United States is entitled to admission there free of duty, and all the products of Porto Rico, including sugar, tobacco, and cigars, are entitled to free admission here. Why are they not so admitted? Evidently because the Senate has not ratified any treaty by which Spain cedes the island to us. There can be no addition to the territory of the United States without the vote of the Senate, acting either as a part of the treaty-making power (in which case a two-thirds vote is required), or jointly with the House, in which case a majority must concur. As there has been no action by either treaty or joint resolution, it follows that none of the laws of the United States apply to Porto Rico. She is in the same condition in reference to us that Hawaii was before the annexation of those islands was completed by Congress.

There is nothing strange about the facts that recruiting for the regular army before the war was so slack that it was hard to keep it up to 25,000 men, and so slow during the war itself that its numbers, instead of being increased, as Congress had authorized, to 61,000 men, reached only about 50,000; or about the other fact that newspapers in all parts of the country should be expressing the opinion that a draft will be necessary if the size of the regular army is to be raised permanently to 100,000 men, in order to garrison colonies in the East and West Indies and put down insurrections in the Philippines. England is the only great Power in Europe which does not have a compulsory system of military service, and the experience of England has been the same as that of

this country. It has grown increasingly difficult to keep up the size of the English army, and it has proved necessary to lower the standard of admission, because not enough young men of the former qualifications would volunteer. The opportunities for a career open to a vigorous young man in the United States are far greater than in England, and consequently but a few care to enter the army except those who have failed outside of it. It seems, therefore, a reasonable opinion which we find in the New Bedford *Mercury*, a Republican newspaper of Massachusetts, that "we very much doubt if there are a thousand first-class young men in America who can see a sufficient reason for their sacrificing any part of their lives in policing the Philippines. Such as they are, possibly ten times that number could be procured without much trouble, but they would not be the best specimens of young American manhood, by any means."

It may be a mighty fine thing for us to go into the colonial business, but, just as we are going into it, other nations are getting out of it, thanking their stars that they are rid of a fatal drain on their resources. The sense of relief in Spain at being finally quit of the colonies is unmistakable. Consequent upon this is the demand of the business men's meeting in Madrid the other day that the army and all military expenses be at once cut down. They know where their taxes have gone. Italy is just pulling out of her disastrous colonial venture in Africa, and cutting her naval expenditures to the quick, hoping that she may thereby escape the bankruptcy on the verge of which she has been shivering. And the probability is strong that Portugal is on the point of surrendering all her colonies in South Africa. This, affirms the well-informed writer, "Diplomaticus," in the *Fortnightly*, is the real subject-matter of the Anglo-German agreement. It was no mere affair of Delagoa Bay, but of the entire Portuguese possessions in Africa, amounting all told to more than 900,000 square miles. Portugal is practically bankrupt. She cannot borrow a cent in any city of Europe. Yet she is going to have to pay smart damages, as a result of the Delagoa Bay Railway arbitration, and where will she get the money? By selling her colonies, replies the *Fortnightly* writer, and he asserts it as of his own knowledge that the Anglo-German agreement is one covering a right of preëmption of the various Portuguese colonies, with the purchase money assigned for each. "In short, Great Britain and Germany have become joint heirs to the estates of the Portuguese crown in Africa, and, while undertaking the reversion in common, they have prudently provided against any clashing of interests when the time arrives for entering upon their heritage." This may not be literally true, but it is literally true that the colonies have long been a disastrous drain upon Portugal.

The *Engineering News* publishes an important statement in reference to the present status and probable future of the Panama Canal by Gen. Henry L. Abbott of the Engineer Corps of the United States army. Gen. Abbott was a member of a board selected by the new Panama Canal Company to make a fresh survey of the work and an estimate of the cost and time necessary for completing the canal. Associated with him were a number of European engineers, including the chief engineers of the Manchester and the Kiel ship canals. Everything relating to the work at Panama was done *de novo*. Nothing was taken for granted, and no allowance was made for even the simplest parts of the estimates made by the De Lesseps company. The conclusions of Gen. Abbott are that the canal on the plan of eight lift locks—four on either side of the Culebra summit—is entirely feasible, that the work can be completed for $100,000,000, and that it can be done in ten years at the furthest, and probably in less time. The estimate of the European engineers is eight years. When completed, the length of the canal will be 43 4-10 miles of inland construction, besides 3 1-10 miles in the bay of Panama, *i. e.*, 46½ miles, as compared with 176 miles by the Nicaragua route. Gen. Abbott submits various considerations tending to show that the Panama route presents fewer natural difficulties than the Nicaragua route, and is less exposed to torrential rainfall and to earthquake. He says that the average rainfall at the Isthmus of Panama is 93 inches, while at Nicaragua it is 256 inches, or nearly three times as much. There is no active volcano within 200 miles of the former, "while three lie in close vicinity of the route of the Nicaragua Canal, and one within only 40 miles of its western locks." In conclusion, Gen. Abbott expresses the opinion that there is only one interoceanic canal, that of Panama, that could be judiciously undertaken at the present time. He accordingly recommends that our Government make as thorough an examination of the Panama route and work as has been made of the Nicaragua route before embarking its money in the latter, since two canals are not needed even if two are feasible.

Where are the remains of Christopher Columbus? He died at Valladolid May 20, 1506, and was buried there. His remains were afterwards transferred to the Carthusian Monastery of Las Cuevas, Seville. In 1536 they were removed to San Domingo and interred in the cathedral there. The records of the cathedral were destroyed by fire in 1575. In 1795 San Domingo was ceded to France, and the remains of Columbus or of some other person buried there were transferred with great pomp and ceremony to the cathedral at Havana. Nobody is able to affirm that these were the remains of Columbus, but they answered every purpose of national pride and gratitude. Now they are to be sent back to Spain, but nobody knows now any better than before whether they are the real relics of Columbus or not. Yet they will answer the purposes of national feeling just as well now as they did one hundred and three years ago. Surely we ought not to begrudge Spain any comfort she can gain from the bones of Columbus whether genuine or otherwise; and one voyage more will do the old navigator no harm.

If ever Lord Salisbury was to take a "firm stand," he was bound to take it in the case of the French at Fashoda. The official correspondence published on Sunday shows that he will not even discuss the right of the French to stay there. The Paris municipality has hastened to name its Rue de Fashoda, but it can only be a street along which the French Government must beat as dignified a retreat as possible. France cannot complain of any sudden change of front, or any lack of notification, by the English Government. The Nile all the way to Lake Nyanza has steadily and for years been claimed as within the British sphere of influence, and by Liberals and Tories alike. On March 25, 1895, when rumors of a French expedition to the Nile were afloat, Sir Edward Grey, Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs in Lord Rosebery's Government, said in the House of Commons:

> "The advance of a French expedition under secret instructions right from the other side of Africa into a territory over which our claims have been known for so long, would be not merely an inconsistent and unexpected act, but it must be perfectly well known to the French Government that it would be an unfriendly act and would be so viewed by England."

The French, it is true, have always felt bound, as M. Hanotaux wrote, to express "a reservation" about England's claims to the Nile valley, but they do not now seriously appear to intend contesting them. They speak of Major Marchand as "an emissary of civilization," with no instructions and no right to decide questions of territorial limits; and it is probable, therefore, that they will disavow his hoisting the French flag at Fashoda as they did Lieut. Bretonnet's expedition to the Niger. In any case, there can be no mistaking the British intention to reclaim, in the name of Egypt, all of the Sudan and the Nile. Nor can there be the slightest doubt that the reëstablishment of English rule in those vast regions which the Khalifa has made the habitations of cruelty, will be an unspeakable blessing to those who dwell there and a great gain for civilization.

PUBLIC OPINION AND EMPIRE.

One of the most dangerous and ignorant delusions which "patriots," imperialists, and Jingoes are engaged in spreading, is that, although America has no civil service, no specific experience, no machinery of government for the rule of dependencies; although our whole polity was framed, and has been carried on for one hundred years, for the express purpose of banishing inequality from among us, for ousting it from all places both in our manners and in our politics, yet the minute that by mere accident a distant dependency falls into our hands, a line of skilful officers will turn up to govern subjects. We find it very difficult to characterize such notions in the way they deserve, they have about them so much of the air of childishness which has marked our politics of late. They remind us of the grand idea of last spring, that you had only to go to war without an army, and a commissariat and hospital service would promptly appear, as also smokeless powder and skilful and experienced officers. What we evidently need in our public affairs, as the silver question showed, is men who will remember that government is business, and has to be conducted on the same principles and on the same basis of probability as private affairs. Therefore when a Jingo or a patriot begins to talk what the boys call "rot," it does not make the slightest difference about "his heart being in the right place" any more than if he were offering himself to take charge of your children's estate.

If a man were to present himself for that purpose, and tell you that he had never taken charge of estates, that he knew nothing of business of any description, but that his father had left him so much money, and he played such a good game of golf and had so much natural talent, that he felt sure he would be able to do the business very soon, what would you say to him? How long would you talk to him? And yet this is the stuff we are listening to every day about the government of dependencies, and these are the responsibilities that Englishmen are called in every week to egg us on to assume, without any knowledge of our capacity or political manners.

Now, this matter is growing more serious every day. The Republican party is apparently mad enough to be making ready "with a light heart" to ask the American people to enact that American citizens shall be dragged to the Philippines for enforced military service, like the French penal legions to Algiers. We may safely leave the American people to deal with this proposal when it comes, but there is one point which may escape their attention. Among the devices resorted to to persuade them that public opinion at home will be able to exert sufficient restraint on the politicians in our different possessions to prevent them from robbing and killing the natives, as they have done our Indians here in America, is the audacious assertion that public opinion would keep an eye on them, and, as the canon lawyers say, "restrain their manners and excesses." What this restraint would amount to we can best learn from the experience of England. We assert positively that the English public does not now pay, and never has paid, any steady or useful or intelligent attention to any colonial affairs, except the affairs of colonies settled by their own countrymen and race. About the great Indian possessions and the Pacific islands, nobody in England knows or cares anything except the returned officials who have administered them. It has been the chief lament of English politicians ever since the days of Warren Hastings, that the English public will not pay any attention to Indian affairs. The public knows nothing and cares little about them except when there is a war going on. It has been notorious for eighty years that the minute an Indian debate is brought up by some enthusiastic reformer, the House of Commons empties. You might walk on foot from one end of England to the other to-day without meeting with a single man to talk Indian affairs with you, or to pretend to know anything about them. They are left wholly to the Indian officials. These are, for India, the English public. It is they, and they only, who look after the Indian people. It is they who right their wrongs or redress their grievances, and they are as unlike anything our politics would turn out for the work of distant government as Maud S. is to an Indian bronco.

It has taken one hundred years to build up the English Indian service. It is the product of a variety of conditions, both social and political, which cannot be reproduced in this country. About distant foreign possessions the average Englishman does not trouble himself, or pretend to know any more than the average American here. About temperance, and liquor, and labor, and the suffrage, and about land tenures, he is greatly occupied, because they are his affairs and those of his family, but not about those far-off things which only concern foreigners. The notion that our expansionists are trying to diffuse, that as soon as we got colonies of Tagals, Malays, Cubans, and mongrel Spaniards, our people would leave their industries, and neglect their daily bread and their domestic affairs, in order to plunge into, master, and manage those of these brown-colored people, is an attempt at imposture which can be excused only on the ground of excessive warlike excitement. The notion that the far-off business of these half-savage heathen men would so absorb the attention of the American people as to make their own tremendous interests seem "parochial," appears to us to argue more contempt for the popular intelligence than any bit of deception that the politicians have yet ventured on, though they have been both enterprising and inventive.

THE TRUE NATIONAL HERO.

Every war leaves behind one or more heroes. Some are heroes for having won great victories with overwhelming force, like Dewey; others for having carried a prolonged conflict to a successful issue with a small force, like Washington; others for avoiding fighting at all, like Fabius Cunctator. But it is not often that a man's heroism is measured by the good his victories have done. As a rule nothing goes so far to make his fame as the amount of misery he has caused the enemy. We are afraid this is what most of the heroes of our late war must rely on mainly for their glory. We say we are going to do a world of good to the vanquished, but we have not yet begun. The offices are not yet quite ready for the politicians who are to fill them and do the work of "elevation."

But we can say with truth and sincerity that there is one American soldier among us to-day whose fight is still going on, and whose victory is within sight and will not cost a tear or a sigh to one honest man or woman, a drop of blood to a college youth, or a single pæan to a fighting college president or to a bellicose bishop. Should he succeed, he will have done more for his native country by far than 100,000 men led by Col. Roosevelt could possibly have done for us in any part of the world, under any name. He will be the real hero of this period, the only one, probably, whose name will be remembered for having shown, not on one, but on a hundred fields, the kind of courage, the only kind of courage, of which the country is short—moral courage, something of which not over one man in a thousand is possessed.

The hero we have in mind is a plain American soldier of liberty, honesty, and good government, named the Rev. Silas C. Swallow of Pennsylvania. He wears no uniform nor armor, and yet there is probably not a man in the community to-day whose right to be called "a just and faithful knight of God" would meet with less dispute. There can be no question about the cause or object of his war. The object is to rescue not a Spanish-American island from the tyranny of Spain, but to rescue a very large section of the United States from the tyranny of a huge band of native thieves. This tyranny has lasted for more than twenty years, and, so far from any attempt having been made to overthrow it by any Jingo or professional patriot, its leaders, as if in mockery of the oppressed, have received high honors and rewards from our own legitimate gov-

ernment; which honors and rewards are paid for out of the pockets of the victims of the tyranny.

There has always been a certain number of oppressed who kept protesting and groaning, but none of our Presidents has ever been able to make up his mind to come to their relief. Whenever he interfered in the least, it was, as in the case of Chili, on the side of the usurper. He continued to ask Quay to dinner, and pretended to think that it was right to steal for the party, and forge for the party, and embezzle for the party, and if you remonstrated, he asked, Were the Democrats any better? and how we supposed a young man was to get on in politics in our country if you were always sticking your nose into other people's affairs? And this went on for a generation, until the day came when it was openly declared that Cuba and Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands in the Pacific Ocean, and various other dark lands would not only have to be liberated, but evangelized, before anything could possibly be done for the poor Pennsylvanians. Not only this, but the thieves themselves shouted, "That's so," and large numbers of them went to Cuba and Porto Rico and wept salt tears and charged batteries over the way the Spaniards were robbing the Cubans. At this point Mr. Swallow took arms and enlisted for the war. "What is your war to be for or about?" he was asked. "About theft," he replied. "What is your platform?" they said. "Thou shalt not steal," he answered, and so he took the field. There was no rush for commissions in his army. No one offered to "keep the bridge with him," and the thieves laughed at him and his declaration of war, just as that wretched boss Goliath did at David.

But they soon found he was not a three-months' man. He was prepared for a long war. In 1897 he polled 120,000 votes for Treasurer, and the thieves began to be alarmed; and the more alarmed they got, the louder they yelled about the sad case of Cuba and the more they insisted on giving her honest government. Finding his attention still not diverted, and the case of Cuba not pitiful enough, they began to shout for "expansion," and assured Swallow that it would be ruinous to liberate Pennsylvania without "expanding"; that two-thirds of the globe was waiting for expansion, and that no matter what happened in Pennsylvania, mankind would despise us if we did not expand. A weaker or simpler man than Mr. Swallow would have been cajoled, abandoning the liberation of Pennsylvania, and would have taken to expanding in China and Palestine and the Philippines. But he was made of sterner stuff. He fought on. He faced the guns; he went up the hills under a heavy fire. The thieves saw him coming, and began to write despairing dispatches to their homes and throw the blame on one another, when suddenly Providence interfered on his behalf just as he did when Dewey got inside the harbor of Cavité without being seen, or as he did when he started Cervera out of the harbor of Santiago. One of the thieves' bank cashiers committed suicide, leaving behind him a secret drawer. He heard the sound of Swallow's guns, and felt he must get out of a world where expansion and evangelization of heathen were so slow.

Swallow is now moving on the enemy's citadel, and is generous enough to offer to hold a debate in a public square with any old thief, and establish to the satisfaction of any bellicose, expanding, or evangelizing bishop or college president the following propositions concerning one of the evangelizing States—that the State has lost heavily "from misappropriation of interest, padded pay-rolls, unnecessary committee expenses, extravagant appropriations, unlawful salaries, and by stealing under forms of law"; that the fire which destroyed the old capitol was the work of an incendiary; that in the rebuilding of the capitol there was an unfair system of competitive bidding; that at least $3,000,000 interest on State deposits has been stolen during the last twenty years, and that $1,000,000 has been paid to different persons who have rendered no adequate service to the State.

"Ride on, O just and faithful Knight of God!
Ride on; the prize is near!"

THE LATEST EXPOSURE OF QUAY

For many years it has been well known that Senator Quay was the fountain-head of bad government in Pennsylvania. He has absolutely controlled legislation at Harrisburg, and he has usually owned most of the State officials, particularly the State Treasurer. One reason why he must control the Treasury was in order to get the use of State money for himself and his friends. Five or six million dollars a year of such money was turned over to favored banks, which paid the State no interest, and Mr. Wanamaker has shown that 2½ per cent. interest on the average balance of $5,014,814 in these banks between January 1, 1892, and January 1, 1898, would have amounted to $752,222, which went to the Quay machine.

Ex-Congressman Darlington of West Chester was recently forced to tell under oath how the system operated in the case of the broken Chester County Trust Company, one of Quay's "pet banks," of which Darlington was President. He testified that the "current expenses" charged on the books of the company were actually political contributions to the Republican State and county committees; that these contributions were made "pursuant to a sort of implied understanding with the parties who were influential in controlling State deposits"; and that, "as long as the State deposit was in the Trust Company, there was paid in political contributions each year from 2 to 3 per cent." The Philadelphia *Press*, in publishing this revelation, said that "Mr. Darlington's testimony only gives the sanction of the oath of a responsible witness to what was well known before, though lacking in legal proof. The State money has been earning interest for many years, which the State has not received, but which was paid to the politicians composing the State machine."

Mr. Wanamaker in his interesting volume of speeches on government in Pennsylvania under Quay—which, by the way, we commend as a text-book for the course on the science of government in every educational institution—thus described the People's Bank of Philadelphia, the most favored of all the "pet banks":

> "From the beginning this bank has been in politics, and rotten politics. It was organized by politicians for politicians. It stood for a corrupt combination between corporations, politicians, and public officers. All its profits did not come from this, but a very large share did. It has always had 'influence.' It has always profited by it. Organized by an ex-State Treasurer, it has always had State funds. It has continuously carried a deposit ranging from $300,000 to $1,200,000, while school districts are waiting in vain for school money long past due. It has held city funds. It has held other 'funds.' It was a clearing-house for personal profit, some doubtless legal and some not; but none would bear the light of day. Politicians brought their personal efforts to this scheme for profit. Public officers brought the public money intrusted to them. The bank received it, dealt in it, profited by it, and divided the spoils."

A few months ago the People's Bank collapsed, and its cashier committed suicide, in remorse over the crimes which the Quay machine had led him into committing by tampering with the funds committed to his charge, in violation of the laws which forbid the personal use of public money by public officers, and which inflict especially severe penalties upon the cashiers of banks who engage, directly or indirectly, in the purchase or sale of stocks.

Everybody believed that Quay was "mixed up" in these frauds, but everybody supposed that his tracks would be covered up. Even when the boss, his son, and a lieutenant were charged with conspiracy in connection with the use of public moneys deposited in the People's Bank, it seemed too much to expect that the crime could be established. But the papers discovered in a private drawer of the dead cashier's desk by the receiver, which were produced in court by the District Attorney on Wednesday of last week, leave not a particle of doubt as to his guilt. These letters and telegrams are proof that Quay was constantly speculating in stocks from the Senate chamber through the State money which he controlled in the People's Bank; that the State Treasurer on one occasion mailed to the cashier a check for $100,000, for the credit of the Com-

monwealth's fund in that bank, making $600,000 in all, with "the understanding that I am not to draw against any part of this $600,000 deposit until the Hon. R. R. Quay [son of the Senator] has paid or arranged satisfactorily to you the loan of $100,000 which you are to make him next week"—the implication being that the $500,000 State money previously in the bank was already covered by earlier mortgages of this same character or rendered otherwise unavailable, so that when R. R. Quay needed to borrow $100,000 from the bank on security of the State deposit, a fresh $100,000 from Harrisburg was a necessary condition of the loan; that in the computation of interest on State funds to be divided among certain people, the amount due "Q.," due "M. S. Q.," due "Quay," was regularly figured out in a private account-book kept by the cashier.

We do not recall in the history of the country more shameful disclosures in court regarding the character of a United States Senator. They ought to deprive Quay of any chance of reëlection to the Senate by the Legislature which will be chosen next month. But will they? We recall that in 1885, when Quay wanted to run for State Treasurer, Charles Emory Smith declared in the Philadelphia *Press* that his nomination must not be thought of, because it would "take the lid from off the State Treasury, and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb," and that since that publication he has been elected State Treasurer, elected United States Senator, reelected Senator, and continuously boss of the Republican "organization," and thereby of the State. We reflect, also, that the question whether a candidate for Senator is an honest man or a thief is one of those questions which, as Mr. Roosevelt remarked the other night, "to the world at large seem parochial"; and that we are told that what the voter ought to think about is whether the flag shall stay where it has once been raised, and whether we shall carry our civilization throughout the world—and that nobody is so enthusiastic for the flag and for the spread of civilization as Matthew S. Quay.

ROOSEVELT'S STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS.

One fact about Col. Roosevelt's candidacy is recognized on all sides. He cannot be elected Governor without the aid of independent votes. He and his campaign managers are fully aware of this. They know that there are not enough "straight" Republicans in the State to give any candidate a majority by many thousands of votes. It has been plain from the beginning of the canvass that the one issue which would attract independent support is honest, unbossed government of the State. It was because they thought that Roosevelt would give them this that the great body of independent voters resolved to support him when he was first put in the field. Even after he took the bold step of calling upon Platt, and even after the platform of the convention had approved Gov. Black's administration, the great body of them, so strong was their faith in his personal honesty and courage, were still resolved to put their trust in him.

He gave them their first serious repulse in his Carnegie Hall speech. We will not say that that speech cost him thousands of votes, but we simply state what is common knowledge among all persons familiar with current opinion among independent voters, when we say that it chilled the zeal of thousands in his cause and made them hesitate about voting for him. The effect could not be otherwise. The independent voter is very rarely a Jingo. What he wants in this campaign is good State government. He is not going to vote to "approve the war," or to "repudiate the war," or to influence opinion in Havana, or Madrid, or Paris, or Berlin, or London. Least of all is he going so to cast his vote as to encourage the national Government to rush blindly into a policy of unlimited and unreasoning expansion. If Col. Roosevelt's election is to have that effect, the great body of independent voters will do nothing to bring it about. If Senator Foraker, whom independent voters detest beyond all other Jingo ranters, or Senator Lodge, whom they distrust in equal degree, or Senator Aldrich, whom they look upon as the attorney of the Sugar Trust in the United States Senate, comes here to tell them that Roosevelt's election will mean the triumph of the principles which each and all of them represent in national politics, the certain result will be to start an independent stampede away from Roosevelt.

This is the simple truth, known and recognized of all men. That it has gained recognition during the last few days from both Roosevelt and the Republican managers is made evident in several ways. His managers say that the Colonel will make speeches throughout the State, and will tell the people the kind of Governor he will be in case of election. That is what the independent voters want to know. They care nothing about his views on empire or on a large army and navy. Republican voters may care for such views, but they will support him anyway, and he does not need to trouble himself about them. He struck the right note in his speech in Brooklyn on Saturday evening, when he said:

> "I will strive with all my might, so far as I can see my duty, to do it for the whole people. I shall feel that it is to the people that I owe my position. To them I will hold myself accountable, and I shall strive so to administer that great office that when I am through, each one of you shall have cause for satisfaction in having put forth his effort to put me there. I shall feel that I can best serve my party by helping that party serve the State. And there is one thing, one test, on which I shall insist in every public officer with whom I ever have anything whatsoever to do, and that is rigid honesty. I feel that the two great principles for this nation nowadays are these: first, to uphold the national honor abroad, and second, and even more important, to insist upon the highest standard of honesty at home. As for the course that I intend to pursue, it will be modelled upon those very ancient rules of conduct which you will find in the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule. And loyal though I shall be to the principles for which I stand, the party principles, there are one or two rules of conduct that stand above any party principles, and they are included in the command, 'Thou shalt not steal, nor shalt thou let any one else steal.' "

On that platform he can win, but he will meet disaster if he puts that in the second place and the war and expansion in front. There is no doubt about the attitude of the people of the State toward the Black Administration. They are disgusted with its canal corruption and with Payn and Aldrich as its leading representatives. Their natural inclination, as in all like situations, is to turn the offending party out and trust to the other party to do a little better. This inclination is checked in two ways, first, by Roosevelt's personal character, and, second, by the Tammany influence which is behind Van Wyck's candidacy. If the Democrats had nominated some man of high character who was not the personal choice of Croker and was not the brother of Croker's Mayor, Col. Roosevelt's prospects would be much poorer to-day than they are.

But it will not do for him to trust too much to the popular dislike of Tammany. In the first place, there is a huge body of voters in all the large cities of the State who like Tammany and will vote with it from choice. For reasons which need not be mentioned now, that body will be unusually large this year. The glamour of the war, as personified in Roosevelt, will not be felt within this mass. The voters whom he can influence are all ouside this mass and all outside the other great mass, the regular Republicans. He can obtain their support, as we have said, by convincing them of his ability and determination to give the State honest rule, and he can alienate it by convincing them that his election would be construed as an "imperialistic triumph." Against the prospect of a national Jingo boom at Washington, even the spectre of Tammany control of the State would not avail as a worse alternative. Thousands of voters will reason that at its worst Tammany control would be local and for only two years, whereas if we were once to enter upon an era of unlimited, unrestrained expansion, the consequences would affect the whole country, would be incomparably more harmful to our national life than anything Tammany could do, and would be irrevocable. We can upset a Tammany government in this State at the end of two years, but we can never turn back after we have surrendered the nation to the policy of "manifest destiny." Col. Roosevelt and

his managers may not like this reasoning, but it is going on in the minds of the voters who will decide his fate next month, and it will be the part of political wisdom for him and them to take due account of it.

LABOR COPARTNERSHIP.

Few persons in this country are acquainted with the term 'Labor Copartnership,' which forms the title of a book of 350 pages by Henry D. Lloyd, just published by Harper & Bros. This system constitutes the latest outgrowth of coöperation in Great Britain. What is commonly understood by coöperation is the coöperative store, where the cooperators furnish the capital for the store and receive dividends in proportion to their purchases. Labor copartnership is an evolution of the coöperative store. It is production on the partnership principle. It is not confined to any particular industry. It embraces farming and butter-making, as well as weaving, printing, house-painting, hosiery, silk-making, shoe-making, gas-making, and other manufactures. There are now in Great Britain 152 societies of this description, having a paid-up capital of more than one million pounds, and an aggregate annual profit of £112,991, after paying all expenses, including the usual rate of wages in their respective trades. Some of these are managed wholly by the workingmen concerned. Others, like the South Metropolitan Gas Company of London, are conducted on the capitalistic plan, but the shareholding is so arranged that a large part of the profits go to the coal-stokers and other men who perform the manual labor. There are almost as many different varieties of labor partnerships as there are different occupations, and the distinguishing feature of the whole is that they are all on a paying basis, although they did not all get there at the first attempt. The chief significance of the movement is that, so far as it has progressed, it has realized all that socialism ever promised to the working classes, and has done so without any social disturbance, without encroaching upon any other person's rights, and without asking any special favors from the Government.

Nearly all of these enterprises have begun in a fortuitous, unpremeditated way. A few men have contributed a few shillings or pounds that they had saved as capital and applied it to some kind of work, and, having confidence in each other, and being mutually faithful and industrious, their business has grown. They have taken on new hands as required, each new one becoming a partner as well as an employee, and so they have gone on adding to the common plant by diligence, honesty, intelligence, and thrift. For example, the "Equity," which is a coöperative boot and shoe factory in Leicester, began in 1887 in a little, insignificant shop in a back street of that city. It now has a building so large that the hall in the top story, which is devoted to the social and educational purposes of its members, will seat 250 people, and there are besides a library, a reading-room, and a piano. This society owns the building and the land on which it is situated. "There has never been a strike," says Mr. Lloyd, and why should workmen strike when there is nobody to be injured but themselves? As a general rule, the labor copartnerships do not favor high wages. Cheapness of production and low prices in the market are the ends they aim at. They think that labor gets its surest and best reward by the abundance of goods placed within its reach, differing in this respect from the silver men in the United States, who consider high prices the best thing for the poor.

One of the most remarkable institutions described by Mr. Lloyd is the Irish Agricultural Organization Society, which owes its success chiefly to the labors and genius of Mr. Horace Plunkett, M.P. Mr. Plunkett first addressed himself to the task of establishing coöperative creameries among Irish farmers—that is, creameries owned and operated by themselves. The task was not an easy one. The farmers had no faith in it, but Mr. Plunkett persevered. His idea was that a saving could be effected by making all the butter of a dozen farms in one place and by one set of rules, that the highest scientific skill could thus be brought to the farmers' aid and the greatest savings of the raw material effected, and that these savings might be and ought to be realized by the farmer himself. By the end of 1893 he had thirty coöperative creameries going, and it was found that the cows yielded an increased profit of 10 to 35 per cent. Not a penny of capital had been contributed by anybody but the farmers themselves. This was only the beginning, however. The creameries joined together to form a society for disposing of their products, and another for buying their seeds and manures, thus saving an additional profit.

The success of this society has been very great, and it has contributed more than anything else to the pacification of the country and the subsidence of Irish unrest. The subordinate societies, which in 1893 numbered 30, have grown to 131. There are 8,750 shareholders. Their output for 1896 was $1,417,290. Perhaps the most surprising result of all is found in one part of Ireland, where the farmers by coöperation in the first year were able to save in the cost of their material more than the total rent paid by all the members of the association. The total profit and saving to these farmers arising from the coöperative creameries and the cooperative purchases since the experiment began in 1889, has been $2,156,765. And it all grows out of the initiative and intelligence of one man, who took for his keynote the saying that "the Irish farmers must work out their own salvation." What a contrast is this with the fuming and vaporing of Carl Marx, and his endeavors to set class against class by talking about the exploitation of labor by capital. Along comes a man named Plunkett, without writing any books or having any theories except the precious one of self-reliance, and puts $2,000,000 into the pockets of Irish peasants and contentment into their hearts in the course of ten years, without doing any harm to any other living creature.

Perhaps the most interesting chapter in Mr. Lloyd's book is his story of the gradual engrafting of workman-ownership upon the South Metropolitan Gas Company of London, which has a capital of $35,000,000 and annual earnings of $3,300,000. This company has 3,000 men in its employ. It shares its profits with them, and has during the present year admitted two workingmen to its board of directors. This great work has been built up and conducted on the plan of labor partnership by Mr. Thomas Livesey and his son Mr. George Livesey. It was never more flourishing than it is today. The history of the company is as interesting as a novel—far more so than Mr. Bellamy's 'Looking Backward'—because every word of it is true and can be verified by any onlooker who will take the trouble, as Mr. Lloyd did, to go and see for himself. We do not look for the millennium very soon, but we do think that it is more likely to come by the road followed by Mr. Plunkett, the Liveseys, and the men who are working along the same line with them than by any other now visible.

THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

ST. HELEN'S, Isle of Wight,
September 17, 1898.

The British Association for the Advancement of Science has just held a very successful meeting at Bristol, under the presidency of Sir William Crookes, the distinguished chemist. The President's address was delivered on Wednesday evening, September 7, before a large audience. Sir William discussed the world's food supply, finding that the production of wheat was not keeping pace with the consumption, and suggesting that the requisite nitrate of soda for raising the needed crops could be secured by the fixation of the free nitrogen of the air. He himself showed, at a soirée of the Royal Society in 1892, a process by which the atmospheric air could be ignited by passing a strong induction current between terminals, thus producing nitrous and nitric acids. He declared that Niagara alone could generate, "without much lessening its mighty flow," the electric energy necessary to produce the 12,000,000 tons of nitrate of soda required. Taking up some of the later developments of chemical and physical science, the President mentioned the discovery of new gases by Ramsey, the development of wireless telegraphy by Lodge and Marconi, recent advances in Röntgen-ray work, and

other remarkable scientific events. He also announced the discovery by himself of a new earth, which he proposes to call "monium"—seeing that "the group of lines which betrayed its existence stand *alone*, almost at the extreme end of the ultra-violet spectrum."

Something of a stir was caused by Sir William's allusions at the end of his address to psychic research and telepathy. It will be remembered that he some time ago announced his conversion to telepathy, which he describes in this address as "the fundamental law (as I believe it to be) that thoughts and images may be transferred from one mind to another without the agency of the recognized organs of sense—that knowledge may enter the human mind without being communicated in any hitherto known or recognized ways." His President's address before the Society for Psychical Research will also be recalled. He brought the subject well within the scope of scientific explanation at Bristol by advocating the hypothesis—not new in its general features—that there is some form of vibratory transmission from brain to brain. The speaker likened the brain cells to Lodge coherers, and proceeded: "The structure of brain and nerve being similar, it is conceivable there may be present masses of such nerve coherers in the brain, whose special function it may be to receive impulses brought from without through the connecting sequence of ether waves of appropriate order of magnitude." While the British Association is to be congratulated on this soberness of view in the President, it is not likely that the left wing of the Psychic Research army will be at all satisfied. Indeed, they had challenged Sir William to make this the occasion of a pronunciamiento. In the official sermon before the Association in the Cathedral of Bristol on Sunday, the Bishop declared that Sir William Crookes had not gone far enough, and that, in appealing to the brain and ether waves for an explanation of telepathy, he had "put a diaphragm before his eyes." On the other hand, psychologists will look with some impatience upon the confusion which leads to the association of "psychical research" with experimental psychology in the context of the sentence, "Difficulties are things to be overcome, even in the elusory branch of research known as experimental psychology." For if experimental psychology means anything, it means definiteness of problems and method. It is suggestive to note that the experimental psychologists do not interest themselves in psychical research, and, with a notable exception or two, the general psychologists of standing do not, while the men of eminence who are convinced of telepathy are largely from other departments, notably physicists, who presumably have had no training in psychology. Sir William Crookes illustrates this in his address in his allusions to "alternating personalities" and hypnotism.

The sectional presidents' addresses were, as usual, of high quality. In zoölogy, Prof. Weldon rescued so-called "chance" from its disrepute, showing that through the labors of Galton and Karl Pearson statistical results heretofore refractory and due to so-called chance can now be treated and their curves of distribution analyzed. This was apropos of the "objection to natural selection" that order cannot come out of chance; but the value of the newer mathematical way of treating variations, etc., goes much further than the testing of natural selection. It puts in the hands of naturalists an instrument of extraordinary value for the quantitative study of the life-data upon which the theory of evolution depends, and already Pearson has applied it to confirm the law of heredity (Galton's), according to which the offspring inherits, on the average, one-half from his parents, one-fourth from his grandparents, and the rest from all his earlier ancestors. Heredity is the citadel of what is positive in biological progress, and it has heretofore been largely theorized about. Biologists must now either learn to use this exact method or submit their observations to those who can. Prof. Weldon also gave the results of some experiments of his, conducted with great ingenuity and industry, showing that the diminished frontal breadth of crabs in Plymouth Bay is due to a destructive death-rate among those of larger frontal measurements caused by china clays in the water; that is, he demonstrates natural selection at work upon such insignificant variations as slight differences in frontal breadth. This is to illustrate the answer to another of the "Objections to Natural Selection" (such was the title of his address), viz., the objection that small differences are not of sufficient importance for evolution. Prof. Weldon's definition of natural selection in terms of such differences is good: "The theory of natural selection is a theory of the importance of differences between individual animals." It is to be hoped that this paper will have wide circulation among naturalists, and will lead them to study the memoirs of Prof. Pearson, the results of which are more popularly stated in the latter author's work 'The Chances of Death.'*

Before the physical section the President, Prof. Ayrton, reported some interesting experiments on the physics of smell. He found that the metals, even iron, steel, and brass, contrary to general opinion, have no smell when perfectly clean and not touched by the hand; yet when slightly breathed upon or rubbed with the skin of the hand, their characteristic smells come out. The finger will cause a peculiar smell when rubbed on aluminium even through a layer of moist linen. He attributes the effect to chemical action (the production of hydro-carbons), which is aided by the friction of rubbing; and thinks that no particles of the metal reach the nose. Another interesting result is that the diffusion of smells through the air is extremely slow, the appearance of quick passage being due to currents of air. Even in active smelling we need to sniff up the odor, thus producing an inward draught through the nostrils. He finds, indeed, that we have two ways of stimulating our sense of smell: that mentioned, the sniffing *inwards*, and, besides that, the stimulation from particles in the mouth, which give flavors when we breathe *outwards*. "We can experience," he says, "alternately two totally different smells by placing one substance outside the nose and the other inside the mouth, the one smell being noticed in inhaling and the other in exhaling." The rapidity of diffusion of most smells is greatly increased in a vacuum. Prof. Ayrton also spoke of the new publication *Science Abstracts*, of which the first issue appeared last January. It arose from the need of having prompt and reliable abstracts of all memoirs and papers on physical subjects appearing in all languages, and was undertaken jointly by the Physical Society of London and the Institution of Electrical Engineers—the former society having in 1895 begun a series of such abstracts of papers in foreign languages only. It would seem to be a useful and reliable publication, and the appeal for its support will no doubt be responded to by American physicists.

In anthropology Dr. Brabrook gave a presidential résumé of recent progress. He spoke of the "Anthropological Sciences" after the French fashion, including all the "sciences of man." It is doubtful whether one section of any association can cover so much ground; and it is evident that both the speaker and his section have a much more circumscribed province. He emphasized folk-lore and the evolution of conceptions—particularly religious conceptions—as illustrating the generalization that there is a "tendency of mankind to develop the like fancies and ideas at the like stage of intellectual infancy." He also mentioned the generalizations that are based upon analogy between epochs of individual development and those of mankind at large and between existing savages and primitive peoples. The illustrations given of the first great generalization, though mainly not new, were very instructive; but in dealing with the analogy between the individual and the race he drew only on the folk-lore collections of Mrs. Gomme and Miss Fox, neglecting entirely all the material and the discussions published by American psychologists in recent years. He reported progress on the part of the Ethnographical Survey Committee who are making exhaustive records of everything concerning the more primitive peoples in the British Empire. The project for the formation of a bureau of ethnology for Greater Britain, which I mentioned in noticing the meeting at Toronto last year, has also made progress. The trustees of the British Museum have consented to have such a bureau established in connection with the Museum, and joint representations to the Government are being made by the British Museum and the British Association. In this connection Dr. Brabrook made the customary complimentary allusion to the American Bureau of Ethnology in very strong terms.

The other sectional presidents' addresses were by Prof. Japp (chemical) on "Stereo-Chemistry and Vitalism" (an original argument for vitalism based on the molecular and crystalline asymmetry of certain organic compounds—"a phenomenon inexplicable on the assumption that merely mechanical symmetric forces are at work"—which will, no doubt, be welcomed by the rapidly lessening school of American vitalists); W. H. Hudleston (geological); Col. Church (geographical); J. Bonar (economic); Sir J. W. Barry (mechanical); Prof. Bower (botanical)—an interesting discussion of plant morphology; Prof. Rücker (conference on Terrestrial Magnetism).*

In the proceedings of the sections much work was done. Physiology and zoölogy met together, seeing that the Cambridge Congresses exhausted much of the available material. For the same reason the attendance in these sections was smaller than usual. Of the important papers read in this section, I may mention the report by Prof. Poulton of Oxford and Miss Sanders of ex-

*Published by Arnold. The biological essays should be published separately. As it is, one must pay $8 for two large volumes of essays on different subjects.

*All the sectional addresses and Sir William Crookes's can be had bound together in paper for one shilling (Offices of the British Association, Burlington House, W., London).

periments to test the action of Natural Selection by exposing certain pupæ in the open, and, after set intervals of time, observing the total number of those which remain, together with those which have emerged as butterflies; the inference being that the remainder have been taken by enemies. The experiments were made more critical, also, by taking pupæ which showed different degrees of protective coloring, the differential loss of the various sorts indicating varying degrees of protection and selection. The observations were made in three places: the garden of Magdalen College, Oxford (Addison's Walk), a high altitude (Mürren), in Switzerland, and St. Helen's in the Isle of Wight. The greatest care was taken with all the details of the selection, fastening (to fences, trees, etc.), and observation of the chrysalises—details into which I cannot enter here—and the result was held to demonstrate the reality of the "struggle for existence" at the chrysalis stage (as against Bateson), with its variations at the different localities, and the consequent "natural selection" of the fittest as between the differently colored pupæ. At Oxford the proportion of pupæ which were carried off—presumably by birds—was larger (54 out of 59) than at either of the other localities, St. Helen's showing less of the "struggle" (259 out of 378), and the Swiss locality practically none (17 out of 112). This last result is interesting as showing also the absence of natural selection, and may be accounted for by the lack of birds in this high altitude. Such a result justifies in so far the performance of the experiments in different localities. Yet—as the present writer remarked in the discussion which followed the reading of the paper—it is a pity that the number of observations was not made larger at Oxford, for the point of greatest interest is that of the competition for survival of the different sorts of pupæ. The Oxford results show this in a few instances, certain pupæ being taken soonest and oftenest; and the authors think that when the results are all worked out (they have not yet had time to do this), the selective action of the destroying agents will be demonstrated. It is to be hoped that this result will come out; yet for such statistical computations a large number of cases is necessary, in order to eliminate the effect of local and other inessential conditions.* Assuming that the destruction is the work of birds—in one case a bird was observed on a tree-trunk just as a pupa exposed there disappeared—these results go well with those of Prof. Lloyd Morgan, which showed that caterpillars are actually protected from young fowls by their color, the fowls learning by rapid experience which colors belong to the inedible ones.† Prof. Poulton also delivered the evening lecture to workingmen on the warning and recognition characters of animals, and exhibited to the section the specimens by which Mr. G. A. K. Marshall has shown that two differently colored butterflies *(Precis octavia natalensis* and *P. sesamus)*, heretofore considered distinct, are seasonal forms of the same species.

In the same section, Prof. Lloyd Morgan, who was in many ways a most active member of the Association—the dependence of the local committee and a reader of papers before three different sections—read on "Experiments on Animal Intelligence." He gave a résumé, with criticisms, of the recent *Psychological Review* monograph by Mr. Thorndyke of Columbia University, and reported interesting results of his own. Mr. Francis Galton explained a plan which he is submitting to the breeding societies of Great Britain for the recording of the photographs of horses. Among the uses of such photographs he suggests that if taken for several generations they could be compounded in different ratios (represented by their respective time-exposures) in "composite photographs," which would illustrate the contribution to the heredity of the particular animal made by each of the ancestors represented. That is, the composite of the ancestors, properly made, should show marked likeness to the photograph of the individual horse. He showed some composite photographs of horses made in accordance with the principle of heredity noted above as "Galton's." This hardly takes sufficient account of the variations shown by particular animals, even allowing that the method of "mixing" by the "composite photograph" be adequate; a certain number of "brothers and sisters" should also be "composited" in order to get an animal which could be compared with the composite of the ancestors of any one of the brothers and sisters. But if the series of photographs are taken, all sorts of experiments can be made with them; and it is to be hoped that Mr. Galton's plan will be taken up in America as well as in England.*

The International Conference on Terrestrial Magnetism and Atmospheric Electricity met at Bristol in connection with the British Association. Its next meeting is to be in Russia, while the British Association meets next year at Dover in the week before or after the meeting of the French Association at Boulogne. International courtesies are to be a feature of this Anglo-French arrangement; possibly even the formation of an International Association for the Advancement of Science—an idea strongly advocated in America by the editor of *Science*. The President of the British Association for the Dover meeting is Prof. Michael Foster, the distinguished physiologist of Cambridge. The American representation at the Bristol meeting was not large; in the anthropological section there were Profs. Joseph Jastrow and Wrong; in the zoölogical, Profs. Marsh, Macallum, and Baldwin; in the anthropological, Mrs. Nuttall; in the economic, Mr. B. E. Walker of the Canadian Bank of Commerce—a list, however, which is not exhaustive. A mild sensation of the meeting was the story of M. Louis de Rougement, who read papers before the anthropological and geographical sections. A good deal of scepticism regarding him prevailed among those competent to judge, and it may be well to await further "returns" before taking him too seriously. American readers will have seen or heard of his much-advertised articles in the *Wide World* magazine.

Mention should be made of the interesting exhibits and demonstrations of recent scientific discoveries at the conversazioni in the beautiful grounds and buildings of Clifton College on Thursday and Tuesday evenings; among them were highly successful demonstrations of wireless telegraphy, both the Preece and the Lodge-Marconi systems, and of the spectra of the gases argon, helium, krypton, neon, zenon, by Prof. Ramsey. Great enthusiasm was excited by the lecture of Mr. Herbert Jackson on "Phosphorescence," a lecture equally remarkable for matter, for demonstrations, and for delivery. A large attendance was secured also at the Biological Exhibition opened on the second day by Sir John Lubbock. It included a good collection of plants, the animals of the Bristol "Zoo," and a marine exhibit from the Plymouth Biological Station. The most important money-grant this year was, I understand, a sum for determining certain electrical units—of which, however, I have not seen the details.

In conclusion, I must remark briefly on the splendid situation of Bristol for such a gathering. The excursions were a great delight, both to the expert geologists and to the ordinary members interested in history and the prehistoric, and moved by natural beauty. The efficiency of the local committees was much remarked upon, while the hospitality, both of the city and of its private citizens, was unbounded. The presence of four men-of-war sent to honor the city and the visiting men of science added an additional feature of interest.

J. M. B.

*Prof. Poulton intends to make another series of observations in Magdalen Garden.

†Fritz Müller's theory of common warning colors might be tested by experiments similar to those of Lloyd Morgan—if, indeed, the latter author has not already done it.

*No doubt he will be willing to communicate details or send his paper to any responsible person who may write him at 42 Rutland Gate, S. W., London.

TOLSTOY ON ART.

PARIS, September 22, 1898.

'What Is Art?' is the title of a new volume by Count Leon Tolstoy, and, though the later productions of this illustrious writer are much inferior to those which made his world-wide reputation, it is impossible not to watch with much interest the development of a great and noble mind. The author of 'War and Peace' had already in him the germs of the doctrine of non-resistance which he has lately expounded. Tolstoy has become an open enemy of war and, it might be said, of patriotism, considered as one of the causes of war. He has become purely evangelical, and he knows no better or higher law than the law of charity, fraternity, and forgiveness taught by Christ.

It is not impossible that Tolstoy's influence should have something to do with the *état d'âme* (a phrase now often used in France) of the young Tsar, who, following only the impulse of his heart, without consulting anybody, has lately proposed to all the Powers to hold a conference with a view to disarmament, or at least to a gradual and systematic diminution of the enormous army and navy budgets. The paramount influence with the Tsar, as it was with his father, has been the orthodox Holy Synod; but it may well be that the influence of the Tolstoian doctrines reinforced the influence of those who have been working to maintain in its purity the autocratic character of the Emperor, so as to increase his power for making great reforms. The emancipation of the serfs was an autocratic act, and we must view in the same light the initiative just taken by Nicholas II. in the interest of the peace of Europe.

I will not dwell here on this extraordinary act of autocratic initiative, nor examine what results it may have in the present or in the future. I return to Tolstoy. It is certainly very interesting to see the author of 'Anna Karénina,' one of the most thrilling novels of our time, making light of all romantic

literature and trying to find the elements of a purely "Christian art." The French translator, M. de Wyzewa, remarks in his preface that, at the age of seventy, Tolstoy has succeeded in writing the best and most artistic book on æsthetics; a book in which "the same idea is pursued from beginning to end, with an ardor, a vigor, a precision truly admirable." He wonders, however, that Tolstoy, after having demonstrated the absurdity of the numerous attempts made to this day to analyze beauty and art, has had the courage to make in his turn the same attempt, and has tried to explain once more things which have so many reasons for being inexplicable. If Baumgarten, Kant, Fichte, Hegel, Schopenhauer, Schiller, Goethe, Darwin, Renan, and Wagner failed to find a suitable definition of art, is it not because art cannot well be defined, and escapes all analysis? I must confess that I could not take much interest, nor find anything very original, in what may be called the dogmatic part of Tolstoy's new work. I care little for definitions of art and of beauty, or for criticism composed of such definitions. The real interest of Tolstoy's essay (for it is an essay rather than the exposition of a doctrine) lies in its criticism of modern literature and of modern music.

There is much truth in his chapters on what he calls the perversion of art. "Instead," he says, "of an art tending to address the highest sentiments of humanity, those which spring from a religious conception of life, we have an art which tends merely to give the greatest amount of pleasure possible to a particular class of society." The sources of inspiration have been dried up, and art, devoting itself chiefly to a narrow and privileged class, has expressed only sentiments which are peculiar to this class—vanity, sexual desire, disgust of life. Abnormal sentiments require abnormal expression; the language of art has thus become by degrees more artificial, more constrained, and more obscure. This obscurity has in our time been the pride of a school which entitles itself the school of the "Décadents," and I was surprised to find Tolstoy acquainted with the Décadents, a poetical school which is a sort of mutual-admiration society, and which is totally unknown to many cultivated French people. This school affects obscurity, vagueness, oddity; it is one of those excrescences of Parisian life which are unknown outside of the limits of the capital, or even of Montmartre. The hill of Montmartre has become of late years a sort of sacred mount, devoted to the lowest forms of theatrical art and of poetry. In all sorts of corners, you may find there small theatres where extraordinary songs are sung by their authors, where realistic dramas of the most cynical and horrible kind are played, as well as symbolical plays—so symbolical that nobody can understand them. The success of the "Chat Noir," a typical theatre of this sort, has been such that a hundred similar little theatres are now spread on the sacred mount as mushrooms grow in the wet season in a single night. As little importance ought to be given to the numerous poems of the "Décadents" as to the theatrical essays of the school of the "Chat Noir." You will find very few people acquainted with the verses of Verlaine, of Jean Moréas, Charles Morice, Henri de Régnier, Charles Vignier, Adrien Remacle, René Ghil, etc. I was, I confess, stupefied to find these names, some of them unknown to me, in Tolstoy's book, as well as those of the magi Sâr Péladan, Paul Adam.

Many of the writers whom Tolstoy considers as representative are really beneath contempt. It is hardly worth while to criticise such poets as Stéphane Mallarmé, who not only abolished rhyme in his verse, but also reason. "Ni rime ni raison," might be his motto. The once famous Baudelaire, author of the 'Fleurs du Mal,' was one of the prophets of the new school; he at least is worthy to be criticised by Tolstoy, who justly finds him wilfully obscure and cynically obscene. He pays the honor of his criticism also to the unfortunate Verlaine, who died not long ago. Verlaine had a touch of sentiment, but he was a pure Bohemian. "His philosophy," says Tolstoy, "consisted in the vilest debauchery, in the confession of his moral impotence, and, as an antidote to this impotence, in the coarsest Catholic idolatry." Like Baudelaire, Verlaine was totally wanting in sincerity, in simplicity. Like all the poets of the new school, he was affected, self-satisfied, and eccentric. "How," asks Tolstoy, "can the French, who have possessed Chénier, Lamartine, Musset, and Hugo, who not long ago had the Parnassians, Leconte de Lisle, Sully-Prudhomme, invest with so much importance and so glorify two poets so imperfect in the form, so vulgar and so low in the essence, of their subjects?" There are hundreds of poets of the new schools who produce unreadable works. Lemerre, the publisher, is always ready to publish them, not at his own expense, but at theirs. Their volumes are to be found on the quay, in the wooden boxes of our *bouquinistes*, generally uncut; the volumes sent to the press or to friends always take immediately the road to the quays, and you can find them there in their virginal covers. Thousands of copies of such works are printed not only in France, but also in Germany, if we are to believe Tolstoy, in Sweden, in Italy, and in Russia; they represent millions of days' work, "as much as was employed in building the great Pyramid."

The same phenomenon is observable in the other arts—painting, music, theatrical plays; millions of days' work is employed in the production of incomprehensible works. Tolstoy cites notes taken in 1894 by a friend of his in Paris:

"I have been to-day to three exhibitions, of the Symbolists, the Impressionists, and the Neo-Impressionists. I looked at all the pictures with much care and conscientiousness, and they all threw me into the same stupor. The most comprehensible of the three exhibitions seemed to me to be that of the Impressionists. I saw there the works of a certain Camille Pizzaro in which the drawing was so undetermined that it was impossible to discover in what direction a head or a hand was turned. The subjects were generally 'effects'—*effets de brouillard, effet du soir, soleil couchant.* . . . There were in the same gallery other pictures by Puvis de Chavannes, Manet, Monet, Renoir, Sisley, all Impressionists. One of them had painted a face entirely blue. . . ."

Obscurity is one of the characteristics of the new school of art. Incomprehensibility has become a "desideratum," and it is not uncommon to hear a writer, a painter, a sculptor, or a musician say: "I create works and I understand them; if anybody else does not understand them, so much the worse for him." Tolstoy might have added to the gallery of artists whom he criticises the sculptor Rodin, who has lately made a statue of Balzac in which you may see anything you like except Balzac. There is much truth in what Tolstoy says: "To pretend that a work of art is good and nevertheless incomprehensible to the majority of men, is as if you said of a certain food that it is good, but that most people ought not to eat it." Tolstoy accuses the modern school of a total want of originality. Many writers, who have mastered only the technical side of art, borrow on every hand. Greek antiquity, Christianity, mythology, everything is forced to contribute to works which the public mistakes for works of art. "A very typical example of these counterfeits of art, in poetry, is furnished by the 'Distant Princess' of Rostand [the author of 'Cyrano de Bergerac'], a play entirely made up of borrowed fragments, in which there is certainly not an atom of art or of poetry; but this does not prevent it from appearing poetical to a number of people and probably to the author himself."

Correspondence.

CHICAGO AND THE WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent from Pittsfield, Mass., who signs himself "W.," maintains that the rural districts are not for war or territorial expansion, and have not been; but does he not make an unwarranted concession in admitting that the cities are or have been for war? So far as Chicago is concerned (and he mentions it specially), I do not believe there is any warrant for such an assumption. While there is a mob here, as elsewhere, who take their cue from the ravings of a bloodthirsty and mercenary press, and who are ready, as "W." says, "to shriek for any measure or any barbarity, however wicked and senseless, provided only the cry is started," yet I am convinced that the sober sense of this community, at least, has never looked with favor on the war which for a space has failed. But the mob, and the newspapers which are their natural organs, exercised a singular species of terrorism over the decent and intelligent elements, out of all proportion to their power for either good or evil. People fancied that it would not do to express disapprobation of the war, whatever they might think of it; that, on the contrary, some little effusiveness in its favor was a necessary tribute to what they imagined was public opinion. And so there was much damning with faint praise.

The writer never hesitated, in and out of season, to express his opinion that the war was a wanton and unjustifiable piece of aggression, forced upon an unwilling nation by false pretences, and by the demands of newspapers that would shrink from nothing short of the extermination of the race, if it might increase the sale of their detestable wares. Time and again has he interrupted perfunctory symposia in laudation of the war with this discordant note; and he has yet to find an instance in which the symposiarchs, after closing the doors, windows, and keyholes, and making sure that there were no reporters in the room, have not, for the most part, agreed with him.

I am satisfied (speaking for this latitude and longitude) that there has been but little difference of opinion on this score among men of sufficient intelligence and morality to make their opinions on any subject worth

anything, and excepting always the clergy, who, in the simplicity of their unworldliness, appear to have taken the newspapers seriously, and to have really believed that a war to boom circulations was a moral crusade.

But the intelligence and morality of the community has had no voice, no leader, no organ, and, I fear it must be said, no courage. It has accepted without challenge the ridiculous claim of the commercial adventurers who style themselves "journalists" that they represent public opinion, and has cowered timidly before mere noise and assurance—"the beating of a distant drum." This war has been initiated and carried through largely by the assumption, brazenly made by those pecuniarily and politically interested in having it, that they represented public opinion; and they have been enabled to succeed largely by the supine terror of those whose souls revolted at the war, but whose courage was not equal to that of the editors and the brass bands.

HOWARD LESLIE SMITH.

CHICAGO, October 5, 1898.

BABBLINGS OF THE ANNEXATIONISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent issue you have an article entitled "The 'New Duties' and 'New Relations.'" I should like to call particular attention to blatherskite quite as noticeable as that you cite. A prominent article in the *North American Review* for October contains the following in explanation of what would happen in case Great Britain purchased the Philippines:

"By the acquisition of the Philippines, Great Britain would acquire the prospect of such preponderance in the Far East that the other Powers would feel constrained, by a sense of self-preservation, to avert it by a general war. Our duty to mankind enjoins us not to precipitate a general war, and the surest mode of discharging that duty is to take the Philippines ourselves."

Again:

"The civilizing of the southern islands, which have collectively a superficies of about 75,000 square miles, would be a *trivial task* to the American people, which, in less than a century, has reclaimed the vast region lying between the Mississippi and the Pacific."

Mr. Roosevelt, in his speech at Carnegie Hall, put himself in this attitude: "Let us live in the harness, striving mightily; let us rather run the risk of wearing out than *rusting out*."

All comment on such stuff is unnecessary now. The deplorable fact is that so many believe it. A well-known minister, in a recent sermon in which he pointed out our opportunities of spreading the Christian religion among the heathen, summarily disposed of the political side of the question by saying that if the Dutch could successfully control their West Indian possessions, he saw no reason why we should not take the Philippines to ourselves and conduct a successful government there. This would be funny but for the fact that this man has large audiences and his words usually carry great weight.

It seems that the greatest mistake which people make in dealing with this question is that they argue from precedents and reason by analogy, when, in fact, precedent is detrimental to the annexationists, and no analogy can be even approximately true for the conditions now existing; and the countries involved are not the duplicates of any that ever existed before.—Respectfully,

W. ED. BAIRD.

NASHVILLE, TENN., October 8, 1898.

THE WAR AND YELLOW JOURNALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A reliable and experienced paper dealer here gave me the following facts regarding the sale of New York morning papers during and since the war with Spain:

	During the war.	At present.
Journal	50	3
World	42	15
Press	25	5
Herald	15	22
Sun	15	25
Times	2	4
Tribune	6	11
Total	155	85

Jingoism is, however, yet rampant.

T. B. B.

NEWBURGH-ON-HUDSON, October 5, 1898.

Notes.

The Marion Press, Jamaica, N. Y., has in preparation 'Some Unpublished Letters of Henry D. and Sophia E. Thoreau'; 'Classic English Odes,' selected, with an introduction, by Frank L. Babbott; 'The Bull in the China-Shop,' poems by the author of 'Vanities in Verse'; 'Account of the Departure of Charles, Prince of Wales, from Madrid, in 1623,' now first translated from the Spanish by Archer M. Huntington; 'The Tsar's Peace, and Other Dreams,' by William Reed Huntington; 'The New Gulliver,' a fable, by Wendell P. Garrison; and 'The World As It Is,' by Edward Lytton Bulwer.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will soon bring out 'The True Benjamin Franklin'; Merewether's 'A Tour through the Famine Districts of India'; and correspondence between Charles Lamb and Robert Lloyd.

'The Day's Work,' by Rudyard Kipling, and 'A Gunner Aboard the Yankee,' with an introduction by Rear-Admiral Sampson, are announced by Doubleday & McClure Co.

Henry Holt & Co. will publish at once a translation by G. G. Berry of Langlois and Seignobos's 'Introduction to the Study of History.'

Shortly forthcoming from the New Amsterdam Book Co. are 'The Nation's Awakening' and 'Imperial Defence,' by Capt. Spencer Wilkinson; 'To Klondike and Back,' by J. H. E. Secretan; Lady Winifred Howard's 'Journal of a Tour in the United States, Canada, and Mexico,' with photographic illustrations; 'Chronicle of the Gaiety Theatre,' by John Hollingshead; 'Private Papers of William Wilberforce,' being Pitt's letters to him; 'Greece in the Nineteenth Century,' by Lewis Sergeant; 'British Guiana; or, Work and Wanderings among the Creoles and Coolies, the Africans and Indians of the Wild Country,' by the Rev. L. Crookall; 'Pioneering in Formosa,' by W. A. Pickering; and 'Bachelor Ballads,' by Thackeray, Hood, Lamb, and others, with illustrations by Blanche McManus.

The Forest and Stream Publishing Company, New York, announce for immediate publication, as new works in their Forest and Stream Series, 'Hitting vs. Missing with the Shotgun,' by S. T. Hammond, and 'The Manual of the Canvas Canoe,' by Commodore F. R. Webb.

Edward W. Dayton, No. 650 Madison Avenue, New York, will issue in November 'My Park Book,' by Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer.

The Rev. Thomas R. Slicer of All Souls' Church, in this city, has in press a volume on 'The Great Affirmations of Religion,' which Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, will publish in a few weeks.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready 'The Land of the Pigmies,' by Captain Guy Burrows, with an introduction by the explorer Stanley.

The Brothers of the Book, Gouverneur, N. Y., have in preparation 'The Golden Person in the Heart,' metrical renderings from the Upanishads and other sacred books of the East, by Claude Fayette Bragdon. The edition will be limited.

'My Scrap-Book of the French Revolution' is the title of a compilation by Mrs. Elizabeth Wormeley Latimer, in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

'Contributions to *Punch*' is the title given to the latest volume of the Biographical Thackeray (Harpers). In the resonance of his larger work and fame we are apt to forget what the *Punch* connection meant to the novelist at the time. When he was in Cairo, the people were all saying: "*Punch* is staying at the hotel." "There, that is *Punch*." Such was the repute attached to a seat at the famous editorial mahogany tree. Mrs. Ritchie tells us that her father's sketches in *Punch* are estimated at 380, and the articles were probably a greater number. Some not commonly reprinted are preserved here. As is well known, Thackeray broke off his connection with *Punch* through disapproving its political cartoons—though he never absolutely broke it off, Mrs. Ritchie explains. The manner of man he was at this period (1843-1854) is hit off in a letter of FitzGerald's to Frederick Tennyson, dated 1845—"Meanwhile old Thackeray laughs at all this [artist's cliques],' and goes on in his own way, writing hard for half-a-dozen reviews and newspapers all the morning; driving, drinking, and talking of a night; managing to preserve a fresh color and perpetual flow of spirits under a wear and tear of thinking and feeding that would have knocked up any other man I know two years ago at least."

The traps and pitfalls which are laid with such profusion for the beginnner at golf, and which even the older hand may consider himself fortunate to avoid entirely, are described in rhyme by W. G. Van T. Sutphen in 'The Golfer's Alphabet' (Harper & Bros.) in a manner to amuse those who have been through the mill. Characteristic illustrations by A. B. Frost add a pictorial humor to the little volume which should make it welcome to the enthusiast, whether a novice or a master of the game. And still this clever artist of outdoor life and sport is not a born caricaturist.

'A Text-Book of Geodetic Astronomy,' by John C. Hayford (John Wiley & Sons), is a thorough and carefully got-up work. It is confined to the sextant, the transit in the meridian, the zenith-telescope, and the determination of azimuth. The student is even sent elsewhere for his doctrine of least squares. The author favors field reductions of time observations without weights; but it is, if anything, simpler, and certainly much more satisfactory, to weight the stars proportionally to the cosine squares of the declinations.

Books like Augustus Treadwell, jr.'s,

'Storage Battery' (Macmillan) are, in French, so written as to be read with pleasure by a public much wider than the particular profession from which they take their origin. But then, they do not embody a quarter of the crude drudgery among patent reports which will make this a *vade-mecum* for a particular class of inventors. That all these sketches of the principal patents for some 120 forms of batteries are accurately executed, we cannot vouch. Some of the chemical phrases are calculated to suggest doubts; as where we read (p. 37) of a bath composed of "a solution of oxide of lead in potassium," or of a "heavy layer of potassium solution in zinc oxide" (p. 105), or of "soda, potassium, or *other suitable alkali*" (p. 25), meaning, perhaps, lithia, rubidia, or cæsia; or that "persulphuric acid is one of those comparatively rare compounds, termed *exothermic*" (p. 135). Some cobwebs would have been cleared away from the chapter on the theory if the author had not been deceived by the binoxide of lead being called a "peroxide." Stannic oxide might as well be so called. The chapter upon "Storage Battery Installations" will be found particularly instructive.

A book which a student who comes to it prepared by clear conceptions of rigid dynamics, and by so much acquaintance with the dynamo as would be given by Hawkins and Wallis's treatise in Whittaker's Specialists' Series, may get a great deal of good from, is Charles Ashley Carus-Wilson's 'Electro-Dynamics: the Direct-Current Motor' (Longmans).

From Ch. Delagrave, Paris, we have the twenty-fourth instalment of Hatzfeld's 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française,' bringing this important work down to *regarder*. It is significant that the adjective or noun *Rallié* is ignored, as if a too transient party nickname. Not so with *réclame*, in the sense of advertisement and puffery; a shade of meaning, we are told, borrowed from the English reclaim, "which is employed in the United States in the special sense 'to call attention to.'" The French Academy admitted this usage of *réclame* in 1878.

In the April Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (Worcester, Mass.), we read of the gift to the library, by the widow of the late Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull, of that scholar's MS. Dictionary to Eliot's Indian Bible, in four volumes, quarto; and of the undertaking of the Bureau of Ethnology at Washington to put it in print, under the editorship of Dr. Albert S. Gatschet.

The same society has published, in a shape uniform with the Proceedings, an account of the Boston banquet in connection with the reception of the Bradford MS., May 26, 1897. This is illustrated with portraits of Senator Hoar, Gov. Wolcott, the late Senator Bayard, and Bishop Creighton, and concludes with a narrative of the circumstances attending the return of the manuscript, from the pen of Senator Hoar.

The international comity which marked this transfer of the precious history now preserved at the Massachusetts State-house, was a prelude to the recent outbreak of fraternal sentiment engendered by the war with Spain. Fresh expression was given to English good will towards America by the Marquis of Dufferin last month at a public banquet in Bristol, on occasion of the opening of the Cabot memorial tower on Brandon Hill. This commanding monument further bears a tablet placed in it by the local branch of the Peace Society, perpetuating "the earnest hope that peace and friendship may ever continue between the kindred peoples of this country and America."

The *Century Magazine* is to begin a new "war series," based on our late unpleasantness with Spain. Capt. Sigsbee, Lieut. Hobson, Capt. Mahan, Admirals Sampson and Schley, and other eminent lights of the two arms of the service, are to participate in these narratives.

The Bitter Root Forest Reserve is the subject of a suggestive article, by R. U. Goode of the Geological Survey, in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for September. This region of about 6,500 square miles in Montana and Idaho was included in President Cleveland's forest reservation proclamation of February, 1897. From a recent reconnaissance survey of it a topographic description is given, together with an account of the main features of its forest. An accompanying forest map is shaded so as to show the extent of the commercial timber, the new growth, and the burnt areas. It is a cause for national shame that so large a proportion of this "noble heritage"—at least one-third of the standing timber—has been destroyed through carelessness and cupidity. In this connection several interesting illustrations of characteristic forest scenes are given. Other articles are on the forest conditions of Washington, the growth of the United States, and Atlantic estuarine tides, with diagrams.

The Scottish *Geographical Magazine* for September contains an account of an interesting journey through the southern part of Lower Burma. It is practically a roadless country, only nine miles of road having been encountered in a march of 326 miles. The principal occupations of the scanty population are gathering edible birds' nests, pearl-diving, and tin washing. "The nests are gathered by means of a long bamboo pole, with an iron fork at one extremity, and a lighted torch at both, the one to show the nest, and the other to show the bare-footed collector where he may securely tread." A novel method of obtaining fire by friction, used by an attendant Karen policeman, was by means of a piece of old and dry bamboo about eighteen inches long, cut in halves longitudinally. One of these was laid firmly upon two forked sticks. Into the other he scraped all the dry powder and fluff with which dry bamboos are lined, and placed on top a dry leaf. "Then, taking this second piece, one extremity in each hand, hollow side up, he rubbed its smooth outer surface very quickly and sharply along the upturned edges of the first, that lay on the forks, taking care to make the friction immediately under the dry leaf. In I should say slightly over half a minute, sufficient heat was generated to produce a glow in the fluff, which quickly communicated itself to the leaf and was then blown into a flame." The senseless waste of money by Oriental rulers was illustrated forcibly in a Siamese frontier town. On a neighboring hill "stands a splendid palace, the building, furnishing, and laying out of which must have cost an immense sum of money. It was built for the King of Siam on the occasion of his paying a visit to the State. He occupied it for four or five days and then left, but, according to Siamese custom, any house occupied by the King can never be occupied by any one else, and so this beautiful building is rapidly falling into decay."

A comprehensive description of the island of Hainan by a recent traveller, M. Cl. Madrolle, is published in the last Bulletin of the *Société de Géographie*. The interior of the island is still unexplored, but is known to contain rich deposits of lead, copper, gold, tin, and probably iron, and petroleum. None are now worked, with the exception of one tin mine. The tigers and rhinoceroses have disappeared, and the wild boar is the only dangerous animal left. The Chinese, to the number of about two million, inhabit the coast districts, the aborigines the almost inaccessible mountains of the interior. Vocabularies of the six principal languages spoken and a map are given. In an account of his ninth journey in the Sahara, and to the country of the Touaregs, M. Foureau gives some interesting pictures of life in the great desert.

The useful bibliography of the geographical works of the year 1897, published as the September issue of the *Annales de Géographie*, is far more than a mere list of titles. Each entry, with few exceptions, is accompanied by a descriptive note by some specialist — the leading English contributors being Dr. H. R. Mill of London and Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard University. The number of publications and important articles in serials and society transactions noted, 985, is slightly smaller than that of the previous year, the falling off being in works on local geography, while there is a considerable increase in the number of general works. A full author-index adds materially to the usefulness of the bibliography.

The first (October) number of volume two of the beautifully illustrated *Deutsche Kunst und Dekoration* (Darmstadt: Alexander Koch) is occupied with examples of the decorative work of Hans E. von Berlepsch of Munich, and with applied art in the Munich Crystal Palace for the current year.

Librarians, and those who have to do with manual-training schools, may be interested in a list of forty-six German publications on the subject of manual training in its general and economic aspect, its history and its relation to the public schools, which is to be found in No. 34, vol. xxvii. (August 25, 1898) of the *Pädagogische Zeitung*. The same article also gives by title the papers on that subject read before six congresses which were held in German cities from 1889 to 1896, and reports of which may be had, at one mark each, of Dr. Götze, Leipzig (Scharnhorst Str., 25). Finally, there are verbatim reports of resolutions concerning manual training in the schools passed by fifteen assemblies, mostly of teachers, at various times and places in the Empire.

The war between the "classics" and the "moderns," which is sure to keep the educational world in most civilized countries in a state of unrest for decades to come, is just now being waged with renewed force in France, with such protagonists as Lavisse, Delbos, Bréal, Lemaître, Fouillée, Léon Bourgeois (the Minister of Public Instruction). These and others have quite recently again discussed this puzzling question of secondary education in letters to the *Temps* and the *Débats*, and in magazine articles and public addresses; and the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for September 15 gives a somewhat full résumé of their utterances on the subject, promising to continue such reports in future numbers of the *Revue*. M. Léon Bourgeois's position between the contending parties is a delicate one, but he shows considerable skill in main-

taining a conciliatory, patriotic tone, repelling invectives on both sides and counselling calm deliberation.

The Harvard alumni are now voting by mail on the proposed extension of the suffrage for Overseers beyond the undergraduate body. The circular is accompanied by two signed "Reasons" for and against, and we do not apprehend that a reëxamination of the question in the light of these documents will result otherwise than in a vote *pro.*

Admirers of the late Senator Bayard have their desire for a memorial of his noble features met in the imperial panel photograph which has just been drawn from his inexhaustible storehouse by F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia.

The list of "Portraits in Finer Art," published by Charles Barmore, No. 36 West Twenty-eighth Street, New York, already considerable in extent, has just been augmented by four etchings (13x17, artist's proofs) of Sir Charles Russell, Chief Justice of England; Charles Andrews, ex-Chief Justice of the New York Court of Appeals; James C. Carter of the New York bar, and *(ahi fiera compagnia!)* Edward Lauterbach, Platt's familiar. The first two are by Jacques Reich. Sir Charles is in his judicial robes, and his likeness has been excellently caught. Judge Andrews's portrait seems to us quite Mr. Reich's best work. In both instances he has followed photographs. In the case of Mr. Carter, of whom the likeness is unmistakable if none too genial, Mr. J. S. King had Benoni Irwin's painting for his original. Of Mr. Lauterbach the same artist has made as much as nature permitted him. The legal profession can hardly fail to be attracted by the majority at least of this group of effigies, some of which have been signed by the subjects of them as well as by the etchers.

—Dr. Henry Carrington Bolton's 'Catalogue of Scientific and Technical Periodicals,' which originally appeared in 1885, and contained 5,105 titles, is republished in volume 40 of the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections. The first part of this volume is a reprint from the plates of the first edition, with changes necessary to bring the work to date, whenever the plates permitted it, and to correct errors. Part two contains additions to the titles in Part one "that could not be inserted in the plates," together with about 3,500 new titles. The chronological tables which follow the catalogue, giving the year of publication of each volume of 550 periodicals, are ingeniously constructed, and show in a graphic manner the growth of periodical literature. A check-list records the American libraries which contain complete sets of each journal. Valuable as this catalogue undoubtedly is, its usefulness is seriously impaired by the clumsy and inconvenient division into two parts, necessitating, in many cases, the repetition in Part two of titles already given in full in the first part. It is greatly to be deplored that all the titles could not have been arranged in one alphabet. Moreover, the extreme minuteness with which certain journals consisting of several series are catalogued, involving a separate entry for every slight change of title, is, however interesting to the bibliographer, of questionable value to the scientist or student for whose benefit, presumably, this catalogue was primarily intended. In some instances the elaboration of detail is carried to an extreme which is likely to defeat its own end, and to confuse rather than assist the investigator. For example, the "Bibliothèque Britannique," afterwards "Bibliothèque Universelle," to which, in Scudder's well-known catalogue, fourteen lines are devoted, here occupies two and one-third pages. We must regret, also, that the possession of partial sets could not have been indicated in some way. As it is, libraries owning forty-five volumes of a periodical complete in fifty seem not to appear at all in the check-list.

—The Boston rooms of the New England Historic-Genealogical Society have, for more than half a century, been open to all comers without money and without price. Its aids in pilgrimages along the byways of local and personal history were great from the outset, and have been every year increasing. Yet those who lingered in its cool sequestered vale were few and far between until the craze to be called sons or daughters of the Revolution or of colonial wars possessed us. That date was epoch-making for the Society. Ever since, its chairs have been crowded with students eager to read their titles clear to hereditary glory, some of whom have been willing to furnish the Society a fraction ot the funds needed for better answering their inquiries. The extent and value of its accumulations, whether in print or in manuscript, for its special purpose have at length been recognized. Its *Register*, forming a portly octavo every year since 1846—though not without an annual index—was felt to need something more. Its treasures were so multitudinous and multifarious that no man could bring them to light. Hence, thanks to a special subscription, several thousand dollars have been expended in securing skilled labor on a consolidated and model index which is still in making. A thousand dollars have just been given for a greatly needed increase in the Society's town and family chronicles, by Mr. W. C. Todd, who last year established a new department (that of newspapers) in the Boston Public Library by the gift of $50,000. Such benefactions will multiply in proportion as moneyed men better understand the workings and bearings of the Society. By an expenditure it could ill afford it has obtained for years the invaluable services in England of Mr. Henry F. Waters, easily the foremost man of our time in genealogical research, the successful tracker of the Washington, John Harvard, and Roger Williams pedigrees. His English *Gleanings* —modestly so called—have yielded a harvest to American genealogists in every issue of the *Register* through recent years. They have not only shed light on numberless clues of connection between the new home and the old, but have helped to knit together again the Anglo-Saxon robe that was rent asunder at the Revolution.

—For the last few years the English critics of the South Kensington Museum have been eloquent in their attacks upon its management. But even the most violent must admit that good as well as evil can sometimes come out of South Kensington, and certainly there is nothing but praise for the proposal to hold in the Museum this autumn an historical exhibition of lithographs. It is true we have already had the centenary exhibitions in Paris, New York, and Düsseldorf, but they anticipated the hundredth anniversary of Senefelder's discovery. In 1795, 1796, and 1797, he was experimenting on stone and using it to print from, but it was not until 1798 that he actually invented the chemical printing, or surface printing, which is lithography; and, for evidence of this fact, it is necessary only to consult his own story and the curious title-page to the German edition of his book, where the dates leave no possibility for doubt. Then, again, in none of the exhibitions already held (the Grolier Club, in its collection, of course made no pretensions to completeness) was anything like justice done to English lithography, which has an interesting history fairly well told in a long series of prints, naturally more easily obtained in England than anywhere else. The most amusing early record is in the Print Room of the British Museum, where two large volumes contain a 'Polyautographic Collection'—lithography having for a while gone by the ingenious name of Polyautography—in every way as important as the early French and German work in the Cabinet des Estampes at the Bibliothèque Nationale. For instance, among them is a rare and practically unknown print by Blake, and also one of the Duke de Montpensier's landscapes done in England—to mention but two of the very rarest. Unfortunately the British Museum cannot be compelled to lend its collections even to another National Museum, and the chances are there will be some gaps in the British section, even at the South Kensington show. However, South Kensington does possess André's 'Specimens of Polyautography' of 1803, and a very large and representative collection of later work, and there are several private collectors who have put their portfolios at the disposition of the management. There is no question that never before has there been exhibited such a complete series of English lithographs from the prints of West and Stothard and the others who made polyautographs for André, down to the *auto-lithographs* published but yesterday in the *Studio*. Nor will the foreign sections be neglected. Every country where lithographs have been made will be represented as completely as possible, and it is very likely that French and German work, save for the very earliest, can be studied in London as well as in Paris and Düsseldorf. The exhibition opens on November 1 and will continue for several months, and it is said that the authorities at the British Museum will take the opportunity to frame and hang in their own galleries a few of the many fine lithographs now hidden away in musty and forgotten portfolios.

—Next to Murray's Guide, no other book is so indispensable to tourists in Japan as Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain's 'Things Japanese,' a pocket encyclopædia, which tells them all that they need to know about amusements, the army, arts, botany, Buddhism, climate, dress, festivals, flowers, lacquer, literature, women, and a hundred other topics travellers are supposed to be interested in. The third edition of this useful and admirably written book has just appeared (Scribners), somewhat altered in form, so as to make it more convenient for the pocket. There are about a dozen new articles, and the old ones are rewritten and brought up to date whenever necessary. Such a book cannot but double the pleasure and instruction that may be derived from a trip to Japan, and for the student its value is much enhanced by the bibliographic notes appended to most of the topics. Under the head of "Books on Japan" the author gives a formidable list of miscellaneous publications, with a preferred list of twelve volumes, among which are the books of four Ameri-

cans—Griffis's 'The Mikado's Empire,' Percival Lowell's 'The Soul of the Far East,' Miss A. M. Bacon's 'Japanese Girls and Women,' and Lafcadio Hearn's 'Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan,' with its sequels. Pierre Loti is not one of the twelve elect; for his books "the resident community has less respect than the public at home; his inaccuracy and superficiality go against the grain." Appended to the article on Literature is the interesting news that "Mr. Aston is engaged on a history of Japanese literature, which will, no doubt, include all that is best on the subject." Probably, next to Prof. Chamberlain himself, no foreigner (or native, for that matter) knows so much about Japanese literature as Mr. Aston does. But his task cannot be altogether a pleasant one, in view of what our author, who is emeritus professor of Japanese and philology at the University of Tokyo, says: "Much of that which the Japanese themselves prize most highly in their literature seems intolerably flat and insipid to the European taste. . . . What Japanese literature most lacks is genius. It lacks thought, logical grasp, depth, breadth, and many-sidedness. It is too timorous, too narrow, to compass great things. Perhaps the court atmosphere and predominantly feminine influence in which it was nursed for the first few centuries of its existence stifled it, or else the fault may have lain with the Chinese formalism in which it grew up. But we suspect that there was some original sin of weakness as well."

—The republication, with considerable additions, of 'L'Illusion' (Paris: Lemerre) calls attention once more to the literary work of Dr. Henri Cazalis, better known to the French reading public under the pseudonym of "Jean Lahor," and distinguished among the learned chiefly as the author of a History of Hindu Literature. His independent views of life and things in general, presented in a volume of prose, with the significant title of 'La Gloire du Néant,' are given the further benefit of metrical setting in 'Les Quatrains d'Al-Ghazali' and 'L'Illusion' above mentioned. Together these last three volumes contain a consistent body of doctrine, metaphysical and ethical, and preserve a fairly general uniformity of tone. The spirit in which they are written expresses the writer's despair at the pitilessness of fate and the injustice of human arrangements, the results of both of which refuse to chime with his ideal longings. As modern thought fails, in its pessimism, to offer any adequate consolation, Jean Lahor is led, through his studies, to seek the solution of the world-problem in the various forms of Oriental philosophy, and seems to find therein the message of hope for the future of the race by reconciling the highest teachings of Buddhism with the necessity for suppressing, or at all events modifying, the contemporary tendencies towards excessive individualism. Incidentally social questions are treated with a free hand, as rapid deductions from the principles expounded. Education, marriage, and sexual selection, the regulation of prostitution, the moral influence of art, the function of scientific and other general ideas, and so forth, are discussed, and usually settled in a few sentences, while the author's summary of his own position is given in a curiously formal *credo*.

—Jean Lahor's selection of spasmodic, though sometimes eloquent, paragraphs for the expression of his philosophy is open to the obvious charge to which all unsystematic development is liable. Why should the reader be given the trouble of finding the *filum labyrinthi* for himself? 'La Gloire du Néant,' which contains matter enough for an elaborate treatise, consists entirely of somewhat abrupt divisions, with far too frequent introduction of thoughts as apparently sporadic as any in Nietzsche's 'Zarathustra.' In the poems, on the other hand, irregularity of procedure is apt to be felt as a relief from the over-weight of ideas which many of these compositions contain; and, without begging any question as to the suitability of verse as a vehicle for philosophy, we may feel grateful for such charming expressions of momentary feelings as are found in "Aubade," "L'Ivresse des Amants," "Inconstance," "Loving-Cup," etc., some of which follow closely in the best vein of Sully-Prudhomme. Orientalism, in Jean Lahor (as in Leconte de Lisle), is doubtless a more learned literary exercise than it was in the great days of 'Les Orientales'; still, sincerity of purpose and erudition, excellent equipments though they be, compete unequally with inspiration. Finally, the general technical finish of Jean Lahor's verse does not blind us to such occasional lapses as "En un large incendie il répand ses baisers" ('L'Illusion,' p. 222).

ANGLO-SAXON SUPERIORITY.

Anglo-Saxon Superiority; to What it is Due. (À quoi tient la Supériorité des Anglo-Saxons.) By Edmond Demolins. Translated from the tenth French edition. Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, pp. 427.

Few books have so quickly got the public ear as did this of M. Demolins. Appearing in April of last year, it ran through five editions in two months, and as many more have since been called for. One would suppose the audacity of the title would have provoked a storm of angry denunciation from the mercurial writers for the French press; but it did nothing of the kind. With singular unanimity they recognized the book as the faithful chastisement of a friend, and did full justice to the grave and severe patriotism of the author. Indeed, this reception of a work truly merciless in its plain speaking is one of the most hopeful signs of progress, in true comprehension of herself and of the conditions of national health and solid recuperation, which France has given. The people cannot be wholly unsound at heart which can listen to such a lesson with quiet and attentive teachableness. Jules Lemaître spoke for them all when he called it "an infinitely painful book," but added, "We must swallow the bitter cup to the dregs."

M. Demolins treats his subject like a physician making a calm and scientific diagnosis of his patient's case, and prescribes his remedies and the regimen to be followed with so masterful a tone that the sick man is disposed to put himself unreservedly into the hands of his doctor. As a professional economist, the author makes very evident his scientific zeal in investigation, and his earnestness in wishing to understand his country's problem and find a cure for her ills. His theme is the maintenance of national eminence in the world, especially in the enlargement of national influence, the preservation of the vigor of the stock, the growth of its colonial offshoots, the filling of the world with its swarming numbers, and the growing dominance of its ideas, its traits, and its language. He has to account for the confessed fact that France and the Latin races have dropped behind in this race, while England and America have increased the pace and are foremost in the struggle.

M. Demolins's method is to analyze the life and habits of the contrasted races at school, in private life, and in public activity. This is the largest triple division of his work. Under the first he inquires which system best forms Men. Under the second, he compares the birth-rate, the family thrift, and the preparation of children for the struggle for existence. Lastly, he deals with the political trend of the races, and their relative dependence on the State or upon individual initiative for securing private happiness and the common weal.

The comparison between English and French schools will not be satisfactory to Englishmen and Americans. When the author speaks of the faults of French methods of education, we listen to an expert whose statements are authoritative; but when he contrasts these with the assumed excellences of English schools, we have to disclaim, in great measure, the superiority which he concedes to the latter. The example which he chooses as an illustration is not of a prevalent type, but a quite recent, and in some respects a new, experiment. Neither England nor America is free from "cramming," from superficial glibness of recitation, from the hot race for marks and honors, or from the tricks which give success in examinations to shallow work. We find comfort in believing that we are making progress, but it would not be honest to accept the praise which M. Demolins bestows. Then it is hardly a generation since parliamentary commissions started the reform of the English universities, and began their emancipation from the narrow and stereotyped classicism which had lasted for centuries. It will not do to find the secret of English power and American progress in the local methods of school education for youth, because the world-encircling system of English colonies and the American transformation of a continent long preceded the current ideas of broad and practical education, and were astonishing the world when, as yet, there was little that was characteristic in our schools, and we were, in fact, looking to France and Germany for our models.

In dealing with family life and the home education and habits of the French, our author comes closer to the causes of national characteristics, though it may still be a question whether the education produces the characteristics, or is itself the natural expression of hereditary traits long since evolved in the history of the nation. M. Demolins is, however, conclusive authority for the fact that French youth are lacking in independence, in self-reliance, in enterprise. They are habituated to look to their parents for a settlement in life; for the selection of a career; for the choice of a husband or wife; for the portion or dower which shall insure a livelihood. They look implicitly to their parents thus to place them, and accept the place as the decree of Providence. For one of the French bourgeoisie to break out of these trammels would seem to require almost as great a wrench as for the heir of an English landed estate to tear up the family settlement, break the entail, and work for his own living till the death of his

father shall make him owner in fee. A habit of thought and action may become so nearly universal among a people that the violation of the artificial code may seem worse than breaking all the commandments of the decalogue. We might think that the result of this in France would be that the poor, who have nothing, would profit by their poverty to gain the vigor and initiative which their betters have lost; but it would seem that the poor ape the rich, and that the father of a brood of sans-culottes has the same dominion as the head of a great family.

There are occasional examples which show what might come of the rude training of necessity. Audubon naïvely tells how his father, one of twenty sons of the poor fisherman his grandfather, was put to the door of the hut at twelve years of age, clad in a tow shirt and trousers, and bade in heaven's name to find a way to get his own bread. In that case the heroic treatment succeeded, and the outcast made his way through fishing-boats and smacks to the quarter-deck of a man-of-war, and reached both rank and wealth. If there had been more Frenchmen of that breed, Demolins would not have to lament the lack of self-reliance or the dwindling of the birth-rate. But the exception seems to prove the rule, and we have to accept the author's conclusion that dependence on parents has produced timidity in the struggle for life, has been followed by penny-wise thrift which is content with petty employments and small official places that are permanent, has led to a fear of family burdens and to the birth of few children or none, until the native population of France is sensibly diminishing, and an immigration of Swiss and Italians is filling the vacuum and changing the elements of the nation.

Turning to the phenomena of public life, the working of the same causes is seen. A paternal government has long treated the people as children, ruling their local life in even the smallest matters, discouraging all initiative, whether in the repair of a bridge or the tiling of a schoolhouse roof, and referring nearly everything to the decision of the central authority. There has thus grown up what M. Demolins calls the communistic form of society, marked by personal dependency and weakness of character, as distinguished from the particularistic form, in which there is self-reliance and private initiative. The author answers the question of his title-page by saying that France is a nation having the first of these forms of society, with all the weakness and danger of decadence that come from it, while the English-speaking peoples are striking examples of the second, with all the enterprise, energy, and growth which belong to it.

Socialism he finds to be the logical outcome of dependence upon central authority, the abdication of personal initiative becoming more and more complete till the State absorbs all direction and responsibility for the conduct of life, and, of course, absorbs also the capital and property from which the livelihood is to be produced. He sagaciously shows how natural it is that socialism should be antipathetic to self-reliance, and that the slight hold it has taken in Anglo-Saxon communities is strictly harmonious with the prediction to be drawn from the scientific analysis of the forms of society and their tendencies.

He argues, too, that socialism must be self-destructive; for as the great examples in the world's history show that individual self-reliance and personal initiative give success in the inexorable struggle for existence, the lack of them brings decadence of the whole community, destruction of the capital which was to support the industries of the people, and the sure and hopeless impoverishment of the individual along with the State. With general poverty must come decay of art, of science, of intelligence.

The remedy is the resolute change of habits of thought and activity. God helps those who help themselves. The next generation must be taught to stand on their own legs, not to expect to be carried by their parents or their community, large or small. They must be ready to strive and sweat in the race under the open sun, and not to saunter through Arcadia leaning on each other and wreathed with flowers. The laurels must come after the struggle. They must fully accept the creed that the nation is only the organization of the individuals, and that it can be strong, energetic, self-reliant, and prosperous only as the individual shows the same characters and does his part towards impressing them on the whole.

The lesson M. Demolins reads his countrymen is not for Frenchmen alone. Every candid Englishman and American needs to take it to heart and note how he can profit by it, putting on the cap that will fit many of us quite as well as our neighbors.

BALDWIN'S STORY OF THE MIND.

The Story of the Mind. By James Mark Baldwin. [The Library of Useful Stories.] D. Appleton & Co. 1898. 16mo, pp. 236.

Here is a little book, easy to hold, pleasant to read, warranted to get read, without skippings, to its last word. Yet, after all, it contains some seventy thousand words—enough to outline any science, or, for that matter, all human knowledge, usefully. If the publishers will only remember that, while a narrow subject needs to be treated in some detail and at large, under pain of superficiality, a broad survey of a broad subject may have a high value, provided it be executed by a broad and deep student, they will do something for our enlightenment by this happily conceived series.

Probably among all our eminent psychologists nobody was better circumstanced than the author, by the interest and practical importance of the branch in which he has specially distinguished himself of late years, to make this outline of psychology. The two chapters about children are most charming. The characterization of the "motor child" is remarkable. Most of the chapters are skilfully and artistically constructed. The effort to maintain the extreme simplicity which is the idea of the series, and apparently to address an audience not at all in the habit of thinking, has had a questionable effect upon the chapter which, after all, was the most important, that upon general psychology. There is a certain limit beyond which it is impossible to simplify this difficult subject; the effort to do so can only result in loss of real perspicuity, especially to that public of psychologists by nature who are most likely to read the book, and who have been thinking about the mind, off and on, all their lives. We read that, "the electrician, say, cannot observe . . . the electric sparks without really using his introspection upon what is before him." If the meaning is that attentive observation of an outward object, without thought of self, involves all the introspection there is, would not the same idea have been more clearly expressed by denying that there is any such thing as introspection? But, in any case, the reader will sorely feel the lack of any account of what self-observation really consists in. We read: the "association of ideas, thinking, reasoning, etc., . . . used to be considered as separate 'faculties' of the soul, and as showing the mind doing different things. But that view is now completely given up. . . . Mind does only one thing. . . . That one thing is combining." Perhaps this very strong language might be necessary in a book addressed to German readers, but the misapprehensions of many an English reader are quite on the side of the *tabula rasa;* and the whole English tradition is that by faculties are meant mere logical classes. The classical British psychologists, whom it would be base for us to decry, as Germans do, far from considering the association of ideas as a special faculty (although they certainly did not deny that the mind "does different things," just as gravitation may produce orbital or hyperbolic motion or impact), did maintain that the one law of association, which Prof. Baldwin would call the law of "combining ideas," exclusively governs all the actions of the mind. Were this not otherwise plainly their doctrine, a moment's consideration of the theory of vibrations would render it so, in Hartley's case. When a school of students makes a scientific discovery, though it were not, like this, of the first order, and when, having demonstrated its truth as well as their historical position permits, they invent a special term to serve as the scientific name of what they have discovered, is it good morals for subsequent writers of the same language to assent to a narrowing of the meaning of that term, the purpose of which, in the first instance, was to deprive that school of the honor justly due them and transfer it to foreign plagiarists?

But, without insisting upon this point, it seems to us that many an American and English reader will do one of two things: either he will understand that Prof. Baldwin plants himself flat-footed upon the proposition that to feel a sensation of green, to make an effort, to acquire or break away from a habit, to experience fatigue, not only one and all consist in combining ideas, but are not "doing different things," or else he will be utterly puzzled at the outset as to what is meant, and will read no further. True, he can procure Prof. Baldwin's 'Handbook' in two volumes octavo, and thus ascertain just what he does think. But we cannot withhold the opinion that a further elucidation of general psychology would improve this little book, even if it had to be relegated to an appendix. In a certain recent work by a medical man we came across an emphatic reiteration of Claude Bernard's dictum that "disease is not an entity." That sounded like the proposition that the mind has no faculties, both being cases of routine clinging to a phrase of nominalistic metaphysics after its original meaning has completely evaporated. That the mind has no faculties was at first the shibboleth of Herbartian metaphysics, which has completely gone by. Though it is gross exaggeration—as if the human race were devoid of special instincts, and as if there

were no inborn differences of bent—still, it served in Germany to shake people out of a certain confusion of thought.

The only other chapter in which we discover any defect of lucidity is the last, concerning genius. If the word "genius" bears any unambiguous meaning, it surely signifies a very extraordinary native departure from the ordinary proportions of the faculties in a man, such as goes far toward fitting him for very extraordinary achievements. In this sense, there is no other department of science in which there is half the opportunity for genius that there is in mathematics. Hence, it is not a bad plan, when a generalization about scientific genius is made, to test it by comparison with the great mathematicians. Now, if we understand Prof. Baldwin, which seems hardly possible, in proposing as the criterion for distinguishing between the genius and the crank, that the true genius "and society must agree in regard to the fitness" of his ideas, and "for the most part his judgment is at once also the social judgment," he means that if the society of the day regard a man's ideas as unsound, he is no genius. But the history of mathematics simply swarms with instances in which work utterly neglected and despised in its day was found by a later generation to be fundamentally important, so that mathematicians proceeded to build upon it. The world had to grow up to it.

There was one Girard Desargues, who in 1639 printed a volume entitled 'Brouillon Project d'une atteinte aux évènements des rencontres d'un cône avec un plan.' Although Descartes praised Desargues in a private letter, as did the young Pascal in a work never yet printed, and Fermat somewhere (very likely on the margin of a book he was reading), yet he was so generally regarded as a crank by his contemporaries that early in this century he would hardly have been remembered at all, except for some sparse contemporary allusions to his "faiblesse pitoyable," etc. In fact, Montucla's great history of mathematics, enlarged by Lalande and extended by Delambre—five bulky quartos, which certainly did not intend to overlook any French name of the least account—does not recognize the existence of Desargues. As far as we are aware, no printed copy of the original book has ever yet turned up. But it happened one day in 1845 that M. Michel Chasles, the great geometer, started so early for the Monday meeting of the Institute that he lingered on the quay and began turning over the books exposed for sale on the parapet. He came across an old MS. copy of the book mentioned, which he purchased for a trifle. He took it home, and, having done so, he violated all book-buyers' manners by sitting down and reading it. He found it to be what, had it been written the day before, would have to be considered a very able treatise on that projective geometry which was rightly reckoned as the great glory of the nineteenth century in pure mathematics (though of course with important lacunæ), and he further found that Desargues had made an immense stride in advance of modern geometers in recognizing the fundamental importance of a relation which he called involution, and which, under the same name, is still regarded as a cornerstone of geometry! There are certain *minutiæ* of the history into which we cannot enter. The above account is as correct as its brevity permits.

Space does not permit us to set forth other like cases, not even a poor half-dozen selected from those of our own century—say the cases of Gaulois, Listing, Lobatchewski, Plücker, Green, and Hesse. Of these great names we find but two in the body of Phillips's Index; and one of these has no reference, so that it was doubtless inserted by the searching editor of the second edition. The man in vogue cannot escape the influence of the psychological law which causes him to desire to deny such facts; but they have their own sullen way of mutely but stubbornly continuing to exist. Happening to open the works of Beaumarchais at that piece in which his genius first found its strength, one would be surprised to read as its title, 'Le Barbier de Séville, comédie en quatre actes et en prose, représentée et tombée sur le théâtre de la Comédie-Française, le 23 février, 1775.' A public may need a little education even to appreciate a farce. On the other hand, nothing is more amusing than to compare those whom the society of their day looked upon as immense with some contemporaries who passed unknown, beginning with Alexander of Ales and Albertus Magnus against Petrus Peregrinus and Roger Bacon. Prof. Baldwin speaks of the "supreme sanity" of Newton—a decidedly unfortunate instance from various points of view. But here we only note that since Newton considered his commentary on Daniel to be his greatest work, it follows that, according to the criterion seemingly proposed, he would have to be reckoned as no genius.

American Ideals, and Other Essays, Social and Political. By Theodore Roosevelt. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This book has been on our table for a long time; but the prominent position to which the author has risen in the last few months will naturally attract attention to all his past work, and men will read eagerly to find out what are the ideals of one of the most conspicuous Americans of to-day. And what Col. Roosevelt has done in these few months will answer their search. With him the American ideal is fighting. When he tries to lay down what Americans aim at, or ought to aim at, he does not draw any sharp line of demarcation between our ideals and those of any cultivated, intelligent nation conscious of high aims and high opportunities. It would be hard to differentiate his good American from a good Englishman or German or Hollander or Scandinavian; not any too easy to do so from a good Frenchman or Italian or Greek or Roman. But one thing he is very certain of: as soon as we know our ideal, we have got to fight for it. And by fighting he does not mean merely moral fighting—he means blows, wounds, and death, swords and rifles and cannon; nay, earlier weapons still. He lays down emphatically in his preface that a football player is the true type of an American patriot; he speaks more than once of the rougher and more virile virtues. He has proved his belief in this view by giving up a post in the public service where he was working, to the satisfaction of everybody concerned, in practically upholding his country's cause as he understood it, in order to be where wounds and death were going on, and leaving the navy, which has been of ten-fold the importance of the army, to get such direction as it might. It was his business—trained civilian as he was—to fight.

It is of very little use to combat such a view as this. If a man is Richard Cœur de Lion born seven centuries too late, one cannot argue with him; one can only say, and leave him to find out what you mean, that gentleness, tenderness, conciliation, and peacemaking are more truly virile virtues than the rougher ones, because they are more human. Whatever is brutal is not a virtue for man, in either sense of that word. Moreover, the American ideal, in contrast to those of the Old World, has hitherto been pacific.

When we get Mr. Roosevelt off his battle-steed, some of his accounts of his civil career (especially where he describes how successfully, judiciously, and honestly he employed tact and courtesy to gain his point, instead of pugnacity) are very interesting. Many will be attracted to his history of civil-service reform; and some who recall the Fifty-third Congress, on which he has much to say, will wonder that he contrives, more ingeniously than ingenuously, to suppress all mention of Mr. Everett of Massachusetts among the champions of that cause. No one knows better than Mr. Roosevelt that that member blocked in the House committee a quantity of insidious or violent attacks on the reform, when advance was impossible; that he made one of the most effective speeches in its favor; and that while he refused to vote against Mr. Bynum's iniquitous bill for reinstating the railway-mail clerks, he equally, being in the House, refused to vote for it, and would not defend either the past Republican or the proposed Democratic injustice.

Col. Roosevelt is a candidate for one of the most distinguished offices in the United States. He has been selected as such largely from his distinction as the head of the Rough Riders, which has for the time being eclipsed that which he gained in the cause of good government.

> "Of two such lessons, why forget
> The nobler and the manlier one?"

The New England Poets: A Study of Emerson, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, Holmes. By William Cranston Lawton. Macmillan. 1898.

Manuals of American Literature are being multiplied, just now, and come largely from teachers in the smaller colleges or in academies of minor fame. It is a pleasure to meet with one proceeding from an author well known as a careful student of the Greek and Latin classics, who is able to view modern literature in its proportionate size. Prof. Lawton perhaps puts the classic background in an aspect almost too formidable when, in his very preface, he mildly reproaches Lowell for not being Pindar, and complains of Longfellow's 'Hiawatha' for affording on the whole less nutriment than Homer's 'Iliad.' Yet it is rather a satisfaction, when the whole domain of the classics is being so constantly undermined, even in our oldest universities, to see the vigor of the ancient tradition still sustained somewhere, and to find at least one professor ready to die in its defence. There is about Prof. Lawton nothing pedantic and nothing polemic; and though the book in hand is prepared mainly for the University Extension demand, and has something of the familiar, not to say colloquial, tone of the lecture-room; though it deals too much in exclamation-points and parentheses and italics to satisfy the severer literary taste, yet it is probably, in es-

sentials, the best manual yet produced for the preliminary study of six of our leading authors. It is likely that, as usually happens in such cases, the distribution of space will satisfy nobody. Prof. Lawton gives Hawthorne fifty-seven pages, Longfellow fifty, Whittier forty, Lowell thirty-seven, Emerson twenty-seven, and Holmes twenty-three; and it is not quite clear why he gives the least space to the two whom, on the whole, he praises the most. Yet, after all, it is quality, not quantity, which affords the test, and he is both cordial and discriminating in dealing with them all.

Prof. Lawton is almost always suggestive, rather than dogmatic, and of course touches many points on which opinions may vary. His assertion (p. 15) that belles-lettres could have found no toleration in early New England is hardly reconcilable with the fact that the library bequeathed by John Harvard to the college which was to bear his name, included such authors as Homer, Hesiod, Herodotus, Æschylus, and Juvenal. Brook Farm was not, as we read (on p. 28), "communistic" or even (p. 60) "semi-communistic," and it is remembered that its advocates battled with some vehemence in the social-reform conventions of that day against the whole theory of communism, as stoutly defended by John A. Collins. Probably few of the older readers of Emerson would agree with Prof. Lawton as to the superiority of 'The Conduct of Life' to the original essay on 'Nature,' or would urge it as desirable (p. 33) to introduce young students to him through his later works. Nor would such readers be likely to endorse his rather slighting opinion of the "Dirge" (p. 39). There is a misprint in the citation of Emerson's most musical lines (p. 35); the last of these being actually

"And the ripples in rhymes the oar forsake,"

where half the charm vanishes on putting "rhyme" in the singular. There must be many persons, surely, who will recollect the first reading of some poem of Lowell's as an era in their lives, although Prof. Lawton doubts it (p. 103); as, for instance, the poem called "Longing," the "Verses suggested by the Present Crisis," and the "Commemoration Ode." Prof. Lawton himself cannot bring his book to a climax without quoting in the last paragraph, "New occasions teach new duties."

In speaking (p. 105) of the "general approval" of the placing of Longfellow's bust in Westminster Abbey, the English approval is intended; but certainly there were many in this country who would have preferred to see the bust in a Westminster Abbey or Valhalla of our own. In speaking of Longfellow's father (p. 100), it might have been well to mention that he was a member of the celebrated Hartford Convention. It is an error to say of the events of 'Hyperion' that they were "altogether fictitious" (p. 128). It is hardly accurate to speak of Longfellow's having "yielded to his publisher's desire and omitted the Poems on Slavery from the collected edition of his works" (p. 131), without mentioning the fact that there were two collected editions, published within three months of each other (November, 1845—February, 1846), from the first of which (Carey & Hart) these poems were omitted, while in the second (Harpers) they were retained; this last being the popular edition and having a far wider circulation. Nor is it correct (p. 131) to infer that "he had not the slightest share" of Whittier's taste for politics because he rejected with terror the suggestion that he should run for Congress, inasmuch as Whittier himself also declined such nominations. The truth is, that without having the positive taste for political action which Whittier showed, Longfellow was peculiarly conscientious about his duties in the matter, always voted, sometimes attended caucuses, and was to be relied upon for pecuniary contributions. "The herons of Elmwood," of whom Longfellow sang, did not "build in the Elmwood thickets, and nowhere else for miles round" (p. 204); still less do they "still" build there. If there ever were nests there, it could only have been a sporadic and exceptional matter, for the main heronry was in the extensive Fresh Pond marshes, a mile or two away, and disappeared with them when the Fitchburg Railway was cut through.

To say of Holmes's original and profound study of 'Elsie Venner,' "It is as fascinating as anything of Rider Haggard's" (p. 248), seems to come pretty near bathos. But these criticisms as to detail are matters of minor importance; the essential thing being that this is a book worth criticising, because it is the best book of its kind, and will doubtless mould the early impressions of many young readers. We must not omit to mention the admirable pages of "Parallel Lives" at the beginning, which will be worth more than any criticism to the sort of reader whom Charles Sumner used to designate, in his sonorous way, as "The Ingenuous Student."

Henry of Guise, and Other Portraits. By H. C. Macdowall. The Macmillan Co. 1898.

Mr. Macdowall draws historical portraits of Agrippa d'Aubigné and Catherine of Navarre, besides that of the Guise from whose name the volume takes its title. Thus all three of his topics fall within the period of the religious wars in France, a time of terror and carnage, but also, for later ages, of great fascination. Few epochs or movements have such piquant sources. For biographers, Brantôme, L'Estoile, and Sully; for contemporary historians, Davila, De Thou, and D'Aubigné, are a band rarely found in a single generation, and they are only first among the many writers of credit and liveliness who have celebrated St. Bartholomew, the Wars of the League, and Henry IV. Party hatred was never more intense than then, and so the modern critic, amid much conflicting information, finds his ingenuity taxed to get at the truth and tell a plain story. It is like resolving all the colors of the spectrum into a plain drab. Take, for instance, Catherine de Médicis. It was a long while before she ceased to be considered a ruthless and sombre politician with far-reaching schemes, and came to be seen as she was, an ever-cheerful opportunist, who, to be sure, had no scruples, but never gave a *coup de grâce* when bribery or compromise was possible. Mr. Macdowall has enough to do in clearing up series upon series of picturesque but contradictory statements. Instead of pointing morals or discovering heroes, he takes for his aim the right line of accuracy. His motto is a saying of Philip de Comines: "Je l'ay faict le plus près de la vérité que j'ay peu."

Of Mr. Macdowall's three essays the first is both the longest and the most important. The Guise family holds a unique place in French history. In the fifteenth century the great nobles were not minions of the crown. Although their power had been reduced, they were not yet focussed at Paris. In the seventeenth century they lost all territorial independence and became courtiers. The clan of Guise occupies an intermediate and singular position. They owed their rise, at the outset, to royal favor, and in the reign of Francis I. may be classed as courtiers. Then, through ability, the possession of manifold offices, international alliances, and civil confusion, they more than once became, under the last four Valois, Mayors of the Palace in everything save title. Duke Claude, Duke Francis, the Cardinal of Lorraine, Duke Henry, and the Duke of Mayenne were the illustrious and powerful members of the connection, and of these four none equalled Duke Henry in point of success and influence. It may be doubted whether in war he ever rose to the level of his father's achievement at Metz, but circumstances favored him, and whereas in 1560 the Guises were universally detested, in 1588 their head was the idol of Paris, and the soul of the strongest faction in the realm.

Henry of Guise was a great-grandson of Lucrezia Borgia, and Mr. Macdowall finds an outcrop of this ancestry in his yellow curls and his southern grace. He had a beauty and bearing denied to the Valois princes, who seemed plebeian beside him. The consuming desire of his youth was to take revenge on Coligny for his employment of Poltrot de Méré, the assassin of Duke Francis. Coligny swore, "as in the presence of God and on his honor," that he had no share in the murder, but he pretended no regret for it, and the score between Châtillons and Guises remained unsettled until St. Bartholomew. Apart from Coligny, Duke Henry sought to be friends with every one.

"The twin passions that had consumed his boyhood—the hunger for power, the fiercer hunger for revenge—had left no trace of bitterness or melancholy upon him. He spoke ill of no one and he never refused a favor; it was impossible to resist his good temper, the subtle brightness of his smile, his caressing tones. He asked nothing better than (with one exception) to be friends with all the world, and all the world (with one exception) was ready to be friends with him. The first was Coligny, the second was Henry of Anjou."

Francis of Guise had a favorite saying, "To each his turn." It was a maxim which implied unlimited tragedy, and in his son's case it proved a two-edged sword. He had his vengeance on his enemy, and Anjou's weak jealousy, cherished from boyhood, at last wreaked its will on him.

Henry of Guise matured early, and by 1572 his character was well formed. With the massacre of St. Bartholomew he appeared on the wide stage of French politics, and, later on, his European consequence was extended by his Spanish connection. The three main features of his public life are his control of Paris, his relations with Philip II., and his part in the Wars of the League. The religious feud had waxed fiercer and fiercer during the ten years which followed its outbreak in 1562. Speaking of the three civil wars of this period, D'Aubigné says: "In the first we fought like angels, in the second like men, in the third like devils." If they fought like devils before St. Bartholomew, what must the conflict have been after it, in the turgid days when Europe was devastated by the full-blown hatreds of the Catholic reactions? The most that can

be said for a military or political leader in Guise's place is that he was not unnecessarily cruel. It may be claimed for him that, though a less admirable chief than Coligny, he once or twice went out of his way to save life. With regard to his stipend from Spain, Mr. Macdowall shows that he began by "planning not the ruin of France, but the conquest of England; and this is the explanation of the otherwise unaccountable fact that for nearly seven years the League remained dormant." Philip's motive, on the other hand, was undoubtedly to divide France, and Guise became so enmeshed in debt and other obligations that he ended by becoming a disloyal pensioner. Paris he took care to "nurse" as a modern politician nurses his constituency; and by cultivating "merchants, lawyers, curés—guests who had never before seen the inside of a nobleman's house," he made himself a popular hero and King of the Barricades.

Mr. Macdowall's study of Guise will repay careful examination, and his two shorter essays are both excellent. All three represent thorough research at first hand, while it is no small matter that his narrative should attract the attention by its graceful and finished style.

The Bible of St. Mark: St. Mark's Church, the Altar and Throne of Venice. By Alexander Robertson, D.D., author of 'Fra Paolo Sarpi,' 'Through the Dolomites,' etc. With 82 illustrations. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898.

The religious teaching of different branches of the Christian Church is of never-failing interest to modern Christians and to modern students of belief and of doctrine; and this is peculiarly so when there is question of the beliefs and of the teaching of the great historical epochs of Europe. Questions of church government, too, are so inextricably intertwined with all European history for seventeen centuries that every demonstration, or attempted demonstration, of something peculiar and perhaps abnormal in this respect supplies material for quite endless discussion. The book under consideration deals primarily with just such questions as these. That the religious teaching of Venice was, in the ninth and eleventh centuries, more exclusively founded on the text of the Bible than was usual at that time in Europe; that this tendency existed throughout the Middle Ages; that the mosaics of St. Mark's Church are a sufficient and unmistakable evidence of this; that the church government of Venice was preserved from the domination of papal Rome by being kept steadily under the control of the state, and that this fact is proved, if not as directly, yet as certainly, by the whole body of the mosaics and by their teaching if considered together—these are the statements which may be found insisted on throughout Dr. Robertson's book. The testimony of the mosaics is also invoked to prove the absence of Mariolatry among the mediæval teachers of religion in Venice; to show the determined putting forward, in pictorial representation, of the Second Person of the Trinity as the actor, whenever the Almighty is named in the Biblical record, as set forth on the walls of the church, and the consequent absence of any attempted representation of God the Father; and to demonstrate that the religion of mediæval Venice was wholly Biblical—founded upon "*an open Bible and absolute freedom from priestly domination*"—as the preface has it.

A large number of half-tone prints—perhaps eighty—are given, many of them reproducing mosaics which have never been photographed before, not even for the great monograph published by Signor Ongania. These are accompanied by a running comment and a descriptive analysis of the many reproduced, and a much larger number not reproduced, of the mosaics. Some few of the pictures and a part of the text deal also with sculptured reliefs in the archivolts or incrusted in the walls, for even these last, generally looked upon as relics of antiquity or trophies of conquest, as purely decorative additions put up in the church as the only place of safe keeping—the one art-museum—of the poor little city of a thousand years ago, are here claimed as part of the religious and ecclesiastical annals of Venice.

It will be evident from the above account of the book that it is not a work of art criticism nor even of artistic history. It is, indeed, asserted (page 5) that the highest mission of art is to exhibit and convey to the mind spiritual truths under the aspect of beauty—an assertion which will, of course, be resented by almost every artist if by "spiritual" be meant, as in this book, religious in a doctrinal sense. There is also some very good teaching (p. 17 and p. 79-80) about the *arti* of Venice and of the mediæval world in general. A uniform tone of enthusiastic and affectionate but undiscriminating praise is adopted towards the earlier works of art described, and the assumption is found everywhere that good art is pretty nearly synonymous with art which conveys good Christianity and sound morality. This is the general character of the Ruskinian art teaching, and no reader will be surprised to find frequent allusions to Mr. Ruskin's works and to the author's personal acquaintance with him.

The book is not, however, without a more practical value to the art-student. Apart from the scores of valuable photographs, it contains diagrams to which the reader may refer in order to place the different mosaics. There is a plan of the church (p. 202) upon which the main subjects of the mosaics of walls and domes are given. A similar diagram (p. 107) takes up the important pictures of the great narthex—here unwisely called "Atrium"—and in such ways as this a great deal of information is given about the church and its principal adornments; information which could be found elsewhere only in costly books and large collections of photographs. The analysis of each picture, although rather doctrinal, and even partisan in matter of doctrine, may yet serve as an aid to beginners in the study of ancient descriptive works of art. The peculiarities of pose, of scale, of adaptation to curve and broken surface which at once explain and justify the archaic character of the work—a character which the modern student is apt to assign too exclusively to ignorance of drawing and anatomy—are all more easily understood when their meaning, or even their assumed meaning, has been once explained. Moreover, the mere elucidation of the Latin inscriptions, which are difficult enough with their numerous abbreviations and the mediæval form of letter, besides being taken from a Latin version of the Bible even less familiar than the Vulgate to modern readers—this also may aid greatly one who desires to learn the meaning and true intent of the designers. The book is, therefore, one fitted to be useful to many students rather of art than of theological history.

A large-paper edition, consisting of a limited number of copies made up in quarto, has the additional attraction of sixteen larger photographs which replace as many smaller ones. These are excellent pictures and have great archæological value. This edition has also four colored plates, three of which replace the black-and-white pictures of the smaller edition, and one is in excess, making the total number of illustrations eighty-three in the larger book against eighty-two in the smaller one. Considering these photographs, the larger and the smaller ones alike, the user of the book has cause to regret that the knowledge which the author has gained from his friend, the architect in charge of the church, and from his own studies in Venice has not been used more freely. Allusion is made to the replacing of some of the later mosaics by others made carefully from the original cartoons which had been preserved, and it would be most desirable that these should be enumerated, and that serious restoration should also be pointed out. In short, the mosaics, upon which so much depends, both for Dr. Robertson's argument and for the studies of the lover of mediæval art, might well be introduced to us as intact, as slightly restored at such a time, as greatly restored, or as new, but made from the old cartoons. The very basis and foundation of an argument drawn from a series of pictures is that the authenticity and originality of those pictures should be established beyond a doubt.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Prof. H. C. The Science of Finance. Henry Holt & Co. $3.50.
Alexandre, Arsène. Catherine, Catherinette, et Catarina. W. R. Jenkins.
Altsheler, J. A. A Herald of the West. Appletons. $1.50.
Baldwin, Simeon E. Modern Political Institutions. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.
Baring-Gould, S. Domitia. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Bell, Lilian. The Instinct of Step-Fatherhood. Harpers. $1.25.
Bellamy, Edward. The Blindman's World, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Black, Margaret M. Robert Louis Stevenson. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Black, William. Wild Eelin. Harpers. $1.75.
Belden, Jessie Van Zile. The King's Ward. F. T. Neely.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. A Country Idyl, and Other Stories. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Booth, J. L. C. Sporting Rhymes and Pictures. R. H. Russell.
Bosanquet, Mrs. Bernard. The Standard of Life, and Other Studies. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bourget, Paul. Antigone, and Other Portraits of Women. Scribners. $1.50.
Brooks, Noah. The Story of Marco Polo. Century Co. $1.50.
Brown, A. E. John Hancock, his Book. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Browne, Prof. W. H., and Haldeman, Prof. S. S. The Clarendon Dictionary. New ed. University Publishing Co.
Buell, C. S. Essentials of Psychology. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Story of America. Revised and enlarged. Werner Co.
Campbell, W. D. Beyond the Border. London: Constable; New York: R. H. Russell.
Capes, Bernard. Adventures of the Count de la Muette. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Carlyle, Thomas. History of Frederick the Great. Vol. VIII. Latter-day Pamphlets. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. Each $1.25.
Carryl, G. W. Fables for the Frivolous. Illustrated by Peter Newell. Harpers. $1.50.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Witch Winnie in Spain. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Chipman, Prof. G. E. Outlines of Modern International Law. Upper Alton, Ill.: John Leverett. 25c.
Clark, Mrs. Hattie A. Pro Christo. The Story of a Royal Huguenot. American Tract Society. $1.25.
Cloud, Virginia W. Down Durley Lane, and Other Ballads. Century Co.
Coffin, Prof. J. H. C. Navigation and Nautical Astronomy Review. 7th ed. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Comical Coons. R. H. Russell.
Creighton, Prof. J. E. An Introductory Logic. Macmillan. $1.10.
Dickens, Charles. Hard Times. Sketches by Boz. 2 vols. American Notes. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners. Each $1.50.

Dunbar, Paul L. The Uncalled. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Dickens, Charles. The Cricket on the Hearth. Century Co.
Dodd, Catherine L. Introduction to the Herbartian Principles of Teaching. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Dole, C. F. Luxury and Sacrifice. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Douglas, Amanda M. A Little Girl in Old Boston. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Duppa, C. M. Stories from Lowly Life. Macmillan.
Edwards, E. B. Ruth and her Grandfather. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.
Elizabeth and her German Garden. Macmillan. $1.25.
Finley, Martha. Twiddledetwit. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Franklin, Benjamin. Poor Richard's Almanac. Century Co.
Fuller, Anna. One of the Pilgrims: A Bank Story. Putnams. $1.25.
Gardner, E. G. Dante's Ten Heavens. A Study of the Paradiso. London: Constable; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Garland, Hamlin. Ulysses S. Grant; his Life and Character. Doubleday & McClure Co. $2.50.
Gem Dictionary of English. Putnams. 75c.
Genung, Prof. J. F. What a Carpenter did with his Bible. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Giddings, Prof. F. H. The Elements of Sociology. Macmillan. $1.10.
Gould, J. M., and Savary, E. H. The War Revenue Law of 1898. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.25.
Gudeman, Prof. Alfred. Latin Literature of the Empire. Vol. I. Prose. Harpers.
Henderson, Lieut.-Col. G. F. R. Stonewall Jackson and the American Civil War. 2 vols. Longmans. $10.00.
Heron-Allen, Ed. A Manual of Cheirosophy. London: Ward, Locke & Co.; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Hocking, Joseph. Mistress Nancy Molesworth. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Hodgson, S. H. The Metaphysic of Experience. 4 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.
Holder, C. F. The Treasure Divers. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Hort, Rev. F. J. A. Cambridge and Other Sermons. Macmillan.
Hudson, Prof. W. H. The Study of English Literature. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Hughes, Rupert. The Lakerim Athletic Club. Century Co. $1.50.
Hurlbut, J. L., and Doherty, R. R. Illustrative Notes on the International Sunday School Lessons. Eaton & Mains. $1.25.
Hyndman, H. H. F. Radiation. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan.
Ilsley, Marshall. By the Western Sea. A Book of Verse. San Francisco: Elder & Shepard. $1.50.
Irving, Washington. Captain Bonneville's Adventures. [Pawnee Edition.] 2 vols. Putnams. $6.
James, Henry. The Two Magics. Macmillan. $1.50.
James, Prof. William. Human Immortality. Two Supposed Objections to the Doctrine. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Jerome, J. K. Second Thoughts of an Idle Fellow. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Kemp, Rev. Dennis. Nine Years at the Gold Coast. Macmillan. $5.
Kernahan, Mrs. C. Trewinnot of Guy's: A Novel. 5th ed. London: John Long; New York: M. F. Mansfield & Co. $1.50.
King, C. F. Roundabout Rambles in Northern Europe. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Kirk, Ellen Olney. Dorothy Deane. A Children's Story. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Krehbiel, H. E. Music and Manners in the Classical Period. Scribners. $1.50.
Lambert, Prof. P. A. Differential and Integral Calculus. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lawrence, Dr. R. M. The Magic of the Horse-Shoe, with Other Folk-Lore Notes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.25.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. LVI. Teach—Tollet. Macmillan. $3.75.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 218. Boston: The Living Age Co. $2.25.
Long, J. L. Madame Butterfly. Century Co.
Marden, O. S. The Secret of Achievement. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Maynard, Cora. The Letter and the Spirit. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Méras, Prof. Baptiste, and Stern, S. M. Grammaire Française. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Meredith, George, Evan Harrington. Short Stories. Scribners. Each $1.50.
Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender, 1899. Lemcke & Buechner.
Miller, Rev. J. R. The Joy of Service. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Mitchell, Dr. S. W. The Adventures of François. Century Co.
Moore, E. F. The Fatal Gift. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Morrison, Sarah E. Chilhowee Boys in Harness. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Morton, Agnes H. Our Conversational Circle. Century Co.
Munroe, Kirk. In Pirate Waters. A Tale of the American Navy. Scribners. $1.25.
Nipher, Prof. F. E. An Introduction to Graphical Algebra. Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Noa, F. M. The Pearl of the Antilles. New York: The Author.
Norton, Lord. Reflections on the Course from the Goal. London: Rivingtons.
Paine, A. B. The Hollow Tree. R. H. Russell.
Parker, W. G. Six Young Hunters. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Parlow, Maria. Home Economics. Century Co. $1.50.
Payson, W. F. The Title-Mongers. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Pearse, Rev. M. G. The Gentleness of Jesus. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Peattie, Ella W. The Shape of Fear. Macmillan. 75c.
Perkins, Mary H. (Dorcas Hicks). Through My Spectacles. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Randolph, Innes. Poems. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co. $1.
Reason, W. University and Social Settlements. London: Methuen & Co.
Remington, Frederic. Crooked Trails. Illustrated. Harpers. $2.
Robinson, Prof. J. H., and Rolf, Prof. H. W. Petrarch, the First Modern Scholar and Man of Letters. Putnams. $2.
Rostand, Edmond. Cyrano de Bergerac. R. H. Russell.
Rostand, Edmond. Cyrano de Bergerac. Translated by Gertrude Hall. Doubleday & McClure Co.
Rowland, Mira and Mabel. Childhood Songs. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 25c.
Ruskin, J. The King of the Golden River. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 20, 1898.

The Week.

The Spanish Commissioners at Paris are arguing away just as if it made any difference who wins the legal debate. In the end we shall throw the sword in to tip the scale, which makes their stubbornness in presenting legal objections to our demands seem peculiarly absurd. They have now, for example, asked our Commissioners, to whom is Spain to cede the sovereignty of Cuba? Not to the United States, for we do not want to take over a sovereignty that carries a big debt with it. It must be to the Cubans then, infer the Spanish; but if so, why are not the Cubans here to take it? No, it is not to the Cubans, either, reply our Commissioners. What, cry the astonished Spaniards, is there such a thing as a dormant sovereignty? Can we cede the sovereignty over Cuba to parties unnamed and unknown—hang it up in the air, as it were? They go on very confidently to affirm that such a thing as a dormant sovereignty is unknown to international law. This may seem to them a poser, but we are confident our Commissioners will crush them in rejoinder. Dormant sovereigns may be unfamiliar to international law, but they may be seen in large numbers in the United States. Dormant sovereignty is really in the same legal category as Republican apathy, so far as we can see. Both are abnormal, but both exist. Besides, the Spanish have got to get out of Cuba anyhow. They may say that they have international law on their side. We say, that's all right, but we have the island on our side.

We apprehend that there is no difference of opinion in this country on the question of assuming that part of the so-called Cuban debt which was incurred in suppressing local rebellions against the authority of Spain. Everybody rejects the proposal at once. All debts incurred for other purposes, such as the building of railroads, docks, or other improvements, whether those improvements are now available or not, rest on a different basis. They ought to go with the island, and remain a charge on its revenues. It does not follow that the United States ought to assume them or guarantee them, and we shall not assume them, but we ought to concede, so far as we are asked to do so, that such debts are a just charge upon the future government of the island. If Spain says that she must repudiate the Cuban war debt in whole or in part, or must scale down the interest, that is her lookout. The present Paris conference is analogous to the one which took place after our Revolutionary war. If Great Britain had presented a claim that that portion of her debt which was incurred in the war to suppress the uprising of the colonies should be assumed by the United States, she would have been smiled and bowed out of the room.

It is certainly a happy incident of our early government of Cuba and Porto Rico that it is a military government, putting at our disposal men like Gen. Wood. Army officers are, as a class, picked men, and their professional career relieves them of many of the temptations to which a civilian governor would be subject. Having power as well as responsibility, and intelligence as well as opportunity, they are peculiarly fitted for the work of restoring order in Cuba and presiding over the period of transition in Porto Rico. Another very important consideration is that their army pay is high enough to be an adequate return, pecuniarily, for their services. Gen. Wood must now be in receipt of a salary amounting all told to $7,500. It is doubtful if Congress, in providing a civil establishment for Cuba, would consent to pay such a salary to a mere governor of a province. One reason, in fact, why first-class men are not found in our consular service is that the Government will not pay enough to get first-class men. The case is very different, as is well known, with the English colonial service. To induce able men to risk life and health in arduous duties in unhealthy climates, a sufficient money reward must be offered them. Fortunately, as we say, the problem is temporarily solved for us in our temporary military government of Cuba and Porto Rico, by the very fact that it is a military government. The officers in command both are well paid and have an opportunity to do a work even more worth while than fighting battles. Some general will have to do for Havana what Gen. Wood has done for Santiago, and what the English have done in Kingston—convert a fever-hole into a city with no more than the ordinary risks to health of a town in the tropics.

There is an unfortunate ambiguity in the President's attitude and speeches on his Western tour. This arises from the fact that he has to make partisan addresses in the guise of a non-partisan. When he exhorts his audiences to stand by him until the "fruits of the war" are secure, what does he mean? He really means, of course, that people must not vote the Democratic ticket in November. But he cannot say this directly, for two reasons. One is that he is travelling about as a "war President," the Chief Executive of a nation that has sunk all its "differences at home." Besides that, the Democratic party is not committed against garnering the fruits of the war. It is divided or silent on that question, as Mr. McKinley very well knows. But the Democrats are displaying an uncommon desire to garner the fruits of the congressional elections, and that is really what excites the apprehensions of the President. He scents a certain party dissatisfaction if the Republicans find that, while they have been gathering tropical fruits in Cuba and the Philippines, the Democrats have been laying in a winter's supply of native fruit in the shape of Representatives and Senators. But he can express his fears on this subject only vaguely and indirectly, so that the net result is little more than to give his party a fright.

The campaign in Pennsylvania grows more interesting every week. All authorities agree that the State has never, within the memory of people now living, been so interested in State affairs as it is now in the question whether Quay shall be given a fresh lease of power as ruler of the commonwealth. The Rev. Dr. Swallow is making speeches of the most vigorous sort; and his single-plank platform, "Thou shalt not steal," is arousing great enthusiasm everywhere. Mr. Wanamaker is again on the stump, denouncing the machine and exposing its misdeeds with a directness and particularity never before known. He does not hesitate to say that there are "400,000 Republicans who to-day believe they cannot support the party nominee and preserve their self-respect." In this speech, too, for the first time so far as we have observed, Mr. Wanamaker mentioned the Independent nominee for Governor in a way that was practically equivalent to endorsing his candidacy, saying of him: "Dr. Swallow has touched a popular chord by striking fearlessly at the heart of corruption, and convincing every voter in the State that he is opposed to Quayism and everything the word implies."

Mr. Edward M. Shepard made a very effective answer to the arguments which Seth Low and other advocates of "straight Republicanism" are advancing in favor of voting for the whole Platt ticket this year, for members of the Legislature and Congress as well as for State officers, in his speech in Brooklyn last Thursday. He called attention to the fact that all our State elections, under the new Constitution, occur in even years—that is, in years in which there

is either a Congresional or a Presidential election, and added:

"If the argument be good for anything, then it is good for this: that, as a matter of permanent policy solemnly adopted by us, the elections in this State are to be like the elections in Maine and Vermont in the September preceding the national election—mere skirmishes preliminary to the Presidential battle, and in which the special welfare of the State has no part."

That is the position in which the Republican managers desire to place the State permanently. We used to be asked regularly, when city elections occurred in Presidential years, to sacrifice this city to the cause of high tariff or some other national issue. Now we are asked to sacrifice both the city and the State, so far as the efforts of our representatives in the Legislature are concerned, in order that sound money may be upheld in Congress. Two years hence we shall be asked to sacrifice the governorship and Legislature again on that or some other national ground, and so on indefinitely. And in every recurring election, our bosses, secure in the belief that the people will listen to the appeal, will put up their most subservient tools for the Legislature, and thus maintain their ownership of it and perpetuate their ability to collect "contributions."

Judge Van Wyck made one observation in his Brooklyn speech which will delight the Boys of all parties, and will serve as a sure indication to all civil-service reformers that they need expect no aid from him after election. He spoke of himself as one who "believes that the sentiment of forbearance is one of the cardinal principles of the social compact; that the willingness to live and let live is an essential attribute of every true son of a republic, lacking only in the arrogant, narrow-minded, and egotistical who may be dominated by the sentiment, 'I am holier than thou,' a way of thinking which has no place among freemen." There never was a spoilsman who did not loathe the "holier-than-thou men." Gov. Black could with difficulty express the contempt he felt for them, and Abe Gruber has been making unsuccessful efforts to entirely free his mind on the same subject for many years. The Judge shows that his heart is in the right place when he picks out this phrase to express his feelings, and he displayed the kind of "sand" which his illustrious brother, our Mayor, possesses when he used it in the presence of Edward M. Shepard, who was to speak in advocacy of him a moment later. Mr. Shepard is one of the most useful "holier-than-thou" men we have ever had in the Democratic party, and we should like to know how he regards the Judge as a possible civil-service reformer.

Judge Daly's impressive words in accepting the Republican nomination for reëlection ought to stir the indignation of every honest citizen. He is denied a reëlection by Croker because he would not do Croker's bidding and make Mike Daly, a notoriously incompetent and worthless person, a clerk in his court. That is the issue. As Judge Daly puts it:

"It is simply and solely a question whether the freedom of the judicial office is assailed. The judge who has done his duty fearlessly and has been deaf to every consideration but justice, stands for an immutable principle, and any nomination of candidates against him for the purpose of defeating him, is none the less calculated to destroy the independence of the judiciary, and is a menace to the public safety."

Croker's absolute control of judicial nominations, as well as of all others, is undisputed. He has made no attempt to conceal it. Last year, when, for reasons of his own, he desired to confer a Supreme Court Judgeship upon Francis M. Scott, he refused to allow Judge Andrews to be renominated, and gave his place to Scott. This year, when he wishes to punish Judge Daly, he returns to Andrews and puts him forward. Nobody knew until the last moment what the Tammany judicial ticket would be. Croker was balancing the claims of the various aspirants, and was making up his mind as to the most politic selection for him to effect. The final choice was entirely his own, as it has been for years.

Mr. Croker is evidently willing to have the issue which he has raised in regard to Judge Daly's candidacy made so plain that the people of the city cannot misunderstand it. In a carefully prepared statement, published on Saturday, he says:

"I never asked Justice Daly to do anything for me personally or politically in my life. I suppose he refers to a request made of him by Tammany Hall to appoint Michael T. Daly a clerk in his court. If that was what he meant, Tammany Hall has no apology to make for the request. Justice Daly was elected by Tammany Hall, after he was discovered by Tammany Hall, and *Tammany Hall had a right to expect proper consideration at his hands.*"

That is free confession that Judge Daly's offence was solely his refusal to appoint Mike Daly to a clerkship. Of course, Tammany Hall is a euphemism for Croker, for he is absolute boss of it. "Proper consideration" from a judge means willingness to do whatever Croker asks, no matter whether it be a clerkship for Mike Daly, or "protection" for a criminal involved in the law, or what not. Croker lays it down as a recognized principle that when he puts a man on the bench he "has a right to expect proper consideration at his hands." The matter has never before been disclosed to the people of the city with quite such brutal frankness as this.

The late John M. Forbes of Boston was, by occupation, a business man, but a business man to whom business was always something more than a mere means of making money. Beginning, as a youth, in the China trade which his Boston uncles had already built up, he became later a great developer of the railroad system in the West, while Michigan and Illinois were still only emerging from the period of frontier life. It was Mr. Forbes who pushed through a region of straggling villages the Michigan Central, half a century ago, and who later was the chief agent in building up the great Chicago, Burlington and Quincy system in the still further West. He made money in making railroads, but he would have taken no satisfaction in being a "railroad man" of the far too common type, whose only interest in railroads is as a means of profitable stock speculations. He enjoyed the construction of great lines of communication in new regions because he felt that he was thus helping to build up great States. He took of necessity a lively interest in public affairs, and gave generously in a thousand ways for public ends. During the civil war he was the wise adviser and efficient assistant of Gov. Andrew in Massachusetts and of President Lincoln at Washington. In 1884 he turned from the party with which he had so long been identified, because it had lowered its standard in its nomination for the Presidency. The infirmities of age had withdrawn Mr. Forbes from the activities of life, but his interest in them remained keen to the end. His was a type of patriotism that cannot be said to be multiplying, and all good causes on this continent are the poorer for his taking off.

An interesting passage in a speech by Lord Randolph Churchill has been revived in England, which current events render worthy of consideration in this country as well:

"Out of the life of every German, every Frenchman, every Italian, every Austrian, and every Russian, the respective governments of those countries took three years for compulsory military service. If they estimated that three years at eight hours a day for six days a week, they would find that it came to this—that out of the life of every European in those nations he had mentioned no less than 7,500 hours were taken for compulsory military service, during which time the individual so deprived was, for purposes of contributing to the well-being of the community as a whole by his labor, as idle, as useless, as unprofitable as if he had never been born. But in our free and happy country, where the freedom of existence has practically no reasonable limit, and where only a minute portion of the population embraced a military career, every man who lived to the age of twenty-three or twenty-four years possessed, as an extra capital over the inhabitants of foreign countries, at least 7,500 hours more during which he could contribute to his own well-being and to the general well-being of the community."

It has always been the boast of our republic that we had no large standing army, and that we should never run the risk of compulsory military service for our young men. But now many of our statesmen are declaring that we must have a large standing army; Senator Hawley of Connecticut, for example, says that we must have 100,000 regu-

lars to keep order in the East and West Indies. Meanwhile the regulars we already have are trying to get out of the service—92 discharges of such troops in a single day last week, a Washington correspondent reports. If we are to send 100,000 regulars to Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, how are we going to get them except by a recourse to that compulsory military service which has proved such a strain upon the young men of Continental nations?

Expansionist morals sometimes read very queerly in cold type. Here is Capt. Younghusband in the *Contemporary* explaining the morality of partitioning China. He says that the Chinese have simply no right to their own country, holding it and using it as they do. "When a section of the human race occupies one of the richest parts of the whole earth, makes only very partial use of the riches it contains, and refuses to let others come and exploit it, that section must be made to give up its exclusive pretensions." Capt. Younghusband is a great traveller and a high authority on China, but when he undertakes to teach us morals as well as geography, we demur. His principle is fearfully elastic. What country is safe if it may properly be despoiled for making only a partial use of its riches, and keeping out those who wish to exploit it? Spain is not; she is the lawful prey of the first comer who could better develop her neglected natural resources. France is not, nor Germany, nor the United States, who all, by their protective tariffs, "refuse to let others come and exploit" them. In fact, we are not sure that even England would be safe at the hands of a rigorous Chinese logician. Are English game-preserves and great areas of land out of cultivation tolerable from the standpoint of the swarming Chinese? Capt. Younghusband lays it down that "every inhabitant of the earth must have a fair opportunity of sharing in the limited amount of products which the earth affords." If Li Hung Chang could not, on this ground, demand cessions of English territory with as good a right as Capt. Younghusband demands Chinese territory, why not? Only because he has not the guns to make his morals good.

At the dinner given in London the other evening to Prof. Virchow by the medical men, Surgeon-General Jameson of the Army Medical Staff spoke of the work of his department in the recent Indian and Egyptian campaigns. In all the operations on the Indian frontier there had not been one case of septic disease from beginning to end. So brilliant a success could not, of course, be reported from the banks of the Nile, where there is enteric fever all the year round, but even with Kitchener's army the results achieved by the medical staff had been excellent. Dr. Jameson attributed the efficiency of the staff simply to the fact that it was completely organized and kept fully abreast of the time, medically. It learned by its own misfortunes, and also, he added, by the misfortunes of others. The Americans had twice furnished them an object-lesson how not "to improvise an efficient medical service with outside material." Thus we see that even our good friends the English are aware of the scandalous breakdown of our army management. It is, as the Philadelphia *Medical Journal* reasserts, the enormous death-rate in the military camps which constitutes the crying shame of the conduct of the war. This is the thing which the President's committee must explain if it can.

Mr. Asquith followed Lord Rosebery last week in speaking up for continuity in foreign policy, and in applauding Lord Salisbury for the strong tone he had adopted in his dispatches about the French at Fashoda. Both Mr. Asquith and Rosebery are competitors for the leadership of the Liberal party, and their speeches, stoutly imperialistic as they are, will not fail to be given a political significance at home as well as abroad. Lord Rosebery has probably a better "record" as a Liberal Imperialist than any prominent man in his party. He was early a patron of Imperial Federation and has been astute enough not to antagonize, as Mr. Morley and Mr. Bryce have done, the recent Indian and Egyptian campaigns and policies. With the tide of Imperialism running as strongly as it is in England, Rosebery's chances of resuming the leadership of his party are brighter than they would be if it were a question simply of personal ascendency or domestic politics.

What seems certain about Egypt is that nobody who wants to fight England can well fight her there. The war will have to be carried on in some other part of the world, and the only part where she seems vulnerable is India; but even there the difficulties of reaching the field of action, as long as England controls Egypt, seem insurmountable. If France has military power anywhere, it is in France. She has, of course, a base in Algeria and Tunis, but it is a base which needs to be supported by a navy. Under these circumstances, it seems very unlikely that France wants really to quarrel with England about Fashoda or anything else, but it does seem as if she wished to seem to her own people to be ready to quarrel. "A vigorous foreign policy" is popular in any powerful democracy. Every democratic people, of all things, expects its Government to stand no nonsense from foreigners, or at all events to show that it is not afraid of them, and that it would take very little to make it fight them. The nagging of England ever since the occupation of Egypt has been incessant, probably for this reason, and has been stimulated by Lord Salisbury's extraordinary peaceableness. The matter now seems to have reached a crisis, and the crisis will probably end the whole trouble.

What the Fashoda affair suggests as remarkable is the incapacity for energetic initiative which seems to have come over the French nation under the republic. It has always been restless, but under the monarchies it accomplished something. In our own time it freed Italy and bolstered up the Pope, started an empire in Mexico, and had a powerful say in Continental politics. In no thirty years of its history has it been so anxious to do something great as in the last thirty, and in none have its efforts after greatness been so abortive. The way the country has taken refuge under the army in the Dreyfus affair, and the nature of the expedient to which it has thought it necessary to resort, in order to keep the army in good humor, furnish an extraordinary illustration of the loss of national self-confidence. And over all hangs that dreadful certainty that any government in France which goes to war and does not succeed at once, will perish. This certainty has probably more to do with keeping the peace than any other cause. The only military venture she would attempt would probably be one like ours—an attack on some small or weak Power like Spain.

The comic aspects of the Emperor William's journey to Palestine do not blind European observers to the shrewd stroke of business he is in a fair way to transact with the Sultan. German interests in Asia Minor are already large. A railway from Constantinople to the upper waters of the Euphrates is already building, financed by the Deutsche Bank, and will be completed in five years. It is hinted in Berlin that the Kaiser is going to ask the Commander of the Faithful to give him a port on the Syrian coast—none other than Haifa, where there is already a prosperous German colony. Haifa is just south of Acre, which Napoleon called the "key of Syria," and it is from Haifa, as Major Conder declared twenty years ago, that the true all-rail route to the East must start. Putting these things together, Germans are talking of the Emperor's visit to Jerusalem as marking one step more in the resolute turning of their country towards markets and influence in the Orient. They are calculating how many colonists could be supported in the fertile territory to the northwest of Syria, and are arguing that, if strongly posted in Palestine, they will be at the meeting-point of the great lines of railway communication certain to be built in time from Hong Kong and Cape Colony. These may be dreams, but they are dreams upon which investors are willing to risk their money.

NOVEL LEGISLATION.

The Governor of Illinois is to-day, by general admission, one of the most worthless politicians in the country. Not one of them has been mixed up in more shady schemes, or has excited more alarm and anxiety among that portion of the people of the State who love their country and wish to live by honest industry. He is what is commonly called "self-educated," but no one ever knows anything about the education of a self-educated man except what comes out through his conduct; and what has come out through Tanner's conduct makes his education seem exceedingly defective. How he became Governor of Illinois, this is not the place to explain. He became so in what we may call the usual way—the way Tillman became Governor of South Carolina, and Flower and Hill Governors of New York; but Tanner is about as low down as governorships have gone. Now we advise every man who loves his country not to refuse to read anything about Tanner because it makes him low-spirited or "pessimistic," or makes him doubt whether we can safely "expand" or "elevate" mankind, or makes him dislike his *Nation*. Reading about these things is just as prominent a part of a good citizen's duty as fighting in Cuba or Manila; and a young man who refused to fight in Cuba or Manila would have been visited with scorn. Reading about the Tanners and watching the Tanners is, in fact, at this period of our history, just as sacred a duty as charging batteries or sinking ships. It is not pleasant reading, but duty reading seldom is.

It must be remembered, too, that there is not a particle of truth in the story the "expansionists" are trying to spread that, if we expand, we shall get rid of the Tanners, and that their tricks will become too "parochial" to trouble us. There could hardly be a grosser error. This is like supposing that you can get rid of vermin by taking a walk. The only way to get rid of vermin is by changing your clothes and taking baths. This is not a pleasant simile, but it is as pleasant as the thing we seek to illustrate. You cannot get rid of a Tanner by seizing territory at the other end of the earth. You might annex the whole of Asia, and raise an army of 200,000 men, and the Tanners would let you do it gladly on condition that you would let them alone. For the more absorbed you were in "elevating mankind," the freer course they would have in carrying on their little games and trying their social experiments.

What are their social experiments? you will ask. Well, here is one of them: There is a mining company in Illinois which within a few weeks has had a strike among its white workmen. The strike had been attended with a good deal of parleying, during which the Governor kept supplying interviews to the newspapers, in which he gave the company and the workmen plainly to understand that he would under no circumstances protect the employers against violence in case they brought men from other places to take the places of the strikers. The employers, nevertheless, perhaps thinking he would be better than his word, brought negro workmen from Alabama to Illinois, where there has been complaint for thirty years that the negroes in the South did not get fair play. When the negroes came along in the train, the white citizens, many of whom propose to "elevate" the Tagals, collected on a high place, and, momentarily neglecting the Tagals, opened a heavy fire on the negroes, but drew upon themselves a fire from the stockaded mine which killed or wounded several of their number. Here Tanner comes on the scene. Before the battle he issued a proclamation, in spite of his want of education, promulgating principles of government which will doubtless be introduced among the Tagals. Certainly, if his is a good way to govern American citizens, it is also a good way to govern the Tagals. Tanner is, in other words, taking on himself calmly and bravely the responsibilities thrust upon us by Dewey's victory, as are Griggs of New Jersey and thousands of other publicists all over the country. They place their juridical capacities at the disposal of the republic. But Tanner is first in the field. What is his contribution to the science of government, of which the Tagals will undoubtedly have the benefit after it has been thoroughly tried in Illinois? This:

> "It sometimes becomes necessary for an executive to enforce the law in advance of its enactment. Public sentiment crystallizes into law. I am thoroughly satisfied that the public sentiment of the good, patriotic citizens of our State is overwhelmingly opposed to this system; that if the operators import this labor they do it at their peril and receive no aid from this State while I am Governor."

We see here that the Governor anticipates what he knows to be the wishes of the community, and legislates *ad hoc*, so to speak, to meet a pressing emergency. But there is hardly a doubt that he can foresee "the crystallizing of sentiment" on other subjects as well as this, and thus save the Legislature an enormous amount of trouble. This seems to us, in fact, to offer a ready way out of the difficulty about biennial sessions. The Governor openly refuses protection to a large class of American citizens, not Tagals, following their lawful callings, on grounds which seem to him good, and he threatens to take the field against them, at the head of an armed force, should they attempt to exercise the rights secured to them by the old State Constitution! Whether this will "elevate" the people of Illinois we do not like to say without further observation, but the entrance into our forum of these new principles of public polity deserves the careful examination of all those who are interested in extending our empire.

ON THE RIGHT BASIS.

The formal utterances of both of our New York candidates for Governor are in the direction of a campaign on State issues alone. Col. Roosevelt, in a speech in this city, made direct mention of the canal frauds, and pledged himself squarely to punish the officials guilty of committing them, in case of his election. Speaking of the course he should pursue as Governor, he said:

> "The one indispensable requisite in every public servant with whom I have to deal will be honesty. Much has been said as to the mismanagement of the canals. I would in no manner prejudge the case, but if upon investigation I shall find that either the system or the methods of administration are wrong, then they shall be changed, and if it shall prove that any man has been dishonest he shall most assuredly be punished. So it shall be with every other office that comes under me."

The only criticism to be made upon this declaration is its assumption that the frauds are still matters to be proved. This is untenable in view of the findings of Gov. Black's commission, a body chosen by the Governor in person to investigate the doings of the Governor's own appointees, and consequently above all suspicion of hostility to the officials implicated. This commission in its report said: "The facts we have ascertained and reported account for the improper expenditure of $1,000,000, exclusive of moneys paid out for ordinary and extraordinary repairs, which amount to not less than $1,500,000." It also said that all the abuses which resulted in this "improper expenditure" could have been prevented by proper administration, adding: "The failure to so act unites the Superintendent of Public Works [Aldridge] with the State Engineer [Adams] in a common responsibility." Of Aldridge's guilt in the matter there is not a particle of doubt. We do not believe there is any in Col. Roosevelt's mind. Neither do we believe that if he is elected Governor he will consent to reappoint Aldridge, whose term will expire with Gov. Black's. Payn's term, on the contrary, will run a year after the new Governor takes office, and disposition of him is likely to prove a more troublesome question to the Colonel, if he becomes Governor, than that of Aldridge.

The straightforward manner in which Judge Van Wyck, in his letter of acceptance, has taken hold of the canal question, and, indeed, of other State issues, will compel Col. Roosevelt to fulfil to the letter his avowed determination to speak with perfect frankness upon all of them during his present tour through the State. This will be a distinct gain for the people in every way, for it will concentrate their attention upon the real problem before them, that of good State government, and will put

aside all questions of "empire," and "war," and "manifest destiny," which have no more to do with the result than the doctrine of eternal punishment has. Judge Van Wyck's letter is a model of its kind. If he could be separated from his Tammany company, if positive assurance could be given that, if elected Governor, he would be his own master, his letter would be an almost unanswerable document in favor of his election. There is no demagogism in it, no extraneous matter, nothing except a frank, intelligent, and adequate presentation of the real questions at issue. He assumes, quite properly, that the facts of canal frauds have been established by the report of the Governor's commission, and makes an effective point when he says that the managers of the Republican party refuse to accept the report as "conclusive of anything," and adds:

> "When we further remember that the errors and frauds and partisan misuses of power, traced home and fixed by the commission, were all committed by the supporters, representatives, and followers of the gentlemen who controlled the convention from whose platform I have just quoted, it might seem as if the appeal for a new lease of power were addressed rather to the lovers of comedy than to men with whom the conduct of public affairs is a serious business."

The Judge comes out squarely against the Raines liquor law as "partisan in its purposes and oppressive in many directions," declares himself in "complete accord" with the biennial-sessions amendment, and commends the platform's declaration in favor of "honest civil-service laws." As we have said, if he stood by himself, if he were not known to be the personal choice of Croker, if his brother, also the personal choice of Croker, were not Mayor of this city, with a term of office running through the term of the next Governor, this letter would be an almost unanswerable campaign document. As it is, it is nothing more than a series of fair professions and promises from a man of excellent character who has for years been content to train with the most disreputable gang of politicians this country has ever known, and has consented to accept a nomination for Governor from the leader of that gang, who is himself the worst specimen we have yet had of the party boss. These are conditions of environment which make it impossible to treat Judge Van Wyck's professions and promises as worth anything like their face value. Undoubtedly, he would rid us of Republican canal rascals, but what kind of men would he give us in their stead? Is there anything to choose between Platt officials and Croker officials? Can we not trust Col. Roosevelt on this issue more implicitly than we can Judge Van Wyck? Does anybody suppose that, having put Aldridge out of office, Roosevelt would replace him with another man of the same type?

Then, too, in regard to "honest civil-service laws"—can any person of intelligence read the Democratic plank in favor of them and Judge Van Wyck's solemn approval of it without a smile? Gov. Black was undoubtedly an enemy of civil-service reform, and did his utmost to undo all that had been accomplished in its name, but is Tammany any more of a friend to it, and what Democratic Governor have we had in this State since Cleveland who was in any sense its friend? As between Roosevelt and Van Wyck on that issue, every civil-service reformer will pin his faith to the former. We need no pledge of any kind from him that he will continue to be faithful to the cause for which he has fought so persistently throughout his career.

In short, when we get the campaign down to State issues alone, we narrow it mainly to a question of character in the candidates, as shown by the experience of each in public office; and the weight of evidence is here very largely in favor of Roosevelt. Behind each man stands a disreputable and corrupt boss who will do his utmost to control him. The question for each doubting voter to ask himself is, Which of the two men is more likely to break away from his boss and act in the interest of the people? We do not see how any real independent can answer this question in favor of Croker's nominee.

THE BOSS AND THE BAR.

If it has not been long foreseen, it might have been, that a boss without a bar association would never be able to do his full duty. As long as judges are nominated by him he will need a bar association to put them through while a bar association is in existence which presumes to pass on his selections. In fact, it has been perfectly plain to most people that, as soon as the boss system reached full power, a good bar association would be necessary to its efficiency. It is far more necessary to the boss, if he is to nominate judges, than a club, for instance, and yet Mr. Croker has a very fine club. He has already arranged to do almost without newspapers, which shows a considerable advance in the science of government. In the early days of democracy, it used to be supposed that one of the essential properties of popular government was a free press. But Mr. Croker has shown clearly that this is a mistake; that popular government can be carried on just as well, or, indeed, better, without it. The saving of labor and expense in this is very great.

But he has gone on too long fancying he could do without a bar association. After he has made his nominations for the bench, the interference of a bar association not under his control may, of course, frustrate his whole plan of campaign, and make many of his judges troublesome or insurbordinate. There ought not to be any bar association interfering with such matters at all, but, in times like the present, men will presume and meddle. There is no mode, as yet, of preventing the formation of such associations, but we see from the way the one now in existence is behaving, what happens when their organization is permitted without proper supervision. In the first place, they have gone and made it an exclusive and comparatively small body. A large portion of the bar is excluded from it, including a very large body of our young shysters, who are kept out by these superfine gentlemen simply because they are trying to earn a living. What is alleged against them is that they have no "character," as if character had anything to do with citizenship or eligibility for office; as if Mr. Croker himself had any character or ever felt the need of one. Moreover, as has been pointed out, many members of the bar are outside of the association for no earthly reason except that they have been doing something which these "namby-pamby fellows" consider disreputable, although their standing in Tammany Hall is perfectly good. The notion that a judge should have a better character than other office-holders has been sedulously spread by these dandies, and has already done a good deal of mischief, and it is time there were an end put to it. They have spread, too, a ridiculous notion that the lawyers know more than other people about the qualifications of a judge. But everybody knows that a judge may be what they call "very learned in the law" and yet a perfect babe in politics, and may not stand well with either boss, and may, like Daly, be a perfect curmudgeon in the matter of obliging influential men.

In short, there is only one remedy—to have your own bar association to endorse your own men, to furnish what they call "character" and anything else the voters seem to call for, to your own nominees. For instance, when the other fellows say your nominee has done something dishonest, your bar association would pass a resolution saying they knew all about it, and that it was perfectly right. If the Dandy Association said he had but little practice and was ignorant of law, your own would pass a resolution saying that his practice was one of the largest in the State, and that when he was sober, he was one of our most learned lawyers; that that story about "the fraudulent divorce" had its foundation in an incident which took place when your man was travelling in India examining the laws of Manu; that the story that he gets drunk more than once a fortnight is made out of whole cloth, and has been hatched for political purposes, and that, in fact, the majority of the bar says he is one of our most deeply read jurists.

A bar association that would do this work for the boss would be exactly what is wanted at a crisis like the present.

A bar association which does not contain the whole bar is, in fact, an absurdity in a democratic city like ours, where the principle of equality is firmly established in the institutions. For what does such an association mean? Why, that some lawyers are better than others; that some may be trusted with money, and that some may not; that some know more law than others; that some are more acute than others, and some more eloquent than others; that some are drunk, and that some are sober, and so on. In fact, its business is the foul and unfair one of making discriminations between individuals and communicating them to the public. Well, this thing has gone far enough, and we trust Mr. Croker will carry out his intention of having a bar association of his own, which will mind what he says, and, in short, be a real association of our lawyers. Such an institution would fill a long-felt want. The boss system is now our established system of government, and no rational man will say that it is complete without a bar association of the boss's attached to his club to do his professional "endorsing."

KIPLING'S RETROCESSIONAL.

In the last number of *Literature*, published in this country by the Harpers, Mr. Kipling has a poem which is simply one long sneer at the proposal of the Czar that the nations disarm. The document which seemed to bring the age-long dream of poets and seers perceptibly nearer realization is, to Mr. Kipling, only "The Truce of the Bear." Through an allegory, powerfully worked out, he warns Great Britain to put no faith in the Czar's sincerity. Matun, the blind and scarred beggar, made the fatal mistake of pitying and trusting the bear "when he reared up like a man."

"Touched with pity and wonder, I did not fire then . . .
I have looked no more on women—I have walked no more with men.
Nearer he tottered and nearer, with paws like hands that pray—
From brow to jaw, the steel-shod paw, it ripped my face away!"

And the moral for England is:

"When he shows as seeking quarter, with paws like hands in prayer,
That is the time of peril—the time of the Truce of the Bear!"

This is really only a poetic setting of an old prose utterance of Mr. Kipling's. In his story of "The Man Who Was" he wrote, "Let it be distinctly understood that the Russian is a delightful person till he tucks in his shirt." As long ago as that he was full of the idea of the Russians coming down through the Khyber Pass, and of the "terrible spree" there would be when the British met them. They were splendid fellows, those Russians, as long as it was only a question of fighting them like so many nomad Tartars; but when they set up for civilized Europeans, they became simply disgusting hypocrites. It is because the Czar has not only tucked in his own shirt, but asked the nations each to tuck in its own, that he loses all his charm for Mr. Kipling. Is it not, however, a queer way for the poet to express his disgust at a tucked-in shirt by untucking his own?

That he does this in his latest poem it seems scarcely an exaggeration to say when one sets it over against the "Recessional." At the time this justly famous production was written, the shirts of all the poets in England were flapping in the wind. They were all dithyrambic over the Jubilee, over Britain's might, over the army and navy and the colonies and the expanding empire. But their shrill notes were at once extinguished when the organ of the "Recessional" was set pealing, and they were told that, "drunk with sight of power," they were but loosing "wild tongues," and that it was only a "heathen heart" that

"puts her trust
In reeking tube and iron shard."

Then the poet reminded us that "navies melt away," and that "the Captains and the Kings depart," while

"Still stands Thine ancient sacrifice,
An humble and a contrite heart."

Now it is all

"There is no truce with Adam-zad, the bear that looks like a man,"

and

"Luck to the white man's rifle!"

The pity of it, however, goes beyond mere inconsistency or recantation. It is the seeming despite done to a noble sentiment. Nothing like the acclaim from the world's best which greeted the Czar's invitation to disarm was ever called forth by a public utterance of a great ruler. From the highest dignitaries of church and state, from men of light and leading all over the world, from poets and historians and orators, came the heart-felt thanks and praise. Even the Jingoes ceased their raging for one day, and paid the Czar the tribute of an astonished silence. Was it for a poet to flout his sincerity? Even if there be some ground for suspecting the entire frankness of the statesmen who surround the Czar, was it for a poet to dash the hopes and aspiration built upon the Czar's words? Not even the most cynical have ventured to question the personal sincerity of Nicholas. It seems to us a great misfortune that Mr. Kipling should appear to do so. Tennyson, no doubt, meant the Czar of his time by the "giant liar" of "Maud." He plainly called him "that o'ergrown Barbarian in the East" in his sonnet on "Poland." But that was when the Czar openly stood for serfdom and aggression. Who can doubt that Tennyson would have hailed the "Czar Disarmer" as one fulfilling his own vision of the time when the war-drum would throb no longer? He would never have made the mistake of supposing that a poet should chill, instead of warming with added glow, the most humane instincts and aspirations of the race. Politicians may sneer; statesmen may be compelled to distrust motives; but the poet who sneers and is suspicious is lost.

We presume that Mr. Kipling is a little burdened with the responsibilities of his position. He undoubtedly is, as Mr. Henley has called him, "the great living Laureate of Imperialism." He in England and Capt Mahan in this country show, in perhaps equal degree, though in such vastly different ways, that powerful writers may still mould public opinion. Imperialism, the Colonies, the far-flung battle line of the British empire—these are Mr. Kipling's poetical preserves, as it were, and he naturally resents intrusion upon them. But we think he might have chosen a happier way of advancing his cause than by implying that Imperialism necessarily means fighting, and that any ruler who professes to seek imperial ends by peaceful means is a hypocrite and a trickster.

NOTES FROM RUSSIA.

CAMBRIDGE, Mass., October 13, 1898.

One of the objects of my European trip was to do some work in the principal libraries of England, Germany, and Russia. The further East one proceeds, the less accessible do the libraries become, and in St. Petersburg it would take as many months to get at the books one needs as it would take days at the Harvard or Boston Public Library. My work there was in the Oriental department, which is under the supervision of Prof. Harkavy. It was only by his special courtesy that the catalogue could be inspected, for it was his vacation and no one else connected with the institution can grant access to it. The catalogue, what there is of it, is written on bits of paper, and is arranged in alphabetical order of the first word in the title-page—a most Satanic invention. After great waste of time a few books were selected for closer inspection, but in the absence of Prof. Harkavy they could not be shown, as no one besides him knows where they are to be found.

While waiting for another day which Prof. Harkavy could give me at the library, I used my time to inspect the surroundings of the imperial city and to call on old friends. One of these I found living in Peterhof, the Czar's summer residence. Hearing that I had become an American, he took me out to show me what he thought would interest me on that account, namely, the Washington tree. We crossed on a small ferry over the river which separates Tsaritsyn Island from the shore. There we inspected the pavilion where the imperial family sometimes takes tea, and where preparations were being made for the reception of the Rumanian King, for whose entertainment a stage had been built on the water fronting the pavilion; a ballet was to be given there. Within a few steps of the pleasure-house of the Autocrat there grows the Washington Oak. It is evidently some seventy years old, is strong and healthy, and a pretty bed of fuchsias is planted right at the foot of it. A brass tablet on a brass chain hanging down from the largest branch bears witness to its American descent. On

the one side there is a Russian inscription; on the other are the following German words:

"Die eingelegte Eichel ist abgenommen von der Eiche die das Grab des berühmten Washington beschattet, und ist presentirt zum Zeichen der grössten Verehrung seiner Majestät dem Kayser aller Reuszen
von einen [*sic!*] Amerikaner."

The reverse of the tablet, in Russian, differs in two particulars: it has the adjective *unforgettable* instead of *berühmten*, and speaks of *Americans* instead of *an American*. I could not learn by whom or when this acorn had been planted; probably some reader of this note will be able to furnish information in regard to this interesting case.

An inquiry into the circulation of books at the libraries of Russia brought out the fact that the most-read books are the works of the Polish author Sienkiewicz, then the writings of Tolstoy; a few years ago it was Bellamy who attracted the greatest attention. Most cherished after these standard writers is Chekhoff, but there is a new star rising on the literary horizon in Russia, and that is M. Gorki, who has made his début this year with two volumes of sketches and stories. He is a realistic writer of the extreme type. His subjects are all chosen from the lower strata of society. His scenes are laid in the bake-shop, along the levees, in the market-place. His descriptions of the sea are wonderful, and he paints it in all its varying moods. Another rising writer, in the field of historiography, is Prof. Milukoff, whose 'History of Russian Civilization' marks a new era. The first volume of this work, written under difficulties, in exile, has in a very short space of time reached a third edition, and the whole, even before it is finished, is being translated into German and French. Having been an ardent advocate of university extension in the English-American sense of the word, he was suspected of dangerous tendencies, and was banished to his native province; he was then permitted to leave Russia and to accept a professorship in Bulgaria. But since the *rapprochement* between the two countries, he has again been compelled to give up his position at the University, for the Russian Agent resident in Sofia represented him to the Minister of Education as a *persona non grata* to Russia. His only offence, his Bulgarian colleagues assured me, is that he did not pay the Agent a call upon his arrival in Sofia.

The hopes that the young Emperor would do something for popular education have not yet been realized. The affair with Prof. Milukoff and many others seem to indicate a retrogressive movement. At the same time there is an evident desire to appease the masses, and that is done by opening for them theatres where, for the nominal sum of ten kopeks, or five cents, one can be well entertained from six in the afternoon until eleven at night. I visited the one in the Tavricheski Sad. In spite of the cheapness of admission, a large crowd of those who could not spare ten kopeks were standing on the outside curiously eying the happy possessors of the admission fee. Within all was life. The people were standing around a stage on which there was going on a variety performance. At about nine o'clock the large theatre was opened; a dramatized form of the Russian fairy tale, "Konek Gorbunek," was given there. The singing, the ballet, the whole performance could not be surpassed in the best theatres in Russia, and the choice of the plays is evidently such as not to "endanger public morality." Between the acts there were again various performances on the smaller stage. In spite of the paternal care in giving the people so much amusement at so small a price, the masses are shy of taking advantage of these "summer theatres," as they suspect some ulterior purpose of the Government.

The people are being taken care of in another way. The sale of spirituous drinks has become a Government monopoly. The noisy saloons are rapidly disappearing, for in the new shops no liquor is sold except in sealed bottles, which must be taken away from the premises before being consumed. The spirits are much purer, much stronger, and much cheaper than before. No doubt, the intention of the authorities is to deprive the saloon of all attractiveness, and, if drink there must be, to furnish at least pure liquor instead of fusel. Opinions are divided as to the working of this new departure. Some claim that by diminishing the number of shops throughout the country, and by making it impossible for the saloonkeeper to attract his victims, this innovation tends to increase soberness. Others, again, say that it costs much less to get beastly drunk, and the masses are availing themselves beautifully of that privilege. In any case this is a very serious question for Russia, for the economic effects of drunkenness on the country are just now appalling.

Among the several unaccountable things one sees in Russia, one is struck forcibly with the differences in shop signs in the large cities. It appears that the Jews are made to write their names out in full, giving the Jewish forms of their given names instead of those actually in use by them, while the signs of the Gentiles bear only the initials. Upon asking for the cause of this, some facetious person suggested that it was done to make it easier for rioters to discover the stores to be looted. There seems to be no other explanation. LEO WIENER.

Correspondence.

SENATOR LODGE ON OUR DEBT TO CUBA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent speech by Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, at the Massachusetts Republican convention, a remarkable statement was made regarding American policy towards Cuba early in this century. As reported at length in a Boston newspaper, it reads as follows:

"What debt had we in Cuba? Men had forgotten the history; it had passed away in the midst of greater events; but in 1825, when the great movement of the Spanish-American revolution swept over South America and set all those populations free, it halted at the shores of Cuba. Bolivar was ready to go through Mexico, was ready to invade that island, and it would have been free without a substantial struggle. Who checked the oncoming wave? The United States. Why did we check it? Because that wave of Spanish-American revolution would wipe out freedom to slaves everywhere, and we were a slave power, and we made up our mind we would not free the black men in the island of Cuba. For that reason we checked Mexico, we held back Bolivar, and we maintained black slavery in Cuba.

"More than that, we fastened the yoke of Spain upon the island of Cuba, and then we warned all other nations of the earth that they must never enter inside of that ring, that that was an American question that it was for us alone to decide, and that Spain might do as she pleased in that island."

Mr. Lodge has something of a reputation for scholarship, and he cannot plead ignorance if he perverts the facts of American history. I should be glad to know upon what evidence he bases this singular statement concerning the policy of our national Government. In 1825 and thereabouts we had most honorable administrations, with so good an anti-slavery man as John Quincy Adams for Secretary of State and then President. One would suppose that the South American champion, Gen. Bolivar, had enough military work on his hands without invading the island of Cuba, especially when he had no navy at command. Our "Slave Power" has much to answer for, though rather later than at this particular time—it had no great control of our national policy thus early; nor have we supposed that any American administration labored very hard to preserve slavery in a foreign country for the benefit of Spain or any other European nation. To be sure, when the passion for territorial aggrandizement was strong, efforts were made to acquire Cuba, as part of this Union, by fair means or foul; and it is by no means certain that some of our national leaders now in influence have not been heading lately in a similar direction, under a like delusion of "manifest destiny." It would be mournful if the Republican party, organized originally for free soil and free labor, should double upon the course it took during the civil war, and establish race subjection once more and government by oligarchy in this free Union. JAMES SCHOULER.

BOSTON, October 14, 1898.

BRITISH SYMPATHY WITH THE CONFEDERACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, A. W. Savary, is mistaken in ascribing to Senator Sumner any inflammatory speech on the *Trent* affair, or any threat of attack on England in retaliation therefor. His masterly speech of January 9, 1862, confined itself to pointing out, with wealth of instances, that the demand made by Great Britain, and acceded to by us, completely vindicated our own position as to neutral ships, which had been maintained throughout our history against Great Britain herself.

As to any threat of war, Sumner wrote to John Bright in the midst of the excitement:

"Does England mean war? If so, then I must despair. I am almost a Quaker in principle. Besides, my sympathies have always been thoroughly English. On every account I protest against such a contest, and cannot write of it without emotion. Think of our abounding reciprocal sympathy changed into hate. I cannot bear the thought."

Possibly other of the four "causes" presented in your correspondent's letter may be found susceptible of revision in the light of fact. LOUISE KENNEDY.

CONCORD, MASS., October 14, 1898.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of October 6 Mr. Savary makes the statement that one of the chief causes of British sympathy with the Southern Confederacy was the stopping of the *Trent* by Commander Wilkes, and the forcible taking of the two Southern Commissioners, Slidell and Mason; and the vote of thanks passed by Congress therefor.

John Stuart Mill, in his Autobiography, after mentioning the outbreak of the war, and his hopes of the extinction of slavery in the United States therefrom, says:

"It may be imagined with what feelings I contemplated the rush of nearly the whole upper and middle classes of my own countrymen, even those who passed for Liberals, into a furious pro-Southern partisanship; the working classes and some of the literary and scientific men being almost the sole exceptions to the general frenzy."

Mr. Mill further says:

"It was my obvious duty to be one of the small minority who protested against this perverted state of public opinion.

"I was not the first to protest, and it ought to be remembered to the honor of Mr. Hughes and Mr. Ludlow that they, by writings published at the very beginning of the struggle, began the protestation. Mr. Bright followed in one of the most powerful of his speeches. I was on the point of adding my word to theirs when there occurred the seizure of the Southern envoys on board of a British vessel."

This seems to be conclusive evidence that, so far as the *Trent* affair is concerned, it could not have been the *cause* of the British sympathy with the Confederates, as it did not occur until long after what Mr. Mill calls the "frenzied rush" into a "furious pro-Southern partisanship." W. I. J.

CLINTON, MASS., October 10, 1898.

THE CHINESE MERCHANT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 6th inst. you call attention to "a note of alarm regarding foreign commerce in China sounded by Dr. Paul Goldmann," to the effect that "Chinese merchants are gradually and quietly crowding out their foreign competitors." In these days when the nations of Europe seem bent upon the partition of China and opening it to the world, the following "note of alarm" which I derived several years ago from a commercial traveller may also be worth heeding.

While crossing the Atlantic in 1889, I met an Englishman, then on his fifteenth tour around the world. He represented some large Birmingham manufacturers of railroad supplies and heavy hardware, and it was his custom to go out by way of the Suez Canal every spring, and return by way of the United States in the summer. During this journey he visited the leading cities of Europe, Asia, and America, spending most of his time, however, in China and India. I was greatly surprised at what he told me in regard to the Chinese merchants. He said that in his judgment they were, all things considered, the best merchants with whom he was acquainted; they seemed to have the surest commercial instinct, the greatest knowledge of their business, and the shrewdest sense of their wants, combined with an honesty of character that made their word as good as their bond. After I had discussed with him for some time his experiences in the Far East, he went on to say: "I have often thought that it was a fortunate thing for the Western world that China was a closed country, for I am not at all certain what the result would be if Chinese merchants, with their shrewdness, sense, and probity, and their hordes of cheap labor, should engage in a struggle for commercial supremacy with the nations of the Occident."

Yours truly, ROBERT MATHEWS.

ROCHESTER, N. Y., October 16, 1898.

NOSE-RHYMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To the horrible examples of rhymes that do not rhyme quoted by Prof. Matthews in his entertaining article in the *Bookman*, I should like to add the following from a collection of my own:

"Then who would go
Into dark Soho,
And chatter with dack'd-haired *critics*,
When he can stay
For the new-mown hay
And startle the dappled *prickets?*"
—Keats, In a Letter to Haydon.

"Or in a clear-wall'd city on the sea,
Near gilded organ-pipes, her *hair*
Wound with white roses, slept St. Cecily;
An angel look'd at *her*."
—Tennyson, *Palace of Art*.

"Many such as these I *saw*
In the streets of old Jeypore."
—Phillips Brooks, Letters to a Child.

In another passage Bishop Brooks rhymes Jeypore and *nor*. Are we to infer that he pronounced *Jeypore* as *Jeypaw*, or that he pronounced *saw* as *sor* (or *sore*)?

I hesitated for a term by which to characterize such rhymes as these. Certainly they are not eye-rhymes in the proper meaning of that term. Perhaps, taking a suggestion from a passage in Prof. Matthews's paper, they may be called nose-rhymes. At any rate, I beg to offer this term as an humble contribution to the terminology of poetics.

FRED NEWTON SCOTT.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, October 10, 1898.

Notes.

Mr. William M. Meigs, No. 216 South Third Street, Philadelphia, desires it known that he is writing a Life of Senator Thomas H. Benton, and will be greatly obliged to any one who has letters of Benton for lending them so that they may be copied and returned, as also for any reminiscences in regard to him.

R. H. Russell's fall publications include a new volume of 'Sketches and Cartoons,' by Charles Dana Gibson; 'London Types,' by William Nicholson; Tennyson's 'Idylls of the King,' decorated by the Brothers Rhead; 'The Shadows of the Trees, and Other Poems,' by Robert Burns Wilson; 'The Queen's Garland,' a selection of Elizabethan verse by Fitz Roy Carrington; and 'Beyond the Border,' Scotch fairy tales told by Walter Douglas Campbell, with 167 illustrations by Helen Stratton.

The Brothers Rhead will illustrate and decorate for the Century Company 'The Pilgrim's Progress,' in two editions. Nearly ready from the same firm is the 'Life and Letters of Lewis Carroll.'

G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly issue 'Was Christ Born at Bethlehem?' by Prof. W. M. Ramsay.

'Christian Rationalism: Essays on Matters in Debate between Faith and Unbelief,' by the Rev. J. H. Rylance, is soon to be published by Thomas Whittaker.

Charles Scribner's Sons have taken over the publications of the Christian Literature Co. of Buffalo, and will proceed with the 'Lutheran Cyclopædia,' which is to be ready next spring, as well as with the series of translations of the Ante-Nicene Fathers. They announce further an edition of Fielding in twelve volumes, with the original Cruikshank plates, and 'The Bashful Earthquake, and Other Poems and Fables,' by Oliver Herford, who is his own illustrator.

'The Land of Contrasts: A Briton's View of his American Kin,' by James F. Muirhead, editor of Baedeker's 'Handbook of the United States,' is in the press of Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston.

Washington Irving clearly took the bread out of Dr. Coues's mouth when he worked over a trans-Missourian explorer's rude journal, 'The Adventures of Captain Bonneville, U. S. A., in the Rocky Mountains and the Far West.' This entertaining narrative has just been made the object of a "Pawnee Edition," in two volumes, by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The style is conformable to the annual holiday Irving to which the publishers have accustomed us, in elegant typography and rich binding, the letter-press confined in a blue border of diversified patterns. The illustrations are pertinent, and are drawn largely from curious contemporary sketches or prints. The photogravures from nature are so fine that one wishes the Wind River Mountains had been so presented instead of in a steel engraving of doubtful authority. A map of the author's route has been attached, showing its relation to present State and Territorial lines. All these merits needed to be capped by an index, but this is conspicuously missing.

Dr. W. J. Rolfe's "Cambridge Edition" of Tennyson's Poetic and Dramatic Works (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is equally in place in the private library and in the high school. Besides the care bestowed on the text, Dr. Rolfe gathers in his appendix the poet's first-fruits in 'Poems by Two Brothers,' discarded poems, of the output of 1830 and 1833 among others, minute records of Tennyson's revisions, and copious annotation and analysis such as many a teacher will prize. The usual indices are not neglected. Lord Tennyson's Life of his father has helped to give a sort of definitiveness to this edition. Noticeable among the omitted pieces here restored are the numerous sonnets, as to which Tennyson's own judgment was perfectly sound. He had no business in that galley.

Six years have elapsed since we reviewed the late J. A. Symonds's 'Life of Michelangelo,' whose merits met with instant acceptance, so that a second edition was called for within three months. The third, still in two volumes of open and handsome typography, is now before us (London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners). The number of illustrations—fifty, besides the portrait frontispiece—remains, like the text, unchanged. These, though mainly photographic in origin, are less admirable than the letter-press. The enduring quality of this biography will perhaps in time justify a substitution in part at least, and even some additions.

Messrs. Scribner send us also 'Latter-Day Pamphlets' and the eighth volume of the Life of Frederick the Great in the Centenary Edition of Carlyle's Works, of whose beauty and cheapness we have repeatedly advised our readers; and four more volumes of the portly Gadshill Dickens, viz.: 'Sketches by Boz' (2), 'Hard Times' and other short stories, and 'American Notes, and Pictures in Italy.' Each volume has its introduction by Mr. Andrew Lang, and the Sketches are accompanied by Cruikshank's original designs, in sharp contrast with the etchings for 'American Notes' by a present-day artist. The 'Notes' yet remain to be indexed. From the same publishers we receive volumes six to eight, inclusive, of the 'Spectator' reprint, edited by G. Gregory Smith, and introduced by Mr. Austin Dobson, and clothed

in an antiquarian garb which is successful and even taking in its way, but does not wholly commend itself to our sense either of the beautiful or the readable.

Two elegant little volumes for the pocket have been issued by the Century Co.—one, Dickens's 'The Cricket on the Hearth,' with a suggestive introduction by Joseph Jefferson, in which he contrasts the fitness of this Christmas story to be dramatized almost as it stands, with the general intractability of the same author's novels for the same purpose. The other gem of bookmaking is 'Poor Richard's Almanack,' edited selectively by Benjamin E. Smith, with a reduced but quite legible facsimile of the almanac for 1733, from the original in the possession of the Pennsylvania Historical Society.

The Century Co. has freshly reissued Mr. Frank Stockton's classic, 'The Casting Away of Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine,' in a pretty form and binding, to whose decoration the ginger-jar is not wanting. Mr. Frederick Dorr Steele supplies some slight but effective pen-drawings, as restrained as the author's humor. The same house bestows a similar treatment on Virginia Woodward Cloud's 'Down Durley Lane, and Other Ballads,' of a merry cast, first published seven years ago. They are now adorned with clever and graceful illustrations in several tints by Reginald B. Birch.

Prof. James Albert Woodburn of Indiana University has had the good thought to extract from Lecky's 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century' the chapters and passages relating to America. This has been very well executed, under the caption, 'The American Revolution, 1763-1783' (Appletons). The historian's own notes Prof. Woodburn has supplemented, often correctively, but fairly, with his own, which sometimes assume the form of instructions to students, as, "Summarise the 'chief restrictions of the commercial code.'" It is, indeed, much to be wished that this little volume should find a place in the schools together with Goldwin Smith's short History of the United States. They will make for national candor without impairing international affinity.

Lord Farrer has collected the papers that he has written for the Gold-Standard Defence Association on certain problems of monetary science, and republishes them under the title 'Studies in Currency' (Macmillan Co.). Although the author did not attempt a systematic treatise, yet his familiarity with the conduct of business and with financial history has enabled him to give a substantially complete account of the real points at issue in the financial schools. These points are three in number. The most important one, practically, is whether or not Government should make anything a compulsory legal-tender. The second is whether an appreciating currency is a good thing or a bad thing. The third is whether, or how far, prices vary according to the quantity of money. It is evident that bimetallism is only a corollary to certain answers to these questions, or, in other words, that no one can be a bimetallist who has not, consciously or unconsciously, adopted these answers. As a contribution to our knowledge of the conditions of the problems, these papers have great value. Lord Farrer disclaims originality, but most readers will find that they have obtained new light on finance from his account of the modern extension of business beyond the limits of particular countries, and its effects on the principles and practice of exchange. There are many things in the book to which we should like to call attention, but it is enough to say that it justifies Lord Farrer's reputation for knowledge and good sense.

The 'Introduction aux Études Historiques' of MM. Langlois and Seignobos, which we reviewed at length on its appearance, has just been put into English form (Henry Holt & Co.). The translator, Mr. G. G. Berry, seems to succeed in the matter of accuracy, but at times is rather more literal than English idiom allows. A preface by Prof. York Powell and an index of proper names are points of advantage which the English version has over the French original. Intrinsically the work deserves a wide circulation.

From Lemcke & Buechner we have another thin volume in the series of Künstler-Monographien, viz., 'Hubert und Jan Van Eyck,' by Ludwig Kaemmerer. The illustrations in this case are enhanced in interest by comparison of copies with the originals, conspicuously the copy made at Philip II.'s command of the altar-piece at Ghent, by Michael Coxcie.

The same firm sends us "Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender" for 1899, its third year of publication. It maintains its general scheme of an illustration in the upper portion of each leaf of the pad, with the day's historic dates and appropriate almanac information below, and is well worth browsing in in advance of the daily need. While many of the cuts are old, many are new and timely, and we can cite views on the Yukon, with map of Alaska and the Klondike; the crater of Kilauea; the custom-house at Manila; scenes from the German possessions in East Africa, New Guinea, and Cameroon, with map of the new Chinese "sphere"; Khartum; the observatories of Mt. Blanc and Etna; the Emperor William's yacht *Metcor;* portraits of Bismarck and Zola.

With the October issue of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* comes the announcement that Mr. Bruce severs his connection with it to devote himself to historical work. In his care the magazine has taken a high rank among periodicals of its kind, and its success and merit owe much to his sacrificing energy. It is certain, however, that Virginia will gain by his future labors, for he has shown a rare ability to interpret her colonial history. The magazine contains a remarkable letter from Richard Bland on Virginian affairs in 1771. It goes far to establish the reputation he enjoyed among his contemporaries. Adams thought him a "learned bookish man," and Washington and Jefferson both spoke highly of his knowledge of Virginian affairs in colonial days.

Bibliophiles have reason to be interested in the *Zeitschrift für Bücherfreunde*, which for more than a year has been issued by the house of Velhagen & Klasing. The editorial direction is in the hands of Fedor von Zobeltitz. The twelve parts completing the first year make a handsome double volume of 656 pages, richly illustrated. The object of the monthly is both scientific and popular, and in its scope practically covers all departments of bibliography, but chiefly from an historical point of view. It aims only to produce and reproduce what is scientifically trustworthy, yet ordinarily to select matter and materials of general interest. Both illustrations and letterpress are of high grade. Quite naturally the contents appeal more to German readers than to others, but they can be read with profit everywhere.

There is evidently a Turkish side to the Kaiser's trip to Palestine, and the organs of the Young or Reform Turkish party are perfectly willing to express their sentiments. A pronounced view of this kind we find in a leading literary organ of this party, the *Mechveret*, which distinguishes sharply between the perfectly legitimate wish on the Emperor's part to visit the Holy Land, and the motive that takes him to Constantinople. It asks Wilhelm II. how he can give the hand of fraternal greeting and the kiss of brotherly recognition to the man who is morally responsible for the massacre of thousands of innocent victims in Armenia, and wonders what the survivors of these people, the widows and orphans, will think of the visit of a Christian Emperor to the Turkish Sultan. Another objection urged is on the score of economy. The *Mechveret* declares that the last visit of the Kaiser to Constantinople cost the Turks more than £300,000, and the present journey will cost more than twice this sum. It appeals to the Emperor to remember that all the grandeur and glory displayed in his entertainment represents blood-money pressed from an enslaved and impoverished people. A third appeal is made to him in the name of freedom, representing Abdul Hamid as the typical representative of a system of political autocracy totally inconsistent with modern civilization and culture. The article closes with the opinion that Germany is at present playing the rôle of warm friendship for Turkey solely for selfish ends, and will, at the opportune moment, try to win Russia's favor by consenting to a partition of the inheritance of the Sick Man in the interest of Russian ambition.

The special feature of the October Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is a list of some four hundred works on trees and forestry, together with references to Government reports, and those of the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture, contained in the Library. It is based on a list published in 1878.

The Vatican authorities publish each year an annual, in which full and detailed information is given as to the status and progress of the hierarchy, probably the most perfect government machinery on the globe. This year-book, *La Gerarchia Cattolica*, has recently again made its appearance, and reports a present membership of 1,298 in the organization, whose growth is indicated by the fact that the present Pope has established no fewer than 218 new seats of various dignitaries. At the head of the hierarchy is Leo XIII., since March 3, 1878, the 263d occupant of the Holy See, according to the computation of the Church. His full title is given in the *Gerarchia* as "Vicar of Jesus Christ, Successor of the Prince of the Apostles, Head of the Universal Church, Patriarch of the Occident, Primate of Italy, Archbishop and Metropolitan of the Roman Church Province, Bishop of Rome, Sovereign of the Secular Possessions of the Holy Roman Church." The Sacred College of Cardinals has now an actual membership of 59, although the full quota is 70. The Italians have fully a majority of three-fifths. The hierarchial officers are divided into two classes, those of the Latin or Roman Rite, and those of the Oriental Rite; the latter embracing those archbishops, bishops, and other officials who are in charge of the old churches of the East that have, with certain reserved rights,

in the course of time submitted to the Pope. Of the Latin Rite there are 174 archbishoprics and 720 bishoprics. Numerically and in influence Italy leads all the other Catholic countries, there being 50 Italian archbishops and 215 bishops.

—The library of Cornell University has lately issued the first part of a catalogue of the Dante Collection presented by Willard Fiske. This first part of ninety-one closely printed quarto pages is confined to the editions and translations of Dante's works in the Cornell Library, and describes, apparently, something over a thousand different volumes. The editions before 1800 number about seventy, and the translations described are in thirty-five different languages or dialects. Mr. Theodore W. Koch (an enthusiastic student of Dante, and author of an interesting and elaborate study of Dante in America which, with his bibliography of the same subject, was printed in one of the annual reports of the Dante Society), has given more than two years of constant labor to the preparation of this catalogue, for which his thoroughness and accuracy as a bibliographer admirably fit him. In its general arrangement and method it follows the model set by Mr. Lane's catalogue of the Harvard Dante collection, but it surpasses that in extent, in fulness of annotation, and in scope; for while the latter undertook to analyze periodicals and other composite publications devoted wholly to Dante, Mr. Koch goes further, and records the matter relating to Dante in all periodicals and in general literature, so far as found on the shelves of the Cornell Library. The notes are in part original, and in part drawn from the writings of recognized authorities, or from the text of the books catalogued. They relate to bibliographical details, illustrations and their history (especially in the sixteenth-century editions), portraits of Dante and their relations to one another, and particularly the textual value and peculiarities of the different editions. Part 2 will comprise material of all kinds, in books and periodicals, relating to Dante, and will be followed by Part 3, which is to be an index of subjects, and is to have an appendix on the iconography of Dante. Prof. Fiske, formerly the librarian of Cornell, had already destined to the Library his great collection of Petrarch literature, to which his Dante collection will form a worthy companion. Considering the short period during which he has been actively engaged in gathering it, the collection is surprisingly large and rich. Its catalogue forms the most complete and detailed modern bibliography of Dante, and will deserve a more extensive notice when complete. It is curious that the Italians themselves have produced no comprehensive and scholarly bibliography of Dante. Ferrazzi's Manual, it is true, brings together a great mass of references and extracts, but it is inaccurate and uneven. Colomb de Batines, Petzholdt, and Scartazzini are all foreigners, and America may be said to have contributed the best that has been done in the line of pure bibliography. The value of the American work has been warmly recognized by the Italians themselves, as witness their very complimentary expressions concerning the labors of the American Dante Society. Lane, on account of his Harvard catalogue, the first to be provided with a complete index to passages and subjects, has been a "nome caro agli studenti italiani," and it will be interesting to see what terms of enthusiastic admiration they will find for Mr. Koch.

—The fifth volume of the 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnams) brings a rich store of good material, most of which is new. It covers the years 1807-1816, a period when a sound Federalist could hardly accept with good grace the measures of the Administration. Jefferson was closing his second term with the Embargo, leaving to Madison a legacy in forming which the latter had played no mean part, and with which he was to carry on the curious development of Jefferson's republicanism. King's criticism of this policy is moderate, considering the strong feeling of opposition it created; but he was not in public life until he was chosen to be Senator in 1813. As a private citizen he held a high position as counsellor in foreign affairs, and his influence was great. He knew that the British ministry of his day had been willing to renew the treaty with the United States, and were about to sign one had he been left to complete the few undetermined points at issue. Such a treaty would have made the Embargo and the war improbable, and have saved the President from the blunder of being apparently so subservient to the commands of Napoleon. King's letters are full of able discussions of questions of international usage and of the course of events in Europe, under the ambitions of a military genius seeking to destroy commercial England.

—Domestic concerns are also keenly noted. Gallatin's finance was not much to King's liking, though this distrust was more due to a suspicion attaching to anything coming from Jefferson than to any inherent weakness in Gallatin's plans. In the management of the affairs of Columbia College and Trinity Church he took an active interest, and in State and city politics he was one of the leading managers for the Federalists. Of special interest is the interview of King and Morris with De Witt Clinton, at the time when Clinton believed he could secure a place on the Presidential ticket. The meeting was sufficient to confirm King in his distrust of Clinton, but the latter made much of the conference, for it soon came to be understood in Boston that King favored this political schemer. The report was accompanied by a story that Hamilton had declared on his death-bed that Clinton was the only man in the United States to put down Democracy. Party methods were not very scrupulous. When King on two occasions ran for office in the State, he was savagely attacked by Emmett, who charged him with influencing the British ministry against his release from prison as an Irish rebel—an incident not unlike the attack made on Mr. Lowell. Troup, in 1810, complained of the corrupting influence of the Mayor of New York because of his "enormous" salary and emoluments, amounting to $15,000 a year—a sum of moderate proportions for a city "boss" of to-day. The volume fitly closes with King's unsuccessful candidacy for the Governorship. A letter printed on p. 132 is repeated on p. 158, and Mason's initials are sometimes given as I. M. and sometimes J. M. The proper spelling of the Virginia locality on p. 536 is Conococheague. The editor still depends upon Hildreth, though Henry Adams's work would supply a much better account of Jefferson's tortuous foreign policy.

—Prof. C. M. Andrews has concluded his 'Historical Development of Modern Europe' (Putnam) by a second volume, which begins at 1850 and reaches so recent a date as 1897. About a year ago we sketched the general plan of this work, and no very new features present themselves in the part just published. The words in which Prof. Andrews restates his purpose form a connecting link between the two sections, and may be quoted to refresh the reader's memory: "On the ground that no event can be understood in isolation, and that history is something more than a series of events chronologically considered, I have endeavored to give logical form to my treatment of the subject, carrying each movement forward to its conclusion before turning to the others; and, that due proportions might be preserved, have introduced nothing that did not seem to me absolutely necessary to an understanding of the subject, giving no more attention to any incident, however picturesque or dramatic, than its importance for my purpose warranted." Following this topical treatment, he selects for his subjects the Second Empire; the Crimean War; the rise of Piedmont widening out into Italian unity; the rise of Prussia, and her struggles with Austria and France; the establishment of the dual monarchy; and the course of the Eastern Question from 1856 till last year. The book ends with five chapters devoted to recent events in Russia, Italy, Austria-Hungary, France, and Germany.

—Prof. Andrews has found his chief difficulty in steering a just course between great men and great movements. "In studying . . . the entire alteration of the European political system, we are confronted on one hand with the danger of exaggerating the importance of the persons concerned . . . ; on the other, with the equally great danger of minimizing the personal equation, laying too much stress on underlying and hidden forces, and looking on the great men of the era as dominated by influences beyond their control." In this predicament Prof. Andrews has singled out Cavour and Bismarck for protagonists, although he considers it a superficial view that the events of 1830, 1848, and 1870 "were merely accidental occurrences" and that actual constitution-building "would have been rendered impossible had other men directed the course of affairs." Another point which is accentuated in the preface relates to the author's treatment of military history. He makes it wholly subservient to politics, the campaigns themselves being rapidly dismissed in order that their results may fill a larger space. Footnotes and marginal headings are again excluded, but absence of the former furnishes cause for a longer bibliographical note than accompanied the first volume. As it now stands in completed form, Prof. Andrews's work seems a careful and skilful effort at coordination. The original sources for modern history are so immense that minute division of labor is required in developing them, and a treatise which sums up the best recent literature implies labor enough to merit genuine recognition.

—Palmerston, Tennyson, and Thackeray (to say nothing of the poet Thomson) are brilliant names in the section of the Dictionary of National Biography comprised in Volume 56 (Macmillan). Tennyson is dispatched in ten pages, by Canon Ainger; Thackeray in sixteen pages, by Leslie Stephen; but with

obviously greater compression, in view of the relative amount of incident in the two lives. Yet nothing of significance is omitted, from the youthful breaking of the novelist's nose to his viewing Napoleon at St. Helena, witnessing his second funeral in 1840, and visiting Goethe at Weimar. We see him proposing to Dickens to illustrate the 'Pickwick Papers,' and at odds with Dickens over the Yates affair. At every stage the biographer's difficulties are made apparent by "it is said" —*e. g.*, as to the income left him by his father, variously stated at £20,000 to £500; or as to the weight of his brain. Departing occasionally (as was to be expected from his relation to his subject) from his customary strict adherence to narration, Mr. Stephen defends Thackeray against the charge of snobbery, and confidently predicts that he would have been a home-ruler. The sketch, with the bracketed authority relegated to footnotes or an appendix, would be welcomed if reprinted by itself, as in the case of Mr. Sidney Lee's Shakspere. Readers of (not for) the Oxford Dictionary must have noticed the frequent quotations from Gen. T. Perronet Thompson, a typical Englishman in his military service on several continents, his Parliamentary career, his proprietorship of the *Westminster Review*, and his voluminous unattached journalism. His vigorous style may even be studied in the columns of the *Liberator*, to which he was a frequent contributor on behalf of American abolition. His most eloquent countryman and fellow M. P., George Thompson, who brought upon the editor of the *Liberator* a vicarious mobbing in Boston in 1835, is also commemorated, a little inadequately, in this volume. Here, too, is our Yankee Count Rumford, a philanthropist if there ever was one. Among Continental foreigners who have established a claim to admission to this British Dictionary, the Orientalist Terrien de la Couperie takes a place in the line which ends for the present with Tollet.

—Apropos of Dr. Jesse Torrey, described in a recent issue of this journal as the first advocate of free public libraries, a distant subscriber writes: "Your correspondent has proved Dr. Torrey to be worthy of perpetual remembrance, but the Doctor is not shown to have realized his ideal in any single instance, while Franklin had established such a library before Torrey was born. Torrey preached; Franklin practised. In 1785 he wrote to his friend, Dr. Price, in London, asking him to buy as many books as £25 would purchase, as a present 'for the use of the inhabitants' of a Massachusetts town which had adopted the name of Franklin. This library, arriving in Massachusetts, with a letter of directions regarding its use, 'was opened to the whole town in 1788.' It was placed under the care of the Congregational minister, Dr. Emmons, who was ordered, by a vote in town meeting, 'to let out books according to Franklin's directions.' In Franklin's letter to Price, the only book he mentions as worthy of purchase was Stennett on Personal Religion. Among the titles in the catalogue printed in 1786 are Tacitus, five volumes; 'Life of Cromwell,' 'The [English] Rebellion,' 'The Spectator,' 'Pilgrim's Progress.' The only poem was Young's 'Night Thoughts.' Franklin had been asked for a bell, but he begged them 'to accept books instead, sense being preferable to sound.' This library still fulfils its gratuitous mission."

WEISSHEIMER, WAGNER, AND LISZT.

Erlebnisse mit Richard Wagner, Franz Liszt und vielen anderen Zeitgenossen. Von Wendelin Weissheimer. Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlagshandlung.

Who is Wendelin Weissheimer that his name should be proudly associated with two of the greatest musical heroes of all time? He is one of the operatic and concert conductors that Germany produces in such abundance—men who make themselves useful to the community without rising sufficiently above mediocrity as interpreters or composers (for all German Kapellmeisters compose) to make a name for themselves unless they are so lucky as to be associated with greater men as friends or assistants. He begins his reminiscences by relating how he became an admirer and disciple of Wagner. The extraordinary virulence with which nearly the whole press attacked Wagner for upsetting all the rules of art, made Weissheimer think, "What a great man he must be!" And when, in 1852, he heard a military band play the "Tannhäuser" march, his fate was sealed. His one object in life was to hear Wagner's operas; and after he had heard "Tannhäuser," "Lohengrin," and the "Flying Dutchman" at Darmstadt and Frankfort, he found himself in "a perfect Wagner delirium." He took lessons of Rietz—the successor of Mendelssohn as conductor of the Leipzig Gewandhaus concerts—and brought him one day a ballad of his own composition for baritone and orchestra. After examining it, Rietz exclaimed sternly: "You seem to be a follower of Wagner, and that is your ruin. Of all the young men I have been obliged to warn, you are the worst!" One day he ventured to play the "Lohengrin" prelude at the house of a lady who was a friend of Mendelssohn and professed to be an admirer of all good music. She listened somewhat suspiciously, and at the close asked him what he had been playing. The answer made her rise hastily, go into the adjoining room, and exclaim loudly to the guests, "This young man dares to desecrate my salon with Wagner's music!"

In 1857 Weissheimer had the good luck to hear Liszt conduct "Tannhäuser" at Leipzig; but the performance was far from being a victory—it passed off amid mingled applause and hisses, the latter often predominating. Some years later, after he had made the acquaintance of his idol, Wagner told him about Mendelssohn's attitude at the very first performance of that opera at Dresden. After the first act he came to Wagner on the stage with warm words of praise; after the second he came again, but had little to say; and after the third he—— did not come at all. Particularly interesting, and largely new, are the details which Weissheimer gives of a certain famous concert at Leipzig. It was his concert, but it was to be chiefly for the benefit of Wagner, who was greatly in need of funds. Wagner had personally written to the Intendant of the Dresden Opera, begging him to allow his great tenor Schnorr von Carolsfeld to take part in this concert; but the request was curtly refused, to the great disappointment of Schnorr, who wrote a letter to Weissheimer giving unrestrained expression to his disgust with a state of affairs which placed "lieutenants, jurists, and novelists" at the head of opera-houses. The concert, however, had plenty of attractions otherwise. Hans von Bülow was to play a Liszt concerto, and Richard Wagner himself was not only to conduct his "Tannhäuser" overture, but to give the Leipzigers their first chance to hear the new prelude to the "Meistersinger." What is more, it was Wagner's first appearance in public in the city of his birth; and he was within a few months of his fiftieth birthday. What happened? The hall was nearly empty, and the receipts did not equal the expenses! The few hundred persons who appeared were not special friends of Wagner, for when he stepped up to the conductor's desk not a hand was raised to greet him with applause, though such greeting was customary. But he had his revenge; he raised his magic wand, and in twenty minutes transformed this group of amateurs, filled with chill and scorn, into a band of frenzied enthusiasts. The "Meistersinger" *Vorspiel* was enthusiastically redemanded, and after the "Tannhäuser" overture the whole audience rose to its feet—unheard-of thing in the staid Gewandhaus—and gave three rousing cheers for Wagner, in which the orchestra joined with a fanfare. Such is the power of genius, and this was the way in which a few Leipzig men and women atoned for the folly of the others in boycotting the greatest man their city ever gave birth to.

Though financially a failure, this concert, with its unexpected result, naturally made a sensation, and Wagner suddenly found himself famous as a concert conductor, for when he subsequently conducted excerpts from his new music dramas in Vienna, the hall was crowded and the enthusiasm as great as in Leipzig. The necessary rehearsals with large orchestra, however, swallowed up nearly all the receipts of the first two concerts, and only the third yielded a profit, to which the Empress added a thousand florins from her own purse. Similar concerts were now arranged in other cities, including St. Petersburg, where the Philharmonic Society guaranteed Wagner for one evening 8,000 silver rubles. Was he pleased with this turn of affairs? In a way he was, for he sorely needed the money to pay his creditors and to make it possible for him to continue composing. What he wanted was to write operas and conduct them, not to produce fragments in the concert-hall; but, under the circumstances, that was his only source of revenue, and, with pardonable bitterness, his very success made him dissatisfied, for, as he wrote to Weissheimer, "The world comprehends and pays only the virtuoso; at the head of an orchestra, with my few compositions, I appear as such, and in this capacity I must now provide for myself—and high time it is."

Weissheimer had accompanied Wagner to Vienna to assist in preparing "Tristan and Isolde" for performance, for which Wagner would have received a beggarly 2,000 florins after the first night. That night never came, for various reasons, and Weissheimer had his pains for nothing. He had found himself in the odd position of going over the score, sometimes on the same day, with two tenors, one of whom was not to know that the other was getting ready as an understudy. This was a sample of the services Weissheimer rendered to Wagner. At other times he copied for the press Wagner's sketches, which only an expert could decipher, or adapted scores for special occasions; in short, he was for a time, like Hans Richter and

Anton Seidl, practically Wagner's secretary—and more too. Being so lucky as to have a wealthy father, he was consequently often in a position to help Wagner out at critical moments with small sums, or to secure the loan of larger ones. Unfortunately he did not always succeed in convincing others of Wagner's great future. Once he offered the "Meistersinger" to a wealthy uncle for 3,000 florins, but the uncle refused it. "Had he suspected," writes Weissheimer, "what he might have realized on that investment, this usually shrewd speculator would afterwards have turned in his grave." He finally secured a loan of a banker and brought it to Wagner, who was waiting for him at a café. "I knew *you* would not fail me," exclaimed the composer, and fell weeping on his neck. His rent was so far in arrear that his host had forbidden him to return to his apartments until the bill was settled. His publisher Schott had failed to help him in this emergency—had, in fact, refused to receive him. To another publisher he had offered a whole set of songs for $250, and the publisher did not jump at the chance.

Schnorr once wrote to Weissheimer that the saddest and at the same time the most ridiculous thing he had observed in all his life was, that a man with such inexhaustible creative power as Wagner was compelled to waste his time earning his daily bread and lowering his mind by devising schemes to satisfy his creditors. Wagner certainly did not receive the thousandth part of what he earned, in view of the future value of his works; yet it cannot be denied that his temporary embarrassments were often due to his own reckless prodigality. Weissheimer cites some amusing illustrations that came under his notice. Once Wagner gave a cab-driver a piece of gold, where silver would have sufficed, and refused to take change. Another time he treated his friends to champagne when his landlord in Vienna was on the point of turning him out of doors for his room and board bill and the cost of a sumptuous dinner he had given to the artists, and so on. Hans von Bülow, who helped Wagner in every way he could, and once even wanted to start a national subscription (which, however, both Wagner and Liszt disapproved of strongly), wrote to Weissheimer, in a moment of discouragement, "It seems incredible that the Frankfort opera director should not have given Wagner an honorarium befitting the occasion; incredible, too, what sums of money can be consumed in a fortnight"; and at another time he said: "It is a mystery to me how he [Wagner] always succeeds in getting what he needs at the proper moment, when he cannot get along without it. Perhaps he is even greater as a financial genius than as a poet and musician. How often have I admired him in the first-named capacity!" The reference to Frankfort calls attention to one of the ways in which Wagner squandered his money. His had conducted his "Lohengrin" for the first time, and the occasion was, of course, immensely profitable to the manager, who offered him a large compensation, but Wagner treated the thing as a "matter of honor," and refused to accept anything.

Weissheimer does not believe in not letting the left hand know what the right hand does. He tells the world in detail what he did for Wagner, obviously for the purpose of afterwards convicting him of ingratitude. As already intimated, Weissheimer, like most German Kapellmeisters, also composed. His heart was particularly set on an opera entitled "Körner," which he was anxious to have accepted for performance at Munich. He was convinced that a word to the King from Wagner's mouth would land him at his goal, but Wagner not only did not speak to the King, but stubbornly refused even to examine the score or to let its composer play it for him—the friend who had devoted years of his life to his service. Ingratitude this certainly was; but if this was a fault, it proceeded not from weakness, but from the strength of his character. Had he been willing to act against his principles (by writing tuneful and showy operas) he might have been the richest and most popular musician of his time, instead of suffering as he did. Should he do for another what he had suffered so much for not doing for himself? He might have waived the point that his friend wrote what was his pet aversion—Wagnerian *Kapellmeistermusik*. What he objected to was the libretto. It was written by a woman who had no talent for such an undertaking, and he found it so weak that he refused to hear the music until the text had been altered. He kindly made suggestions—advised Weissheimer to submit the libretto to Paul Heyse for revision, knowing that it would prove a failure in its original form; but Weissheimer refused to listen to him, and then proceeded to accuse Wagner of rank ingratitude. Frau Cosima wrote him long and apologetic, almost tearful, letters, explaining why Wagner was so indignant at the text. Wagner himself explained to him that he could do nothing in the matter; that it was not so easy as he supposed to persuade the King; that Perfall was in the way, and various intrigues (he had, in fact, trouble enough in getting his own operas mounted, notwithstanding the King's attitude). But Weissheimer refused to listen, and, to spite him, went so far as to make up his mind to leave Munich before the first "Meistersinger" performance. That it was his artistic conscience, and not "ingratitude," that made Wagner hesitate to persuade the King to mount an opera which he knew would be a failure, is shown by the fact recorded on page 264, but afterwards forgotten, that before Wagner knew anything about this work he persuaded the manager of the Leipzig Opera, in "an eloquent appeal," to accept it. There were two other things which Weissheimer forgot: (1) that Wagner, in one of his literary essays, explained once for all, with reference to Meyerbeer, why he could not allow "gratitude" to influence his artistic convictions, and (2) that in 1868 he (Weissheimer) had a glimpse of the truth that thirty years afterward, when Wagner should have loomed up as a giant, all the world would envy him for having been one of his friends, even if Wagner was "ungrateful." Thirty years, exactly, have passed, and Weissheimer has, with his reminiscences, done more to hand his name down to posterity than he could have done with a hundred operas, such as he wrote. Posterity, it may be added, would have esteemed him more highly if he had not, at the end, allowed his vanity to eclipse his devotion.

By far the most interesting and valuable pages of Weissheimer's book are those which relate how Wagner was situated, and what happened, when King Ludwig sent an adjutant to bring him to Munich. It is the most romantic episode in Wagner's romantic life, and it has never before been told correctly, with all the details. The money which Wagner had made in Russia by his concerts was recklessly spent in Vienna, and debts incurred in the knowledge that similar sums had been promised him for the next summer. But that promise was withdrawn, and, to escape imprisonment for his debts, he had to leave Vienna suddenly. After spending some time in Switzerland, he went to Stuttgart, whence Weissheimer received a telegram dated April 29, 1864, asking him to come and see him. Entering Wagner's room at the hotel, he was received with the words, "The end has come. I must disappear from the world. Cannot you save me?" As soon as Weissheimer understood the situation, Wagner asked him, with tears in his eyes, "Will you disappear with me?" and the friend, seeing him thus utterly deserted and without resources, agreed to go with him to some place where they could spend several months in absolute seclusion, completing the "Meistersinger" score. The departure was arranged for May 3, and the conveyance had already been ordered to take them to a spot in the Rauhe Alb next morning, when, late in the afternoon, a waiter brought in a card reading, "V. Pfistenmeister, Secrétaire aulique de S. M. le roi de Bavière." Wagner hesitated to admit him until he received the assurance from the visitor that he had come on a special and very urgent mission. Weissheimer left the room during the interview, and when he returned Wagner showed him a diamond ring and the King's portrait, which the Baron had brought him, and fell on his friend's neck, sobbing loudly. "That this should have happened to *me*, and just *now*," he exclaimed a dozen times during the evening, while recounting what the King had promised to do for him. Baron Pfistenmeister had had great trouble in tracking Wagner to Stuttgart, and had he arrived there a day later, months would have elapsed before he could have found him, as no one in Stuttgart or elsewhere would have known the hiding-place. A characteristic incident happened at the station. The Baron had neglected to buy a ticket for Wagner, who had not a cent of money, but, luckily, the faithful Weissheimer was there; he ran to buy one, and just had time to throw it in at the window as the train moved off. The bill at the hotel Wagner had paid by giving the head-waiter a Russian jewelled snuff-box worth several times the sum due. The waiter bowed very low.

Of Liszt and the other contemporaries referred to in these Reminiscences, Weissheimer has very much less to relate than of Wagner. There are some interesting pages about Tausig, Bülow, Cornelius, and Lassalle, while to the halo around Liszt's character new rays are added. The one dark spot in his artistic conscience has appeared to some to be that he was willing to write operatic fantasias to tickle the ears of the groundlings. This puzzled Weissheimer, too, till he heard Liszt exclaim, one evening, at a sumptuous dinner: "Ah, if I had done nothing but write 'Faust' and 'Dante' symphonies, I should not be able now to treat my friends to trout and iced champagne." The author relates how, at Weimar, during the long rehearsals for "Lohengrin," Liszt used to keep the artists in good humor by having lunches ready for them. He also made a special contract that "Lohengrin" should be performed at least three times, no matter what happened; and a wise provision it was,

for at the second performance the greater part of the audience ran away from this abstruse and unmelodious music! There are interesting glimpses of Liszt as teacher, pianist, and conductor, for which the reader must be referred to Weissheimer's pages, which will, doubtless, be translated into English ere long.

RECENT FICTION.

Comedies and Errors. By Henry Harland. John Lane.

Life is Life, and Other Tales and Episodes. By Zack. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Story of a Play. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Brothers.

In the Sargasso Sea. By Thomas A. Janvier. Harper & Brothers.

The Forest Lovers. By Maurice Hewlett. The Macmillan Co.

Whoever may have set the standard of art for the short-story author—critic or reader—he managed to impose it on the others, and to secure a substantial agreement that a good short story must exhibit ability to see an incident or character whole and alone, detached from past, future, and complicating circumstances, and that the author must have enough strength of mind steadily to resist the allurements of the superfluous. Writers obliged to try first for adequacy in brevity have sacrificed many things not inherently vicious; and the suffering of the tale-teller as he suppresses fine fancies (clearly irrelevant) and sparkling phrases (unfortunately purely decorative), may well be reckoned in the sum of the world's pain. Mr. Harland's 'Comedies and Errors' raises the question whether all this sacrifice is inevitable, and whether the accepted standard is not responsible for a form of literary art often a little barren, a trifle dry, capable of illustration in a thing that is not literature at all. He has found a way whereby the form may be stretched to embrace things beautiful and effective which do not appear extraneous, without losing any of its distinctive attributes. It is only one way, and that might easily become monotonous, but it opens the door and lets in hope of other ways. His way is to tell about something that happened years ago, something in which the narrator was deeply interested—to speak it plainly, a love affair, a consuming passion for a beautiful Countess Bracca, older and wiser than he, for P'tit Bleu, highly prized in the Latin Quarter; for a sort of cousin, Rosalys, sitting lovely, waiting for love, in a Roman garden; for a Neapolitan Zabetta, met and loved and lost in a single day. By this method he indicates the boy before the episode, the man long after, insinuates a life's history into the events of an hour of life. Thus the incident takes an importance, a permanence, a speculative interest vastly greater than the system of rigid isolation can achieve. Pure narrative, the safest thing for a short story, Mr. Harland uses sparingly, and lets himself go with the dangerous quantities, talk and description—description of cities, streets, palaces, gardens, even single rooms and gowns. The talk is really the chief agent of action, a structural utility part, easily overlooked in the first enjoyment of its brilliancy, suggestiveness, and apparent innocence of any serious intention. The description has many remarkable qualities—spontaneity, vivacity, volubility; but the most remarkable has no name: it is something which assures you that this torrent of word-painting is essential to the story; that in any other place, with any other surrounding, the people would not have existed, the thing could not have happened as it did. So what Mr. Harland has done definitely for the art of the short story is to enlarge its scope, to give it fulness and richness, to link the incident with the rest of life, and to convert what has been feared as embarrassing decoration into essential substance.

On this point there can hardly be conflicting opinion, but many other points invite discussion. Not any tale or sketch can be labelled either realistic or romantic or fantastic; the skill is in the blend and in a charm potent enough to cheat reflection. There is no pretence of recording observation or transcribing real life, for Mr. Harland cannot be supposed to be on free-and-easy terms with kings and queens any more than with angels and archangels. But he needed people remote enough from common life to give his fancy latitude, and free enough from sordid care to live lightly and gracefully, to love and suffer, then laugh and forget. So he uses the great aristocracies of Europe unscrupulously, and it is safe to predict that no one will sue him for slander. Of life at large he has undoubtedly seen enough to serve, and his observation and reflection, transfused by imagination, produce that literature which can never be true to fact, yet is by no means destitute of truth. His most serious object is to give harmless pleasure, and he is so unmoral that only good taste saves him from being immoral. Once, in "Flower o' the Clove," taste fails as a substitute for conscience, and he uses a situation which, for the sake of both morals and art, had better never be mentioned.

In an article on this volume Mr. Henry James observes that Mr. Harland's nationality (American) is discoverable only through his being so European. This is a refinement of observation. Mr. Harland's kind of wit is an American kind, and his mastery of the light elliptical phrase is also probably American, for we know only one other writer who excels him, an American—Mr. Henry James himself. Mr. Harland is a disciple of Mr. James, but independent and with certain natural differences. He has almost greater skill than Mr. James in insinuation and suggestion, much less in analysis and expression of mental subtleties. The younger writer's emotions are decidedly the more turbulent, and his English may be as good when it becomes less French. The literally translated idiom is effective in "P'tit Bleu," but affected in "Merely Players," a perfect tale, perfectly delightful and perfectly artificial.

There is no hard-and-fast definition of the meaning of life, for the lessons of experience are always subject to the interpretation of temperament. Mr. Harland's temperament is gay enough to wrestle with the most painful experience, and to declare that, after all, life is good, pain transient, and pleasure of one sort or another always waiting for recognition. The temperament of Zack (a feminine temperament) flatly contradicts, absolutely denies, such a reading of the lesson. It extracts pain from everything, and declares that the sob of breaking hearts is the dominant note of human existence. The volume entitled 'Life is Life' includes twelve tales and episodes, and is perfectly fitted to extinguish hope. Few of us escape the acquaintance of a person, generally an elderly woman who has had a hard time, who sits perpetually and intimately with sorrow, casting her dark mantle over all who approach. Zack is that sort of person in print. She appears to have seen a good deal of life, in Australia, among dialect-talking English rustics, and to have tarried casually in Germany and Italy. Nowhere, apparently, has she known love to escape the doom of sacrifice, scorn, or ingratitude, never heard a laugh that did not end in a cry. Virtue she has seen and admired, but virtue is always its own and only reward. None of the wicked who have crossed her path ever cheerfully flourish as the green bay-tree. The presentation of Zack's experience is direct and unmitigated by flowers of fancy or speech. It is a very good example of the grimmest sort of realism. There is no reason why one who sees and feels life in such a depressing way should not write about it; and with a conviction that happiness is non-existent, there is naturally no scruple about adding a trifle to the sum of misery. Life is life, and to live long, according to authority preceding Zack, is a thing to be desired, even striven for. But if her view should ever become popular, then indeed death would lose its sting and the grave its victory.

Now that reading-plays are struggling into fashion, it is a pity that Mr. Howells did not include the play itself in his 'Story of a Play.' It might not have been a good acting-play, but surely a good reading-play, and the story is not a good reading-story. There is not enough story to last, and one wearies of the weary playwright, of his frequent and similar disappointments, of the vain, vacillating, fundamentally honest actor; wearies most of all of the playwright's meddling, stupid, jealous wife. The book is almost entirely perfunctory, and the best one can say of it is that all writers of great plays will find therein many powerful arguments against any attempt to have their masterpieces produced.

Mr. Janvier's 'In the Sargasso Sea' has the same defect. The hero flounders about in the weeds and mists of the mysterious sea far too long. It is exciting to read once about a man losing himself in circular wanderings over the serried wrecks of centuries, to know that he is horribly hungry and thirsty, and to expect that at any moment he may come upon men long dead, or treasure the splendor of which shall mock at misery in the Sargasso Sea. But a repetition of these circumstances does not agitate; it only bores—and Mr. Janvier repeats. His subject has a poetical aspect which he has not made the most of; a thing to be regretted, yet not excused, since space and time were so abundantly his. His manner of narration has at times a sedateness, a suggestion of quaintness and of by-gone fashion, for which the one descriptive word is Stevensonian. Mr. Stevenson invented it for the use of his eighteenth-century heroes, and it gave just the right sense of distance. Why Mr. Janvier should attach it to a modern, mechanical youth, just out of the Stevens Institute, is a mystery quite as intriguing as the traditional mystery of the Sargasso Sea.

To those who know neither Malory nor Morris, 'The Forest Lovers' may be full of enchantment. The author is undoubtedly very familiar with both and with much of the old romance literature besides—so familiar

that his performance is more an exhibition of memory and industry than of native gift for the writing of romance. Prosper le Gai is touched with an ironical humor, entirely modern, which suggests that Mr. Hewlett might show rarer qualities if he should draw his material from life instead of from books.

An American Cruiser in the East. By Chief Engineer John D. Ford, United States Navy, Fleet Engineer of the Pacific Station. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1898.

This compact volume proves to be an excellent book of travels in the countries of the extreme Orient—certainly, so far as the seacoast, treaty ports, and neighboring country are concerned. The area covered is extensive, including within the limits of the three years' cruise parts of British Columbia, the Aleutian Islands, Bering Sea, Eastern Siberia, Japan, Korea, China, Formosa, Hong Kong, Macao, and the Philippines. The routes followed are not, as a rule, unbeaten tracks, but there is a freshness in the relation and a closeness of study and observation which make the narrative interesting, and superior to the superficial tales of the ordinary globe-trotter or man-of-war cruiser. What we have, nevertheless, is mainly a book of travels, and not an exhaustive study of the still novel nations of the East.

Leaving the navy-yard, at Mare Island, not far from San Francisco, Cal., in the *Alert*, a small cruiser of about a thousand tons' displacement, the first port visited on the way to Bering Sea was the pleasant little city of Victoria, the capital of British Columbia. Some time in the future, when the Pacific Coast of the United States produces a wealthy leisure class content with their own shores and surroundings, Vancouver Island in British Columbia and the San Juan Islands in our own territory, with their adjacent waters, are destined to be the resort of intelligent pleasure-seekers and lovers of nature. The archipelago is especially attractive to the eye, and in many of its characteristics resembles the islands fringing the coast of Maine, now so much frequented in the summer season. Taken in connection with the inland passages of the western coast of British America and southeastern Alaska and the sounds and glaciers beyond Sitka and Juneau, we know of no better cruising-ground for a comfortable steam-yacht of good power and accommodation in the summer. Although Victoria is somewhat touched just now with the Klondike excitement, it still presents an agreeable contrast, with its air of repose and refreshing quiet, to the crude and hustling American towns on Puget Sound.

The *Alert* was bound for the Aleutian Islands and Bering Sea, on cruising duty for the protection of the seal fisheries, and so in due time reached Unalaska Island and the harbor of Iliuliuk. A good description is given of this our northernmost coaling station and its resources for hunting and amusement. It is now the station for the rival commercial companies of Alaska, as well as the principal seat of the valuable but fast dying out sea-otter trade on this continent. In days gone by, there were few places in the world where a more varied collection of valuable furs could be found than in the storehouse of the Alaska Commercial Company at this place, under the charge of the "Prince Paul" of the narrative. Less Russian than it was before the days of the Klondike and the rival company, it is still, we believe, one of the few places within our territory where the celebration of the name-day of the Czar of Russia outranks that of the Fourth of July.

After a description of the Pribyloff Islands and their seals and seal rookeries, the author continues the narrative of his cruise by telling of Kamtchatka and its principal coast settlement at Petropavlovsk. Here he certainly was beyond the beaten tracks, and he gives in a few pages an interesting account of the place and its history. Over two hundred years old, it has a well-deserved reputation as the rendezvous and starting-point of Bering, the famous navigator, and also from its spirited and successful defence against an allied French and English naval attack in what is generally termed the Crimean war. Leaving the Siberian coast, the *Alert*, after experiencing the end of a typhoon which proved her seaworthiness and staunchness of build, arrived at Yokohama, and this introduces us to the sights and curiosities of a country which has not inaptly been termed the child of the old age of the nineteenth century. That this cruise was made some years since is evident to a recent traveller by the pleasant reference to the jinrikisha men of Yokohama. They have, since the author's visit, lost much of their cheery ways and willing manner towards foreigners, and are no longer distinguished by an honest reluctance to overcharge. The descriptions of Japanese life are good, and the accompanying photographic illustrations, though small, are exceptional in number and quality. Unfortunately, in this part of the book, as well as elsewhere, many proper names are misspelled and a few other mistakes crop out. For instance, the railway from Kumamoto in Kyushu does not reach Mogi, near Nagasaki, but Moji, many miles away on the Strait of Shimonoseki. The feast of lanterns at Nagasaki also occurs at an earlier date than October.

The visit to the Korean coast proved to be of interest, and the manners and customs of the people of that strange and lately opened country are described with a fair degree of accuracy; but Mrs. Bird Bishop has lately treated the same subject so fully and so well that one is tempted to pass over Mr. Ford's chapter hurriedly. In China the author had favorable opportunities for seeing some portions of the country in an agreeable way, though apparently he was not able to enjoy the beauties of the river scenery of the Min or the unique and interesting water life of the Yang-tze-kiang and the Grand Canal of China. A visit to the shop of the number one lacquer man of Foo-Chow would probably have caused him to make exceptions in his general statement of the inferiority of Chinese to Japanese lacquer ware. In speaking of Hong-Kong, an account is given of the monument erected by the officers and crews of the U. S. S. *Powhatan* and H. B. M. S. *Rattler* in memory of their shipmates, nine in number, who fell in the combined attack made upon piratical junks off Kuhlan in 1855. Mr. Ford mentions the fact, and reminds us that the monument commemorates one of the very few times in which British and Americans shared the dangers and glory of a conflict against a common enemy. "From that day to this," he goes on to say, "no military procession has ever passed the spot without halting, while the band plays 'Star-Spangled Banner,' 'God Save the Queen,' and a solemn dirge in memory of the brave fellows who sleep there."

The last two chapters are devoted to the timely subjects of Manila and the Philippines. A brief account of the Chino-Japanese war will be found in the appendix.

Logic, Deductive and Inductive. By Carveth Read. London: Grant Richards. 1898. 8vo, pp. 323.

It was so many years since we had had the pleasure of reviewing a logical work by Mr. Carveth Read that we hoped, in opening this volume, to find that the long silence had ripened a rich fruit; and in point of fact experience has made of the author a wary defender of his doctrine. It is refreshing to meet with a logician of to-day who does not think he does a fine thing in putting logic upon a philosophical basis. The special sciences only occasionally have any need of considering the theory of reasoning, but philosophy can be successfully erected on no other foundation. Now if philosophy be founded upon logic, and logic in its turn upon philosophy, neither has any foundation at all. Besides, putting logic upon a philosophical basis always involves confusing the logical question of whether certain premises can be true, and can have presented themselves as they have done without the invariable (or almost invariable) truth of a certain conclusion, with the psychological question of whether the passage from premises to conclusion is gratifying to the logical sense. Mr. Read does not fall into this common confusion. The questions he discusses are genuine logical questions and are considered in their proper logical aspect.

The first sentence of his book reads, "Logic is the science that explains what conditions must be fulfilled in order that a proposition may be proved, if it admits of proof." This is a little narrow. There is no reason why the logician should be restricted to looking back from a foregone conclusion to possible premises, and never be permitted to look forward from premises in his possession to their necessary result. Besides, all logicians, including Mr. Read himself, make their science embrace the doctrines of definition and division, which cannot by any means be included under his definition. But Mr. Read at once proceeds to narrow this definition still further by excluding from the consideration of the logician all mathematical reasonings. He seems to think that these are co-extensive with reasonings about quantity; as to which any modern mathematician could have set him right. Mathematical reasonings differ from other deductive reasonings only in their greater intricacy. The reason Mr. Read gives for this exclusion is that mathematics takes care of its own reasonings. It is very true that in mathematical reasoning there is no occasion to appeal to the theory of reasoning; but that is no evidence that the student of the theory of reasoning will not find any advantage in studying mathematical reasonings. Both good sense and experience show that if, of two closely connected branches of science, the one has no need of appealing to the other, then the latter will be very apt to gain greatly by basing its principles largely upon the former. The intricacy of mathematical reasonings acts as a sort of microscope in bringing into plain view features of all deductive reasoning which without such aid could not be discerned. But the truth is,

that Mr. Read is not altogether free from that common vice of the ordinary text-book-writer of regarding as the most important aspect of his subject the fact that he has to teach it. When a man knows so little of mathematics as to lay down as one of the propositions that are past all denial that "all spaces are commensurable" (p. 142), although Euclid proves that the diagonal of a square is incommensurable with its side, it is plainly not convenient for him to say much about mathematical reasonings.

In induction Mr. Read stands upon the unmodified position of Mill. It is interesting to see how an experienced logician will defend this doctrine in 1898. The task before him is simply to answer two plain objections. Whewell's 'History of the Inductive Sciences' appeared in 1837. Its purpose was to show that success in inductive researches depends upon the student's coming to his subject provided in advance with appropriate ideas—a view to which the history of science since 1837 (particularly Darwinian ideas and those of physiological psychology) has brought much additional support. But John Mill saw in this doctrine an attack upon the associationalism in which his mind lived and moved and had its being. In truth, it was in conflict, not with the original associationalism of Gay, but with the *tabula-rasa* doctrine which, to a disciple of James Mill, seemed the lynch-pin of associationalism. And Whewell's pure metal was pretty thickly overlaid with slag, too. Whewell's doctrine was that appropriate ideas rendered inductive researches *successful*, not that they made induction a *valid* logical operation. But Mill did not very sharply distinguish between these two things. He wrote his 'System of Logic,' which appeared in 1842, largely to refute Whewell's philosophy by showing that it is not the appropriateness of our preconceived ideas, but the uniformity of nature *per se*, which gives induction its strength. It is necessary to bear in mind these circumstances in order to understand the true meaning of Mill's "uniformity of nature."

The first objection that Mr. Read ought to have noticed was that when Mill pronounced nature to be uniform, he meant in the general run of its characters; looking upon "characters" as all logicians since the Port-Royalists had looked upon them, as if they were so many self-subsistent things, of which the logician was equally bound to take account whether they appear to us important or insignificant, manifest or recondite, related to our powers of sense and thought or not. For if he only meant that nature is uniform in regard to such characters as we should be apt to attend to, his doctrine would simply relapse into that of Whewell, that our ideas are naturally appropriate to making inductive discoveries. If, however, the almost absurd idea of giving all characters equal weight is adhered to, it is susceptible of mathematical demonstration that any one universe has necessarily the same degree of uniformity as any other, since any collection of objects whatever has some character common and peculiar to it.

The second objection which Mr. Read had to answer was, that studies in the theory of probabilities made subsequently to Mill's writing have shown that, in any case, no peculiarity of this universe can be the sole support of the validity of induction, since in any universe whatever in which inductions could be made, induction would in the long run lead toward the truth. Mr. Read, however, overlooks both of these points, and bases his defence of Mill's doctrine mainly upon the proposition that "The Uniformity of Nature cannot be defined" (p. 141). This is indeed extremely prudent, but it places the modern Millian in the unrationalistic attitude of upholding a sort of Athanasian creed which he devoutly believes without being at all able to explain what it is that he believes, since he has learned that the moment he attempts to do so he falls into one difficulty or into another. Mr. Read would defend what is often called "Mill's account of causation," although it does not differ essentially from that of Kant, by the aid of the conservation of energy. Now there are countless facts which it seems hopeless ever to explain without supposing that Kantian causation is at least one of the factors of the universe. But phenomena governed by conservative forces are precisely those which are so utterly refractory to every attempt to bring them under any such formula, that they constitute a most serious argument against it.

The Eastern Question in the Eighteenth Century. By Albert Sorel. Translated by F. C. Bramwell. With a preface by C. R. L. Fletcher. London: Methuen & Co. 1898.

Twenty years ago M. Albert Sorel published a short work on the first partition of Poland and the treaty of Kainardji, which Mr. F. C. Bramwell now translates into smooth and suitable English. The author's announcement that he has put later editions in line with present knowledge is necessary, because since 1878 the second part of the Duc de Broglie's 'Le Secret du Roi,' and other notable studies, have appeared. Fortunately, Mr. Bramwell cannot be charged with interpreting an essay which is partially out of date. The text he has used is equivalent to a fresh statement of facts.

M. Sorel, when he made this investigation, was probably preparing for his 'L'Europe et la Révolution Française.' It was indispensable that he should know the exact character of *ancien-régime* statecraft before tracing the negotiations of the National Convention, the Directory, and the Empire; and, if it is not scandalous to surmise that a scientific historian may still have patriotic leanings, there could be little danger in placing the diplomacy of Revolutionary and Imperial France beside that of Russia, Prussia, and Austria a few years earlier. Indeed, he avows that he thought it "not unprofitable to define clearly what were, on the eve of the French Revolution, the political usages of the three Courts which took so considerable a part in the so-called crusade in which the monarchies engaged against that revolution." The fallacy which he sought to expose was, of course, the belief that the French movement was responsible for superseding a state of international comity, or at least decency. "It has been much maintained abroad, and even in France, that the French Revolution and Napoleon I. upset the law of nations of the *ancien régime*, and substituted for a kind of golden age of diplomacy, where right ruled without a rival, an age of iron, in which might prevailed against all rights."

Mr. Fletcher, in the course of his brief introduction, states that a separatist newspaper in Vienna has recently exclaimed, "The cry of Poland will continue to go up till it blends with the last Hosanna"; but we shall devote the few lines at our disposal rather to M. Sorel's chapter on Kainardji. One of the main reasons which operated to secure the legislative union of England and Scotland was a growing enmity. If the countries had not been knit together, they would soon have been at war. Similarly the partition of Poland was a makeshift contrivance to prevent war by a concerted scheme of pillage. But in this case an alliance born of suspicion could not preclude treachery, and, just prior to Russia's first great diplomatic victory over the Porte, Prussia and Austria were full of intrigues for profiting by her dilemma; this, too, after the general terms of the Polish partition had been agreed upon. Frederick the Great feared that Catharine might involve Prussia in unpleasant complications by calling on her to join in attacking Gustavus III. of Sweden. He, therefore, did what he could to keep Turkish hostility alive, that the Czarina might be occupied to the south of the Danube. On the Austrian side, while Maria Theresa wept at the iniquity of despoiling the Poles, she was fain, or Kaunitz for her, to seize a larger share of the plunder than had been stipulated for. In the year of Kainardji the Viennese Foreign Office was engaged in attempts to escape from a compact signed with the Turks hardly more than two years previously, to extort the line of the Sbrucz from Russian necessity, and to appropriate Bukowina from the spoils of Turkey. Catharine's dilemma, which gave Prussia and Austria a temporary diplomatic advantage, was the revolt of the Don Cossacks under Pugatchef, and several defeats of Rumanzoff's army by the Turks. During the autumn of 1773 she was almost on the defensive. Mustapha's death in January, 1774, and the violently impotent policy of his successor, Abdul Hamid, restored her prestige. A month's campaign at the beginning of summer disclosed the depth of Turkish incompetence, and resulted in that treaty which recognized a Russian protectorate over the Christian subjects of the Sultan.

M. Sorel trains a fire of sarcasm on "the basis of the obligations from which Russian publicists have deduced Russia's *judicial right* to carry out her *civilizing mission* in the East, and *to interfere in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire.*" What actually happened at Kainardji was that Russia's diplomatists managed to introduce a number of advantageously loose clauses into the treaty, which might be and have been easily transferred from the province of religious rights to that of political guarantees. She also became protectress of the Danubian principalities, the champion of Tartar independence, and the prospective mistress of the Black Sea by her hold on Azof, Kinburn, Kertch, and Yeni-Kalé. Compared with her permanent gains, Austria's pickings and stealings at the time seem almost ridiculous.

M. Sorel founds his diplomatic studies on state documents and the correspondence of ambassadors. Whoever is affected by the fate of Poland, or cares to follow the undoubted sequence of Russia's Eastern policy, should possess himself of this monograph, either in its French form or in Mr. Bramwell's translation.

The Isles and Shrines of Greece. By Samuel J. Barrows. Illustrated. Boston: Roberts Brothers, 1898.

Though not a professional archæologist, the

author of this work approached his task with much of the archæologist's equipment, having brought to it a keen and appreciative love of Greek literature, as well as an enthusiastic reverence for Greece and the scenes once hallowed by the presence of godlike men and gods now lost to the average vision. In other words, the book is the work of a dilettante whose enthusiasm is enlightened, while his knowledge of archæology is far in advance of that of the ordinary layman.

The title is accurate, when rightly understood, for it can be made to embrace pretty much everything of interest to the visitor to Greece, whether he tread the ground "for the sake of ages," or merely to while away a season in a remote corner of the world. Mr. Barrows begins his story at Corfu, passing thence by Cephalonia, Zante, Ithaca, and Patras to Athens. The rest of the book may be regarded as reflecting Dörpfeld's views and theories in regard to architectural, topographical, and anascaphical matters. It cannot tell the archæologist much or anything, but to the tourist of ordinary knowledge, intelligence, and inquisitiveness it will impart, in a bright, sketchy fashion, all he needs to know concerning the results of archæological research in Greece during recent decades.

In other matters the traveller will find the book an excellent guide, for Mr. Barrows has an eye open to the things of to-day in Greece; he is interested to see "the work of building the new nation on the ruins of the old." This note, indeed, recurs throughout the volume. Mr. Barrows is a member of Congress (from Massachusetts), though he gives no hint of that fact in these charming pages.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. M. The Book of the Master. London: Murray; New York: Putnams. $1.25.
Alden, Mrs. G. R. As in a Mirror. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Ashmore, Ruth. The Business Girl. Doubleday & McClure Co. 50c.
Book-Prices Current. 1898. London: Elliot Stock.
Brooks, E. S. The True Story of Benjamin Franklin. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Brush, G. J. Manual of Determinative Mineralogy, and Blowpipe Analysis. 15th ed. John Wiley & Sons. $4.
Buy, Jean du. The Teaching of Jesus. Boston: James H. West. 50c.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. American Prose. Selections. Macmillan. $1.
Carpenter, F. G. North America. [Geographical Reader.] American Book Co.
Conant, Chara B. Naomi. American Tract Society. $1.
Cowper, Frank. The Island of the English. A Story of Napoleon's Days. Macmillan. $1.50.
Dana, Prof. E. S. A Text-Book of Mineralogy. New ed., rewritten and enlarged. John Wiley & Son. $4.
Dow, J. G. Selections from Burns. [Athenæum Press Series.] Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.20.
Dowd, F. B. The Double Man. An Oculist's Life Story. Denver: Temple Publishing Co. 50c.
Ellis, E. S. Cowmen and Rustlers. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Etiquette for Americans. By a Woman of Fashion. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Great Books. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Frederic, Harold. The Deserter, and Other Stories. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.
Garbell, Adolph. Leitfaden für den Unterricht in der Russischen Sprache. Two Parts. Berlin. Langenscheidtsche Verlags-Buchhandlung.
Goss, W. L. In the Navy; or, Father against Son. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Greer, Rev. D. H. Visions: Sermons. Whittaker. $1.50.
Higginson, Ella. When the Birds Go North Again. Poems. Macmillan.
Johnson, W. M. Inside of One Hundred Homes. Doubleday & McClure Co. 50c.
King, Grace. De Soto and his Men in the Land of Florida. Macmillan. $1.50.
Kipling, Rudyard. Departmental Ditties. San Francisco: William Doxey. 50c.
Levere, W. C. Imperial America. Chicago: Forbes & Co. 25c.
Magruder, Julia. Labor of Love: A Story for Boys. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. 50c.
Ollivant, Alfred. Bob, Son of Battle. Doubleday & McClure Co.
Pattison, Prof. T. A. The Making of the Sermon. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
Price, W. L. Model Houses for Little Money. Doubleday & McClure Co. 50c.
Ragozin, Zenaïde A. Siegfried the Hero of the North, and Beowulf the Hero of the Anglo-Saxons. Putnams. $1.50.
Richter, Alfred. Das Klavierspiel. Für Musikstudirende. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Ringwalt, R. C. Modern American Oratory. Seven Representative Orations. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Romero, Matias. Mexico and the United States. Vol. I. Putnams. $4.50.
Rose, G. B. Renaissance Masters. Putnams. $1.
Scott, Sir W. The Abbot. 2 vols. [Temple Edition.] London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $1.60.
Sidney, Margaret. A Little Maid of Concord Town. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Simmons, H. B. The Jingle Jangle Rhyme-Book. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Simonds, Prof. W. E. De Quincey's Revolt of the Tartars. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35c.
Smeaton, Oliphant. William Dunbar. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Smith, G. G. The Spectator. Vols. 6, 7 and 8. Scribners. Each $1.50.
Statham, H. H. Architecture among the Poets. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Sterry, Wasey. Annals of Eton College. London: Methuen & Co.
Thanet, Octave. A Slave to Duty, and Other Women. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Thompson, A. H. Cambridge and its Colleges. London: Methuen & Co.
Walter, Friedrich. Geschichte des Theaters und der Musik am Kurpfälzischen Hofe. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Watson, Prof. John. An Outline of Philosophy. 2d ed. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Woodruff, Prof. E. H. Introduction to the Study of Law. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $1.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 27, 1898.

The Week.

Our flag went up in San Juan on Tuesday week by right of conquest. That is agreed on all hands. Some enthusiasts have been heard to exclaim, "Oh that Blaine had lived to see this glorious day!" If he had, he would have blushed for his country, for he came out openly against the right of conquest. Owing to his personal exertions, the Pan-American Congress was induced to adopt resolutions declaring that "the principle of conquest shall not . . . be recognized as admissible under American public law." The Congress went further, and resolved that "all cessions of territory . . . made under threats of war or the presence of an armed force . . . shall be void." Who would suppose that we were living in a millennial epoch like that only eight years ago? The poet Whittier shed tears of joy over the adoption by Mr. Blaine of Quaker principles to put an end to war, and there was one of the greatest furlings of battle-flags ever seen. But we have changed all that.

Admiral Sampson's full report sufficiently explains why Admiral Schley has never countenanced the foolish attempt to make him out the true naval hero of Santiago. The official dispatches now make it clear that he blundered badly in staying at Cienfuegos for days after he should have been at Santiago. He was so sure he had Cervera trapped in Cienfuegos harbor that he came perilously near disobeying orders. All the information the department had that the Spanish squadron had gone to Santiago, Schley put aside as a "ruse" of the enemy; and on May 23, when he should have been well on his way to Santiago, he wrote from Cienfuegos, "I think I have them here almost to a certainty." In fact, if Cervera had not blundered as badly as Schley, he would not have been caught in Santiago at all. Sampson had ordered Schley (always, of course, leaving him a certain margin of discretion) to be off Santiago by the morning of May 24. Now from the diary of the British Consul at Santiago, the late F. W. Ramsden, we learn that the Spanish fleet got up steam and ordered pilots on the evening of May 23; on May 24 was "ready for sea"; and on May 25 went down the bay, though, for reasons never made clear, it did not put out. Schley did not arrive till May 27, three days late. His blunder gave Cervera a chance to escape. That he did not avail himself of it does not lessen the blunder.

A "high official" in the State Department says the Government is going to need the services, in its new possessions, of a great many trained men, able to speak Spanish, and knowing something of affairs. He says the schools and colleges should bestir themselves to educate this class of public servants and call their attention to the opportunities open to them. We have no wish to throw the slightest doubt on the sincerity of this high official. If he is the highest official of all in the department, he has had abundant opportunities in the past two years to learn that a colonial service must be trained and competent or go to wreck. But it is not to the schools and colleges that the high official should address his appeals. They will do their work without urging. Men of the kind desired can be had in plenty. But can they be appointed? It is to William McKinley, LL.D., that the high official should go. Fresh from his academic honors, with the doctor's purple hood still halo-like upon him, he will be eager to make room in the public service for scholars. But will he? What test has he applied to consuls? Did he require Saylor, named for Matanzas, to be able to speak Spanish? Or was it enough that he should simply be one of Quay's obedient thieves? The President may suddenly become enamoured of scholarship and competency; but if he does, it will be something like a conversion. At any rate, as we said, he is the man for the high official to apply to. Reform promised by high officials is good, but we shall believe in it when we see it put in force by the highest official.

The feeling of the people regarding service by their fathers, sons, and brothers in an army garrisoning colonial possessions was well illustrated by the action of a public meeting at Utica last week. Company E of the First New York Regiment is made up of men from that city. The regiment is now stationed at Honolulu. The meeting on Monday evening was composed of the parents and relatives of these men. Resolutions were adopted, with but a single dissenting voice, declaring that "the spirit of the enlistment was that they were to serve for two years, or during the war"; that "the war is ended, and the purpose for which the men enlisted is answered"; that "the Government be and it is hereby respectfully requested to discharge said regiment from the service, to the end that the men who do not desire to remain in the service may return to their former vocations"; requesting the Congressman from the district to present the resolutions to the War Department and to urge compliance with the request; and appointing a committee of three to urge the other cities and towns represented by companies in the regiment to take similar action. The adoption of the resolutions was preceded by a discussion which showed that the grossest abuses have existed in the treatment of these troops at the Hawaiian capital.

There are signs that "Labor" is beginning to realize its interest in the question of a national expansion which would bring within the limits of the United States millions of people of inferior Asiatic races, at a time when many are insisting that the country already suffers from too large an infusion of the inferior races of Europe, and when we have rigorous laws against the admission of the Chinese. The most striking of all the speeches delivered at the Chicago Peace Jubilee was one by Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, who indulged in no grandiloquent phrases about the "Destiny" of the nation, but pointed out in a straightforward way what the annexation of the Philippines would really involve for our people, and particularly for the workingmen. He declared that, if we take those islands, we shall be in the midst of the conflict which has already begun among the European nations for the partition and possession of the Eastern countries, and that this would mean that "we shall have to follow the monarchical policy of large standing armies with immense navies"; "we shall not only have to bear the heavy burdens of debt and taxation exceeding that of other nations, but we shall come to that point against which the genius of our institutions revolts—compulscry military duty." Mr. Gompers proceeded to show the difficulties which will be encountered in guarding against an incursion of "pauper labor."

Some interesting things were said at the dinner of the Massachusetts Club in Boston on Saturday. Gen. Woodford was one of the guests, and he spoke with more freedom regarding the relations of this country with Spain than ever before since his return from Madrid last spring. He said that his instructions when he was sent as Minister to Spain were threefold. "He was enjoined to secure justice to the suffering people of Cuba, to insist upon protection to the great American and commercial interests of the United States in the island of Cuba, and to seek these ends so long as it was possible by ways of peace, and, if possible, to avoid and avert war." In conformity with these instructions, he said directly to the Spanish Government that, in the judgment of the President, permament, assured peace could come in Cuba

only by the withdrawal of Spanish authority from that island; and he said as frankly and directly to the representative of every foreign Power, as they met him in diplomatic discussion, that the United States did not desire the annexation of Cuba, or the establishment of any protectorate over the island, but that the interests of the United States—humanitarian, commercial, and sanitary—required that there should be peace in Cuba upon conditions that should be permanent and, therefore, helpful. The first effort was to secure the withdrawal from Cuba of Gen. Weyler, then serving as Governor-General with the understanding that he should remain two years, or until the spring of 1898. Gen. Woodford reached Madrid September 1, 1897, was presented to the Queen Regent September 13, had his first official interview with the Minister of Foreign Affairs September 18, addressed his first official communication to the Government September 23, and "before the 4th day of October the Conservative ministry, that had given its pledge to Gen. Weyler, resigned, left power, and before the end of October Gen. Weyler had been withdrawn from the island of Cuba." Next came the proclamation of a system of autonomy for the island, and negotiations were progressing so favorably that Gen. Woodford declared it to be his "deliberate belief that, had the *Maine* not been blown up in the harbor of Havana, and had not that singular and undiplomatic letter of Señor de Lome been discovered, before the close of the summer of 1898 the Spanish flag would have left the island of Cuba without the firing of a shot or the loss of a life."

Gen. Woodford was quite as frank in expressing his views about the future of Cuba as about its past. Speaking from what he saw in Spain and from what he was able to learn regarding the population of Cuba, he declared that he did "not believe that it is possible for Cuba to establish a government that shall protect the insurgents against the Spaniards, or the Spaniards against the insurgents, or establish secure and stable government." He holds that we are bound to give the Cubans every opportunity to establish local home government, but he is convinced that all their attempts must fail, and consequently he is "constrained to the personal belief that it will be necessary to maintain the occupation, the American occupation, of the island of Cuba until such time as Americans, Englishmen, Germans, Frenchmen, people acquainted with the methods and the theory of self-government, shall have gone into that island in sufficient numbers to enable the fever to be stamped out on the one side and good order established on the other." As for the Philippines, Gen. Woodford falls in with those who believe that "Destiny" has unloaded them on our hands, but he is honest enough to acknowledge that "we are not, as a people, trained to the very generous and considerate and thoughtful treatment of inferior races," and that "we have not made such a tremendous success in the negro problem at the South as to make us hurry to assume the responsibility of governing inferior races, whether they are in the Caribbean Sea or in the far-off Philippine Islands." He also admitted that the traditional and inherited tendency of both our political parties to regard public places as the reward for partisan service is a grave obstacle, because "you will never administer Porto Rico, you will never administer Cuba, you will never administer Hawaii, you will never administer the Philippine Islands upon the theory that because a man has successfully run a primary in Boston or a caucus in New York, therefore he is qualified to govern, to rule, to administer, to represent the United States in the distant colonies." But as to how we are to overcome such an obstacle as this, how we are to become more considerate of inferior races in the East and West Indies than we are to-day of such races in the South and West, Gen. Woodford had nothing more hopeful to say in conclusion than the grandiloquent declaration that "I do believe that the clock of the world will not move backward, and that, wherever our flag has gone, there the liberty, the civilization, and the humanity which that flag represents and embodies must remain, and, God helping us, remain for ever."

The most striking feature of the very impressive meeting of the New York bar in Carnegie Hall last Friday was the speech of Bourke Cockran, with its graphic picture of what bossism is and what it means in a democracy. Probably no man in the city is able to speak with more authority on this subject than Mr. Cockran, for he has had exceptional opportunities for obtaining intimate knowledge of the system which he describes. Yet he speaks only what every intelligent citizen knows to be the truth when he says that a "nominal government is installed at the city hall, but the real government is exercised at the Democratic Club," that all the ten thousand men who are nominally in the employ of the city government hold their office through the favor or forbearance of the boss, "whose decrees, though unregistered, are more powerful than the law, yet whose existence is not recognized by the law, whose nod can make a fortune or unmake a career." All this is a notorious fact, and scarcely less notorious a fact is the following description by Mr. Cockran of the power of the boss in other directions:

> "Every financial interest in this great city courts his favor and dreads his hostility. If to-day he was to declare that he needed $1,000,000 for political purposes, before next Friday $2,000,000 would be furnished. What office-holder, lifted into public employment by his favor, would hesitate to prove his gratitude by contributing to his treasury or to show the fervor of his hopes of retention? There are 300,000 who want to get into office, who would eagerly vie with each other to attract his attention by liberal contributions. What contractor would refuse to divide a portion of his profits, with the hope of obtaining larger and further awards? What corporation, exercising a franchise in this city, would hesitate to cultivate the favor of him from whom an interview might send its stock soaring above the mystic line known as par, or descending into the gloomy level which evokes the spectres of bankruptcy and liquidation? If he desire social success, his nominations are bestowed to lift his favorites to positions of honor and of prominence. If anybody refused to give him the position to which he thought he was entitled, that person might find an engine-house erected in his back yard."

It is merely the extension of this power to the bench, that final refuge of democratic government, as the speakers pointed out with so much earnestness, which the boss is now proposing to effect. Will he be able to accomplish it? Are the people of the city aroused against it in such irresistible force as to make its defeat certain? Will they say to Croker on November 8, as Mr. Cockran predicts they will: "Our municipal chamber is yours to dominate and control; our streets are yours to pave, to sweep, to light, to confer upon your favorites for special privileges, but the judiciary you shall not touch. You may take these, but you shall go no further"? If they are going to say this, they are wonderfully quiet now. Has long tolerance of bossism so dulled their perceptive faculties as well as their moral sense and their patriotism, that they are unable to exert themselves even when the final assault is made upon their free government? Here is a "parochial issue" which is certainly of sufficient moment to command all our attention, even in the immediate presence of Manifest Destiny in its most entrancing form.

Croker is by all odds the most effective campaigner for Col. Roosevelt that there is in the field. He is calling public attention to himself and to his system of government in a way which leaves no doubt in anybody's mind as to what he represents in politics. He is thus bringing it home to the minds of the people what bossism really is. When he admits, as he did in his first deliverance upon the subject, that he would not allow Justice Daly to be renominated because he (Daly) had not given "proper consideration" to Croker's demands, since Tammany "has a right to expect proper consideration" from a judge whom it has put upon the bench, he gives everybody to understand that what he expects of his nominees for the bench he expects also of his nominees for other positions, including the governorship. A declaration like that is well calculated to give pause to people who were thinking of voting for Van Wyck for Gov-

ernor. Croker himself appears to have discovered that as a politic manœuvre this declaration had defects, for he tried on Monday to modify it somewhat to break the force of it, by personal abuse of Justice Daly and of the lawyers who are advocating his reëlection. Elihu Root is a bad man, who was bribed by that other bad man, Tweed; the Bar Association is composed of a "lot of corporation and Trust lawyers"; Bourke Cockran is a man who "left the Democratic party for that party's good," and if anybody wants particulars, let him apply to Croker personally for them. As for Justice Daly, he was not nominated because Tammany did not think he had sufficient ability for the position. "Never in the history of the organization," says Croker now, "has any leader of Tammany Hall asked of or suggested to any judge upon the bench in any part of this State anything connected with his judicial duty." This is quite different from the statement of October 15: "Justice Daly was elected by Tammany Hall, after he was discovered by Tammany Hall, and Tammany Hall had a right to expect proper consideration at his hands." Can it be that Croker is losing his "nerve"?

It is unfortunate for Col. Roosevelt that while he is promising to reform canal matters and turn all rascals out, the Republican candidate for Lieutenant-Governor should be declaring at every opportunity that there have been no canal rascalities, and that another State official, who is also on the stump for Roosevelt, Mr. Ainsworth, Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction, should, as he did in Cooper Institute on Monday evening, enter into an elaborate defence of the canal work, and endeavor to show that there had been nothing either corrupt or extravagant or reprehensible in it. Senator Lodge contributed a valuable bit of information in the same direction when he informed us that we should not know much about the subject until Gov. Black's commission had made its full report! Before he gives us some more advice as to how we should vote, somebody should inform Mr. Lodge that the report was very "full," and was referred to the Attorney-General of the State by the Governor with request that he report as to whether criminal prosecution of anybody was necessary, that the Attorney-General dodged this painful duty, and it is now in process of performance or evasion by a private attorney whose report will not be presented till after election.

It is many years since the supporters and the opponents of the Interstate Commerce act began to align themselves for combat in reference to the policy and constitutionality of that law. It was not until Monday that a definite decision was reached in the court of last resort as to the meaning and binding force of the act. It may be said in brief that the principle sought to be enforced by Congress, that railroads should not be allowed to form pooling arrangements or to combine in other ways to prevent rates of transportation from falling below a certain figure, has been fully sustained, and that there is now nothing to be done except to cancel their agreements, so far as they exist on paper and involve fines and penalties, and either to depend upon moral suasion to accomplish the same end, or leave the law of competition to work itself out. One other course is possible. The railroads may go to Congress and ask that the anti-pooling clause of the law be repealed; but it is not likely that they would get a favorable hearing at present. It is idle to argue a case after it has been decided by the highest court before which it can come. The judges who have passed upon it, counting those in the lower courts as well as in the higher, have divided about equally, and the weight of authority is about the same on both sides, but the law is no longer open to dispute. All must obey it as it has been announced in Justice Peckham's opinion. What its effects may be in practice can be learned only by experience. If the railroads have learned the lesson which the Joint Traffic Association was formed to teach them, so that they can live up to the principles of the agreement after it has been cancelled, no harm will come to them from the decision. The Trans-Missouri Association was dissolved immediately after the decision was rendered in that case, but the railroads belonging to it have been able to live nevertheless.

Judge Lawrence of Ohio is, perhaps, the only person in the United States who considers the woollen industry of New England in a prosperous state. This appears to be his opinion from a letter written by him to the Charleston *News and Courier*, in which he advocates a tariff on raw cotton and a higher tariff on wool. We predicted, when the present duties on wool were enacted, that Lawrence would not be satisfied with them, but would soon be asking for more. We did not anticipate that he would try to form an alliance with the Southern Democrats for this purpose, but such seems to be his hope and expectation. He has an idea that it is the bounden duty of Congress to make wool-growing profitable in Ohio, and that this can be done by excluding foreign wools from the United States. The rights of the consumers of wool and of woollen goods are not mentioned in any writings of his that we have ever seen. It is not likely, however, that the Republicans in Congress will reopen the wool schedule, since that would be the signal for reopening the whole tariff question.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach was supposed to be about the most peace-loving man in the Salisbury cabinet, but here he comes for the second time playing the rôle of *mouton enragé*. Last December he was put up to say that England would sooner go to war than see the open door in China shut in her face; and last week he was chosen to sound the tocsin against France. We say chosen, because he must have spoken as he did with the knowledge and approval of Lord Salisbury. The Premier seems to have thought it necessary to take notice in this way of all the military and naval bustle going on in France, and to give it roughly to be understood that the French must abandon all their pretensions on the Nile. But the thing was done with unnecessary violence. Sir Michael's closing words, in fact, read very like the final paragraph of Mr. Cleveland's Venezuela message. It would be a great calamity to break off peaceful relations, but there are some things worse than war, etc. This is the "new diplomacy" with a vengeance. It is the over-emphasis of a plodding Chancellor of the Exchequer suddenly called upon to talk like a warrior.

The French dispatches bring negotiations some days later than those given in the English Blue Book of October 9. As the situation now stands, France is willing, if not too roughly pressed, to withdraw from Fashoda. But she will resent an ultimatum on that or any other aspect of the affair. What she asks for is a friendly delimitation of spheres of influence in such a way as to give her a trade outlet to the Nile from her Congo possessions. This Lord Salisbury has neither refused nor granted; he said he would have to consult his colleagues. Their answer will probably be given this week. It is hard to see how it can be other than amicable, unless France means by "trade outlet" occupation of the river and province of Bahr-el-Ghazal. This, it is certain, will never be assented to by the English Government. French traders may very well be allowed the right of transit through the Bahr-el-Ghazal, but possession of even a part of this old Sudanese province of the Khedive France cannot and probably does not expect.

Emperor William falls on the neck of the ruler whom Mr. Gladstone called the "Great Assassin," as if he had found a long-lost brother. In fact, the inspired Berlin papers praise the Sultan effusively, even speaking of him as a "great reformer, who in many respects resembles the Kaiser." This is going pretty far in the way of trade, and, we should think, would make even the German bankers and manufacturers look pretty hard at the piastres they may get out of Turkish concessions. If any money ever smelt of blood, that would.

A CURIOUS CAMPAIGN.

The campaign for the election of the Fifty-sixth Congress, which will end a week from next Tuesday, is one of the most curious in our political history. The contest for control of the legislative branch which comes midway in the term of a President is apt to be a sharp one, upon issues which have been clearly defined by the action of the new Administration during its first year and a half. Such was notably the case in the election at the middle of President Harrison's term, when the nation rendered its verdict upon the passage of the McKinley law and the attempted passage of the Force bill. That these would be the issues of the campaign in the autumn of 1890 was perfectly clear to everybody by midsummer, and there was no change in this respect between the questions which confronted the voter in July and those of November. But this year nobody could tell in July what would be the questions up for decision in November. In midsummer we were at war with Spain. At that time the managing politicians of the Republican party hoped that the war would drag on long enough so that the Quays and Platts could insist upon support of their tickets by the people in order to "stand by the Government" while it was in conflict with a foreign Power. Unfortunately for this scheme, Spain got tired of the war sooner than was desired in the interest of Republican politics, and the signing of the protocol for a treaty of peace deprived the bosses of their most effective weapon. The result was, that, for a while after the middle of August, the campaign seemed to be without any issues. The supporting-the-war dodge could not be used, and the question of the proper policy for the Government to pursue in the settlement of the final terms of peace was not as yet well defined, nor was there anything like a division along party lines on the still shadowy outlines of this policy.

Nothing was left but the old free-coinage issue, and hardly anybody could be persuaded to take any interest again in the tiresome "16 to 1" question. About the 1st of September the Iowa Republicans adopted a platform which would have afforded an inspiring issue if the party generally had taken it up, by declaring that they not only believed in the gold standard, but also held that "the permanence of this standard must be assured by congressional legislation giving to it the value and vitality of public law." But, save in Connecticut, there was no response to this appeal—not even in the Republican platform adopted by Platt's convention in the State which is the strongest believer in sound finance of all in the Union; and so the attempt to raise a worthy issue on the national finances failed.

As the weeks passed, a new issue growing out of the war, which nobody had expected, gradually shaped itself. It became clear that there had been terrible suffering, a vast amount of disease, and a great number of deaths and of life-long wrecks of men who survived illness among the soldiers, not only in Cuba, but also in the camps to which the troops returned from Cuba, as well as in the camps of volunteers who never left the United States; and that a large proportion of this suffering, disease, and death had been due to the mismanagement of the War Department under Secretary Alger—a man whose record, both in the civil war and in the thirty years that followed, had been so bad that his appointment to the place by President McKinley, even in time of peace, was a disgrace. Popular indignation rose against Algerism, and there was a strong demand for the removal of a Secretary who was clearly incapable of administering the department effectively under conditions which would require the maintenance for an indefinite period of an army of at least 100,000 men, a large proportion of whom must serve in tropical countries and many thousands of them on the other side of the globe.

During the past month, and particularly during the last fortnight, another and larger issue growing out of the war has come to take pretty definite shape, and has supplanted Algerism. Porto Rico is already a part of the United States, but the question of what shall be done with the Philippines is not yet settled. The Administration itself has not formally and officially declared its position, but the series of speeches which President McKinley and members of his cabinet have delivered on their Western trip virtually commit the Executive to the policy of demanding control of the whole archipelago, while there has been a steady tendency on the part of Republicans, particularly in the West, to make this policy an article of party faith—Senator Mason of Illinois having recently been constrained to change from an opponent to an advocate of expansion. A well-informed correspondent of the Chicago *Record*, who accompanied the Presidential party on their trip, thus sums up the drift of things:

> "You will notice that the Administration as represented upon the train is strongly imbued with imperialism. The President has come mighty near saying something several times, and the cabinet members in their speeches have not attempted to conceal their views on the subject of expansion. The attitude of the Administration in this, the most important issue before the American people, need be considered a mystery no longer. After the Peace Commissioners return from Paris, the horizon will be moved westward several thousand miles."

It has thus turned out that a campaign which two months ago seemed devoid of national issues is ending with one of the greatest questions ever raised in our history at the front. There is nothing like a sharp division along party lines. Many Republicans in the East, particularly in New England, oppose expansion, and many others evade declaring themselves; while some Democrats believe in imperialism, and but few candidates of that party are making an earnest campaign against it. Nevertheless, the attitude of the Administration, and the readiness of the dominant forces among the Republicans to sustain its position, practically commit the party to such an extent that a sweeping Republican victory in the congressional elections will be interpreted, by President McKinley and everybody else, as an endorsement of the expansion policy to the fullest extent; while the success of the opposition will be regarded as indicating distrust of this policy by the people, and doubt as to the ratification by the Senate of any treaty which will make the Philippine Islands a part of the United States.

The suddenness with which the scene shifts in American politics has become proverbial. It is doubtful, however, whether in the history of the nation a great issue has been so suddenly and unexpectedly developed as this overshadowing question of the policy of our Government regarding "empire" in the Far East.

"DESTINY" AND "DUTY."

Mr. McKinley, in his great speech at Chicago, boldly affirmed that "the currents of destiny flow through the hearts of our people." This we believe to be a profound truth. The hearts of men are really the only place where they do flow. We mean "destiny" in Mr. McKinley's sense. It is the Canton mode of describing what the citizen has in mind to do. It is, in fact, another name for "his little game," whether it be forgery, or burglary, or the holding up of a train, or a speculation in wheat. It is all "destiny." It thus makes it very sweet to him to think that, no matter what he is after, it has been planned for him by Divine Providence.

As McKinley is well informed about Destiny, however, we make bold to ask him what is the destiny of the negro race in this country, and more particularly of the negroes held in St. Louis for seeking labor in Illinois? We have the less hesitation in asking this question because their destiny seems so strange. In fact, it seems as if Providence had begun in the case of these negroes to serve out a new kind of destiny. The destiny advertised by the recognized God of America heretofore has always promised that, when a man sought labor and labored, his destiny would be competence, honor, and respectability. The old fellows who framed the Constitution promised, without hesitation, that paid labor should always be the destiny of free negroes, if they would take it. But their destiny now in Illinois seems to be death if they seek it away from home. Which is the right destiny, to be shot or to get work? Let us also ask, very respectfully, what is Mr. McKinley's des-

tiny with regard to them? We know what his destiny is with regard to the Cubans and Tagals, for he himself has told us, but what has the Lord intended or planned for him with regard to the negroes of the South? Are they citizens, or are they not? If they are citizens, what is his destiny towards them? Should a man who is in secret communion with the Almighty allow American citizens to be driven out of an American State by armed force for seeking work? Not the franchise, mind you, or equality, or entrance to theatres, hotels, or churches, but simply work. Is this really their destiny? If it be, we fear the task of the home missionaries is hopeless. They will never get colored Americans to worship a God who serves out such poor destiny as that.

We must also warn this inspired man that thousands of people are asking today whether this is the kind of destiny the Spaniards gave the Cubans. Is this the kind of destiny from which our fleets and armies delivered them by "a war of humanity"? Have there been any cases in which Cubans were shot for seeking labor away from their homes? If there have, why have they not been mentioned? Did that villain Weyler do anything of the kind to the "reconcentrados"? If he did, we have been far too mild with him, and ought to have fought harder and stormed more batteries. But doubtless our President has arranged with the Almighty that American atrocities shall not count as heavily as Spanish atrocities. We feel sure of this because Mr. McKinley knows the Lord so well that he would be down on Tanner in an instant if it were certain that American savagery would be judged as severely in the courts of heaven as Spanish savagery. Depend upon it, he has got a "straight tip" about savagery.

The President indulged in more moral philosophy on his recent trip than any of his predecessors had ever done. He, in fact, said a great many interesting things which will repay examination by the students of morals. One is that "Duty determines Destiny." This sounds well, but who determines Duty? Who, for instance, determined the appointment of Saylor as Consul to Matanzas just before the war? Saylor, a henchman of Quay, was convicted of a very gross attempt to swindle the State of Pennsylvania, and, on hearing of the prospect of his appointment, a delegation of the leading merchants of Philadelphia laid the facts of the case before the President. Saylor was appointed, nevertheless. It is plain enough that it was his "Destiny" to be appointed; but was it really "Duty" that determined the Destiny? If so, how came Duty to play Destiny such a dirty trick? It appears from this case as if Duty had escaped from the custody of Divine Providence, and is now being worked by the Adversary under the name of Matt Quay.

It would be interesting to know, also, whether it was really Duty which made Destiny go to war with Spain, after Spain had yielded everything we demanded. This was so extraordinary, so opposed to all rules, both of individual and international morality, that we cannot help thinking somebody besides Duty has got at Destiny and started her on a buccaneering expedition. How was that? In whose head is Duty kept? It is evident that Duty is not kept in careful custody, and that she frequently gets into very bad company. We advise such an austere philosopher as Mr. McKinley to keep a closer watch on her, or she will lead him into scrapes. There are already a good many things in his career which make him and his advisers seem a little queer as "stern daughters of the voice of God." Did Destiny, for example, really act under the direction of Duty when she made Alger Secretary of War? Was it really Duty which made Destiny give James G. Blaine, jr., a commission in the army, or was it somebody else of an entirely different family? There were during the war commissions given to many other young men, some without character, all without skill or experience, to lead men to their death—was it Duty which got Destiny into such an immoral mess as that, and really made her guilty of homicide? We can hardly believe it. Whoever it was that made these little things seem patriotic and moral and just to as stern a philosopher as Mr. McKinley is, has a great deal to answer for, and must have resorted to very gross arts of deception; for he is plainly a good man, who is all the time painfully groping for the light; and eager for the society of the wise and true.

Quay is said to have insisted on the philosopher's writing a letter to help him in his contest with Swallow in Pennsylvania, and a good many "bad Americans" say, cynically, that he will do it. Will he? And if he does, will it be Duty or somebody else who will "determine Destiny" in the matter? It seems to us hardly possible that Duty should bid Destiny oppose a man like Swallow on such an occasion. Can it be possible, let us ask, that Duty is an affair of locality, that she extends her jurisdiction only over certain places and not over others? Is it possible that she reigns in the Philippines, and not in the State of Illinois? Or that she arranges her obligations so that they will not bear on the Republican party, or any other? It seems as if it must be so, for how shall we otherwise account for the fact that Mr. McKinley lectured on moral philosophy during the past week in Chicago, in a State where the Governor is in armed revolt against the Constitution and laws of the United States, without mentioning him?

There is only one way of accounting for this strange circumstance, and that is that he has made an arrangement with both Duty and Destiny that neither of them shall interfere in any way with affairs in America, and both shall suspend the ordinary moral and constitutional obligations until after the election. The advantages of such an arrangement are obvious. It is clear to the most rampant expansionist that it is unreasonable to expect any people to be moral in two hemispheres at one and the same time. Duty and Destiny have plainly both agreed to order, for this once, whatever the American people want on this continent, and to enforce their decrees in the conquered Spanish territory only. That is what Mr. McKinley means by his moral lectures. The Spaniards have got to be moral everywhere. Duty refuses, and very properly, to "let up" on them. If they do not like it, why, let us ask, do they stay Catholics?

STATE AND NATIONAL ISSUES.

Col. Roosevelt and his party managers must have discovered, during the past few days, that, whatever may be their personal opinions as to whether State or national issues are "paramount" in this campaign, there can be no doubt as to the disposition of the people of the State. So long as the Republican canvass was prosecuted with national issues to the front, it encountered such "apathy" everywhere that, instead of improving, the Colonel's chances of election steadily diminished. This was so markedly the case ten days ago that hope of his success had nearly or quite vanished. Since then there has appeared a genuine local issue, a thoroughly "parochial" one, that of an honest and untrammelled judiciary, and the immediate result is a visible improvement in Roosevelt's prospects. Indeed, it is the opinion of all competent observers that if he is elected, he will owe his success to Croker's fatuous conduct in providing him with a local issue of incalculable value.

Nothing shows the influence of this new issue more clearly than the sudden increase in the registration on the final day, Saturday. This was a great surprise to everybody, revealing for the first time a real popular interest in the election. Col. Roosevelt's appeals for support in order to impress the nations of Continental Europe and teach them to treat us with proper respect, his assertion that the peace negotiations at Paris were blocked because of uncertainty as to what the voters of New York would say next month, even his charge that any man who voted against him would be a "Spaniard" and a traitor—each and all of these appeals, based upon the assumption that the national issues of the war and its results were "paramount," failed to arouse the people, to shake them out of their apathy. So also with the sound-money issue. So long as that

and the war were at the front, "apathy" continued unshaken. But when a real issue appeared, one upon which the people could vote directly, apathy received its first distinct shock. The remarkable meeting of the lawyers at Carnegie Hall, with Mr. Bourke Cockran's stirring speech, showed what vitality there was in a real issue, and what political potency.

It may be well to say a word further upon this subject. There has been much use made, by the "national-issue" advocates, of the Oregon election last spring, the point being that because sound money was the leading issue there, that because on that issue the Republicans carried the State, and the result was hailed all over the country as of national importance, we should in New York State, under like conditions, make national issues, including sound money, paramount in our canvass. There are many defects in this line of reasoning. In the first place, there is no similarity whatever between the political conditions in the State of Oregon and those in the State of New York. Oregon, at the time of its election, had no boss system of government, no canal mismanagement, or any other local issue of sufficient prominence to prevent the pushing to the front of the sound-money issue. The Republicans of Oregon did not raise this issue as a cloak for the preservation of the blackmailing system of a corrupt boss, enabling him under its cover to send unfit men to the Legislature and to allow no really fit men to be sent there. Democratic, constitutional government still exists in Oregon. The nominating machinery there is still under the control of the people, and is not in the hands of a boss or of two bosses. Under these conditions, the sound-money issue could be raised with entire propriety, and, instead of obscuring local or State issues, it might distinctly reinforce them by supplying an additional certificate of character in the nominees. The same thing is true of the situation in Iowa now.

Furthermore, the Oregon election was held in the midst of our "great war," as Col. Roosevelt is fond of calling it. There was no expansion, or Empire, or Destiny, or other results of the war, or Peace Conference, to be voted upon then. If there had been such national issues as those, and they had been put in front of the sound-money issue, as Col. Roosevelt has put them here, the result might have been very different. It is because he has, until now, pushed sound money into a secondary place, thrusting to the front what Mr. Schurz aptly calls "militant imperialism" and the "Manifest Destiny swindle," that we have censured his conduct as both indefensible and impolitic. He was obscuring the real issue, honest State government, was protecting the boss in the latter's efforts to perpetuate his power, and was making even sound money a secondary issue.

Why should there be any difficulty about advocating both sound money and honest State government at the same time? Cannot a man vote for sound-money candidates in his congressional district, and keep his mind upon State issues in regard to other candiates? Ah, but you forget that a United States Senator is to be chosen by the new Legislature! Yes, but are we to forget that a thick-and-thin Platt Legislature, with a blackmailing system based upon it, is a high price to pay for a United States Senator? What especial harm, taken at its worst, can a Democratic Congress do in regard to the money question? They can pass no free-silver legislation over the President's veto. Then, too, what assurance have we that a new Republican Congress would give us any more currency reform than the old one has done? Is that assurance so strong as to justify us in surrendering our Legislature to Platt for a year or two longer?

Putting aside all other arguments in favor of local issues as preferable to national issues, that of expediency would, we should suppose, be supreme with all Republicans. It has been plain from the outset, and has been made so clear by the developments of the past few days as to be beyond question, that Col. Roosevelt's only chance of election lies in State and local issues. If he had stood fearlessly and mainly upon those, if he had left the "results of the war" and the attitude of the nations of Continental Europe out of the case utterly, he would not have alienated a large body of independent voters, and would virtually be certain of election to-day. He has a chance of election now, but only because the sudden precipitation by his opponents of a local issue of overwhelming moment has compelled him to put his national issues into the background.

TOLSTOY ON ART.—II.

PARIS, October 5, 1898.

Tolstoy justly remarks that whereas it used to be considered a merit to be clear, it is by our new schools of literature considered a merit to be obscure. He speaks of Stéphane Mallarmé as a model of this conscious and voluntary obscurity. Mallarmé, who died only a few weeks ago, was for a long time professor of English at the Lycée Fontanes. He was a quiet, mystical man, sufficiently intelligible in ordinary life; but when he took pen in hand he did not forget that he belonged to what Leconte de Lisle called the School of the Unintelligible. He held to the principle that the poet ought not to express, but only to suggest, ideas. He had, alas! disciples, and some of them thought it necessary to go into mild convulsions over some of his works, his sonnet on the Rose, his epitaph on Edgar Poe, etc. It is said that he had for a long time been working on a sonnet which nobody had seen, but the appearance of which was to be a great event. A chosen disciple was at last admitted to the honor of hearing it; he heard piously the fourteen lines and began to compliment the poet. Mallarmé interrupted him. "So," said he, "you have well understood?" "Oh, yes!" "And what is, in your opinion, the subject of the poem?" "Nothing could be more clear: it is the synthesis of the absolute." And Mallarmé with the greatest calmness said to him: "No, my friend, it is the description of my commode."

The new poets, Décadents or Symbolists, have abolished all the rules of French prosody, so that some of their poems read almost like prose. They do not recognize any "ars poetica"; they take the greatest liberty with the rhyme; they will not tolerate any measure, any rhythm.

The criticism which Tolstoy makes of the new school of poetry applies with as much force to the new school of music. His chapters on Wagner and on the Wagnerian school have been considered almost blasphemy by the admirers of the great German musician. Nobody had dared to speak so boldly on the subject. Wagnerism has become in our day a sort of religion. I remember the time when "Lohengrin" was played for the first time at the French Opera. It was under the Second Empire, and the spirit of opposition, which was very ardent at the time, rose against a work which was said to be patronized by the Court. In vain did Madame de Metternich applaud furiously in her box; the public was hostile, and Wagner was not understood, he was even not properly heard. How different it is now! The French have forgotten that Wagner was a German; he has been adopted, and his operas are played, one after another, before enthusiastic audiences. The old operas, even those of Meyerbeer, of Rossini, of Donizetti, are looked upon as forms of an inferior art. People speak disdainfully of the duos, trios, quintets, and sextets of the elder school; they require a sort of formless music. I am not at all prepared to deny the great symphonic power of the Wagnerian music, but it seems to me that the best parts of his work are those in which he condescends to give a definite form, a definite rhythm to his musical ideas. He attains at times the height of sublimity, but how dearly you have to pay for these chosen parts, in hearing the endless *recitativi* which connect them (for, if you will admit an Italian word into this Germanism, it must be confessed that the greater part of some of Wagner's operas is an endless and noisy *recitativo*). The Italians were the first to unite the airs of an opera by a recitative, but they paid no attention to what was for them a mere *trait d'union*. People became attentive only when the air commenced, and they ceased to be when it was finished. I confess that there is a symphonic greatness and majesty in the Wagnerian ideal; but what I call the airs, for want of a better word—that is to say, the definite forms of harmony—are often too completely sacrificed to undefined, vague symphonic accumulations of sounds, which have no beginning and no end, like the murmur of the wind or of an angry sea.

Another objection may be made to the Wagnerian music, and it is expressed with much force by Tolstoy. The fundamental thought of Wagner has been the identification of music with poetry. The great master intends and professes to express with sounds all the shades and variations of a poetical work.

"But," says Tolstoy, "each art has its proper and defined domain, distinct from that

of the other arts; united for a time in a single work, as they are in an opera, one of them must necessarily be sacrificed to the other. The union of the drama and of music, invented in the tenth century by Italians who imagined that they were resuscitating the ancient Greek drama, has never achieved success except with the upper classes, and only when a musician of talent—Mozart, Weber, Rossini—inspired by a dramatic subject, abandoned himself freely to his inspiration and subordinated the text to the music. In the operas of these masters, the only important thing for the auditor was the music written to a certain text, and not the text itself. This text might even be absurd, as happens, for instance, in Mozart's 'Magic Flute,' without hindering the music from producing an artistic impression."

In truth, the situations may have their importance in an opera; the words have really none. There are more or less dramatic *libretti*, and it cannot be denied that a good libretto helps the musician; but much pleasure can be derived from a stupid libretto if the music is good, since we derive the greatest pleasure from a symphony of Beethoven, which has not the help of words, nor even of the human voice.

Since Wagner was a poet as well as a musician, it is necessary to read his work as well as to hear it.

"The principal part," says Tolstoy, "of his poetical works is the 'Ring of the Nibelung.' I have read with much care the four *libretti* which compose the poem. . . . It is a model of artistic counterfeit. But they say that it is impossible to judge Wagner's productions if you do not see them on the stage. The second day of the trilogy was represented at Moscow last winter. It is, I was assured, the best part of the work. So I went to see it played; and this is what I saw. When I arrived, the enormous hall was full. There were grand-dukes and all the flower of the aristocracy, of commerce, of science, of administration, of the middle classes. Most of the spectators had a libretto in their hands, trying to penetrate the sense of it. I saw also many musicians, some of them old, with gray hair, who followed the music with the score."

The account which Tolstoy gives of the representation and of the fable on which Wagner composed his music, is highly comical. He describes his sufferings during the performance:

"I thought involuntarily of a wise, respectable peasant, one of those truly religious men such as I know among our peasants. I represented to myself the terrible perplexity which he would feel if he was forced to see what I had seen. What would he think on learning the amount of labor expended on the performance, and on seeing this audience, these great ones of the earth —old, bald, gray-bearded men, men whom he is in the habit of respecting—sitting motionless, to see and to hear for six hours in succession such a mass of absurdities."

And then, thinking of Bayreuth, where congregate every year people who think themselves the élite of the world, he speculated on the causes of Wagner's success. He analyzes his method, his clever use of all the elements furnished by what he calls the poetical arsenal, but on the whole he calls the new art a mere counterfeit.

He constantly uses this word counterfeit. The conclusion of his work is, in fact, that

"What the greater part of our society considers art, real art, art *in toto*, is a mere counterfeit of true art. . . . If art is a form of activity through which one man transmits his feelings to others, we are obliged to confess that of all we call art in our society, of all these novels, stories, dramas, pictures, operas, ballets, etc., hardly the hundred-thousandth part proceeds from an emotion felt by the author; all the rest is a mere counterfeit, in which borrowed ideas, ornamentations, effects, and interests replace the contagion of sentiment. I have read somewhere that in Paris alone there are more than twenty thousand painters; there are probably as many in England, as many in Germany, as many in the other countries of Europe. That makes about one hundred thousand painters in Europe; and we should find there also a hundred thousand musicians, and a hundred thousand literary men. If these three hundred thousand individuals produce each three works a year, we can reckon nearly a million works of art a year."

Emotional contagion seems to Tolstoy to be the criterion of true art. "If a man, without any effort on his part, receives, in the presence of the work of another man, an emotion which unites him to this man, and if others receive it as he does, it is because the work which he has before him is a work of art." I give this definition for what it is worth, and cannot follow Tolstoy any further in his attempt to renovate art, in his analysis of the "art of the future." It is enough to say that, paradoxical as it is in many parts, his book is worth reading, and is full of bold truths and of ingenious and suggestive considerations.

Correspondence.

WHAT TO DO WITH THE PHILIPPINES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you pardon an old reader and ardent admirer if he asks you categorically what you would do about the Philippines, assuming that we have got them to dispose of? I believe I have a pretty distinct idea of what you would *not* do, but I should like some light on the following points:

Ought our national conscience to be satisfied with washing our hands of the whole affair and saying we care for none of these things?

At the end of, say, a hundred years would the Filipino, in your opinion, have made further progress on the road to civilization, if left to his own devices, than if we exercised some sort of protectorate over him?

It being manifestly impossible to put the Filipino back *in statu quo erat ante bellum*, what ought we to do in the premises, due regard being had for him, ourselves, and the rest of the world? E. L. M.

Chicago, October 18, 1898.

[We have already expressed our opinion that the first thing to do is to resolve that we will not undertake to govern the Filipinos for our own benefit, or to make their country United States territory. This is what we are pretending to do in the case of Cuba, with far greater temptations to break our plighted word. How to get out of our present military and naval responsibility for good order within the range of our guns, is the problem of the Administration, which has deliberately sought to forestall the popular judgment upon annexation. We do not know why the Filipinos have not the right to try to govern themselves as well as any other people. If they fail, we consider it no concern of ours, any more than to accelerate their progress towards civilization and self-government. Our national conscience, if it exists any longer, can be satisfied by standing by the doctrine of the fathers as to the rights of man.—Ed. Nation.]

THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the nomination for Lieutenant-Governor of this State, I wonder if the Mugwumps—those of us who are going to vote, in the main, the Republican ticket—realize that here is a notable chance to put in operation a cardinal Mugwump maxim, viz., always to vote against a bad man of the better party, even at the terrible present cost of voting for and perhaps electing a worse man of the worse party.

There is more hope of reforming (by disciplining) the better party, the party of larger and more general intelligence and of higher moral average, and of bringing it to its senses, than the other party, and when you have done that, the race is won; whereas, by voting for the less bad man of the better party, you simply win a momentary, partial relief, while you exacerbate the disease and postpone a *radical* cure.

As long as we tolerate the doctrine, "You must vote for *our* man, bad though he be, because the other man is *worse*," we never shall have political reform; for one party has then only to encourage the nomination of a very bad man by the other party to enable it to put up a little less bad man itself. Bad as the election of a worse man would be, it would in the end be overbalanced for good by the lesson in higher politics, that you cannot defy the moral element of your party in your nomination, and then elect your bad man by saying the other man is worse. Not till the leaders are taught that their party will *not* under *any* pressure vote for their *own* bad man, will those leaders be driven to put up good men.

Respectfully yours, (a Mugwump of the Mugwumps), H. D. C.

Gouverneur, N. Y., October 22, 1898.

BRITISH SYMPATHY WITH THE CONFEDERACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent Mr. A. W. Savary, in citing Mr. Sumner's inflammatory language as a main cause of England's hostility to the North during the civil war, rather puts the cart before the horse. Mr. Justin McCarthy, in his 'History of Our Own Times,' states the matter very fairly. He says:

"Mr. Sumner had been for the greater part of his life an enthusiastic admirer of England. . . . In his own country he passed for an Anglomaniac. When the civil war broke out, he expected, with full confidence, to find the sympathies of England freely given to the side of the North. He was struck with amazement when he found that they were to so great an extent given to the South. But when he saw that the *Alabama* and other Southern cruisers had been built in England, manned in England, and allowed to leave our ports with apparently the applause of three-fourths of the representative men in England, his feelings towards this country underwent a complete change. . . . His mind became filled with a fervor of anger against England. All his love for England turned into hate."

Then came the inflammatory language—which doubtless intensified England's unfriendliness to the North, but certainly did not antedate it. As with Mr. Sumner, so with the people of the North in general.

When they found, to their bitter disappointment, nine-tenths of English "society," of English journalists, statesmen, clergymen—everybody, in short, who had weight and a voice—taunting them in their distress and giving support to their foes, then their chagrin deepened into anger which soon found expression in the public approval of the *Trent* outrage.

England has now handsomely and substantially made amends for her unhandsome treatment of us in Sumner's day; and perhaps it would be better, now that the "era of good feeling" has really set in, to steer clear of discussions and recriminations that tend to disturb it. Having said which, the present writer is driven to the schoolboy's plea, that Mr. Savary (like England in 1861) "started it." E. G. J.

October 23, 1898.

WISCONSIN'S VOTES ON NEGRO SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of October 6 you mention the fact that "the proposition to extend the right of suffrage in Wisconsin to negroes was defeated by a few thousand majority" in the referendum vote of 1865. It is a curious circumstance that, in an earlier referendum, in 1849, the number of votes cast in favor of the constitutional amendment for such extension was 5,265, and the number against it 4,075.

The vote appears to have been very light, and to have been regarded as not worthy of consideration, in view of the constitutional provision that such amendment must be "approved by a majority of all the votes cast at such election," in order to be effective. So no action was taken to test the validity of the amendment until it had again been submitted and this time (in 1865) defeated. In the case of Gillespie vs. Palmer *et al.*, reported in 20 Wis., page 572, it was held by the highest appellate court of the State that the vote was sufficient to confer the right of suffrage upon citizens of African descent, although a lower court had decided that it was not, alleging the constitutional provision. Theron W. Haight.

Waukesha, Wis., October 11, 1898.

PROVINCIAL RIMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Certain critics of the technic of verse find an easy explanation of many of the imperfect rimes of our language by a reference to the pronunciation of the English aristocracy, forgetting, first, that such licenses are not simply patrician property; and, secondly, that they are as common on the banks of the Charles as of the Thames. How regard the suppressed *g* as a shibboleth of high life when it appears so often in the rimes of the cockneys, or the coupling of *been* and *seen*, or of *were* and *there* as evidence of English swelldom when we Yankees have always mated the two sounds?

Rimes, indeed, are seldom clues to a writer's pronunciation. As a correspondent has recently asserted in your columns, the poet may employ freely rimes to the eye like *leads* and *treads*, *love* and *move*, *key* and *they*. He may continue a riming tradition in coupling such words as *heaven* and *riven*, *sun* and *on*, *rebuke* and *look*, *faith* and *death*. He may consciously assist at a misalliance in wedding sounds of different classes, like *brows* and *close*, *lost* and *boast*, *foot* and *brute*, *guard* and *lord*. When, having noted that none of these three conditions exists, we can explain an author's imperfect rimes by pointing to the speech of his section, then, and then only, are we safe in attaching much importance to the evidence of line-endings.

When Morton of Merrymount sings (Duyckinck, *Cycl. of Am. Lit.*, ii., 35),

> "Give to the melancholy man
> A cup or two of 't now and than,"

we are pretty sure of the pronunciation of his time. When Mrs. Carlyle, in her "Lines to a Swallow," rimes *one* and *man*, we remember that she was a Scotchwoman. When R. H. Horne couples *lost* and *mast* ("Genius," Stedman's *Victorian Anthology*, 35) Wilfred Blunt, *calm* and *storm* (*Id.*, 492), and Kipling, *hard* and *Adam-zad* ("The Truce of the Bear"), we cry at once, "Here is the broad *a* of the English gentleman"; but we are a little surprised a few days later to meet, in our Whittier, *soft* mated with *quaffed* (*Cambridge Ed.*, 155, 1), *staff* with *scarf* (343, 1), and *arms* with *palms* (420, 2).

If rimes were always an index to pronunciation, we should have no difficulty in proving that the greatest of England's poets spoke like footmen (note the appalling list of false rimes in Tennyson and Moore, cited by Ellis, *Early English Pronunciation*, 858), that the masters of American song conversed in the dialect of Hosea Biglow. Let us take, for example, the line endings of Whittier; I have recently collected all the imperfect rimes in the Cambridge Edition of his works (a task that I found by no means dull). On the evidence of these—evidence which no one will rate at any but its proper value—the Quaker poet is not to be criticised for what he sadly calls "the harshness of an untaught ear," but to be applauded for his patriotic employment of New England provincialisms. In citing his more interesting rimes, I shall try to avoid the use of technical phonetic terms.

I. A-rimes.

(1.) ā with ĕ: Chamber, remember (245-1); range, revenge (326-1); revenge, estrange (334-2); change, revenge (502-1, 503-1); betrayed, head (245-1); grenade, head (74-1). *Chember*, *renge*, *estrenge*, and *haid* are very common provincialisms.

(2.) ă with ĕ: Example, temple (200-1, 430-1); pennon, cannon (285-1, 334-1); chance, providence (341-1); bellow, fallow (362-2); help, scalp (498-2); offence, petulance (501-1); tenor, manner (511-1); catch, fetch (229-2); shadows, meadows (197-1, 224-2, 362-2); meadows, ladders (52-1); hath, death (365-2, 438-2); breath, path (400-1, 421-1, 445-2); better, platter (390-2). Compare with these rimes the vocabulary of the Biglow Papers: *hev*, *thet*, *hendy*, *Shennon*, *fem'ly*, *pel'ces*, *dem-miges*, *shell* (shall), *rerity*, *kerridge*, *ketch*, *betch*, *getherin'*, *kebbage*, *metter*, *heppen*.

(3.) aa=au=ar=or: Charms, psalms, (67-2); water, escort her (31-1); form, warm (77-2); gone, warn (183-1); calm, arm (488-1, 496-1); sparrow, borrow (410-1); abroad, lord (115-2); gone, forlorn (144-2); sort, caught (258-1); scorning, fawning (304-1); abroad, God (315-2); applaud, reward (347-1); scorner, honor (358-1); cause, was (430-2); worn, gone (501-2).

(4.) ā accented=a unaccented: Lay, Florida (7-2); day, Bashaba (29-2); play, Piscataqua (74-1, 402-1); way, Andromeda (236-1). This stress of the obscure final syllable is, of course a Yankeeism, but the same rime occurs in 'Hudibras': Day, algebra (i., 1, 126-127); terra incognita, say (i., 1, 535-536).

II. E-rimes.

(1.) ee with ĕ: Been, then (40-2); pen, been (391-2, 48-2); been, men (247-1, 288-1, 430-2, 352-1, 390-1, 487-2, 508-2, 511-2); been, when, pen (392-2). *Ben* for *been*, is the form in the 'Biglow Papers,' and Lowell, in the introduction to Part II., notes as a parallel Whittier's use. The English pronunciation of *been*, so rare in American mouths, is found frequently in our rimes; Whittier himself employed it twice: green, been (489-2); been, seen (511-1).

(2.) er=ar=or=ur: (a) er with ar: Searches, larches (164-2) [compare, however, searches, birches (167-2)]; harvest, servest (182-1); pearl, marl (440-1). The 'Biglow Papers' yield to a rapid hunt: *desarves*, *consarns*, *larn*, *univarse*, *vartoo*, *presarvin'*, *sartin'*, *starns*, *vice-varsy*, (b) er with or: Whittier's favorite rime instances a pronunciation that I have heard a hundred times in the Green Mountains: earth, forth (furth) (141-1, 156-1, 176-1, 272-2, 279-2, 280-2, 284-1, 332-2, 341-2, 347-2, 372-1, 379-2, 381-1, 418-2, 488-1, 492-2). Compare, also, force, universe (79-2, 248-1); sword, bird (339-1); church, perch (246-2, 503-2); turn, borne (309-2); court, dirt (328-2).

(3.) eu=ew=ū=oo: Wood, quietude (147-1); gratitude, good (204-1); womanhood, platitude (204-1); rebuke, brook (206-2); renewed, wood (207-1); mule, foot (400-1); croon, tune (192-1). Emerson also employs these rimes freely; but, as they abound in Stedman's *Victorian Anthology*, we cannot regard them as indicating the characteristic Down-East sound in *dooty*, *institootions*, etc. The interesting *dew*, *do* (102-2) is not, of course, an "identical rime" as it would be in the 'Biglow Papers.'

III. I-rimes.

(1.) ĭ with ĕ: Since, hence (60-1); checkered, flickered (86-1); still, shell (182-2); tiller's, Cinderella's (358-2); spectre, picture (410-2); knelt, guilt (502-2). *Ef*, *sence*, *henders*, *hetch*, etc., are genuine Jaalam.

(2.) ĭ=ē, ea, ee, ie: Lives, weaves (166-1); Eva, give her (218-1); Eva, river (218-1); leaves, gives (235-1, 432-2, 501-1, 512-1); filled, yield (347-1); east, mist (361-1); ill, steel (298-1); gives, receives (432-2, 440-2); within, seen (387-1); beeches, witches (391-1); is, sees (461-2); spirit, hear it (293-1). *Geeves* (gives), *eel* (ill), *eez* (is), *een* (in), *speerit* are common to New England and Scotland; indeed, when Whittier attempted the Scotch dialect, he rimed *shillin'* and *stealin'* (490-2).

IV. O-rimes.

(1.) ŏ with ou, au [see above under aa]: Not, wrought (5-1); not, taught (91-1); thought, not (442, 1); not, sought (105-2); balk it, pocket (310-1); shot, thought (201-2). These sounds are confused not only near Whittier's home, but by careless speakers everywhere.

(2.) ŏ with ŭ: Wrongs, tongues (515-2); throngs, tongues (366-2). These are merely eye-rimes, and show nothing; let us hope, however, that, in the hymnody, "listening throngs" will soon cease to hear "the music of the heavenly tongues" (*tongs*).

(3.) ō with oo: Home, bloom (76-2, 112-1, 220-2, 225-1); come, perfume (104-2); home, room (130-2, 241-1, 402-1); come, room (239-1, 319-2, 446-1, 447-2); bloom, come (227-2, 342-1, 406-2, 441-1, 495-1); whom, Rome

(380-1); loves, grooves (361-2). Some of these rimes appear in Emerson; but *coom, looves, Room*, etc., are not Yankee but Yorkshire, and the property of Mr. John Browdie.

(4.) ō with ŭ: Dumb, home (314-1), and income, home (402-2) suggest the bucolic *hum* (M. E. Wilkins, *A Humble Romance*, ed. 1887, p. 53); and full, whole (443-2) recalls Dr. Holmes's line, "All are but parts of one stupendous *Hull*."

(5.) oi with ī: Joined, behind (78-2); line, join (152-1); joined, mind (326-1); joins, pines (329-1); isle, soil (178-1); toil, isle (422-2); toil, smile (493-2). *Pints, 'nint, pizon, jint, j'y* (joy), "spiced with a drawl *ad-libitum*," are a large part of Hosea's stock in trade, but J. S. Blackie, the Scotchman, rimes *toil* and *while* in his *Songs of Religion and Life*, N. Y., 1876, p. 114. Whittier, however, may be simply attempting to revive a rime that was popular in the days of Pope, and was lost to standard English verse late in the last century.

V. U-rimes.

(1.) ŭ with ur, er, ir: Dust, thirst (123-2); dust, cursed (185-2); thrust, first (265-1); us, curse (268-1); first, dust (280-2); thus, curse (368-1); trust, nursed, first (389-2); curse, us (422-1); accursed, dust (504-2); accursed, lust (504-2). Let us glance at the lines (268-1):

"And shall we scoff at Europe's kings
When Freedom's fire is dim with *us*,
And round our country's altar clings
The damning shade of Slavery's *curse* (*cuss*)?"

Cust and *trust* are rimes in the 'Biglow Papers'; and *pus* (purse), *wus, cus, fust, nuss-in', wuth* occur frequently both here and in Miss Wilkins's stories. But the vulgarism is cockney as well. Thackeray couples *nuss* (nurse) and *us* ("Lines on a Late Hospicious Ewent"), and *cust* and *must* ("Jacob Homnium's Hoss"); and writes thus to his little daughter, Anne, under date of December 30, 1845 (*Biographical Edition*, vi., xxii.): "How glad I am that it is a black *puss* and not a black *nuss* you have got! [the italics are Thackeray's]. I thought you did not know how to spell nurse and had spelt it en-you-double-ess."

(2.) ure unaccented = er unaccented: Master, pasture (230-1); figure, nigger (298-2, 299-1); figure, eager (312-1); pasture, faster (363-1); pictures, spectres (410-2); venture, enter (411-1); cleanser, censure (516-1). Compare with these the rimes of the 'Biglow Papers': *feetur, creetur, meeter* (metre); *nater, traitor; figger, nigger*. I find, however, in the 'Ingoldsby Legends' feature, greet her, creature, eat her; and lecture, expect her; and even in Blackie's serious verse (*l. c.*, 85), nature, creator.

VI. False rimes.

Whittier, however, employs many rimes which fall into none of the above categories, and which cannot be made "perfect" by assigning to the words a provincial pronunciation. Of these I mention the most striking: Wrath, earth (170-1); nourished, cherished (200-2); places, daisies (200-1); Genevan, heaven (230-2); serf, off (285-1); South, both (291-2); rope, up (291-2); freedom, speed them = speed 'em (293-1); battalions, millions (293-1); summon, human (303-2); cotton, fortune (310-2) [compare 'Biglow Papers,' *fortin*]; part us, martyrs (336-2); bruisëd, crusade (336-2); better, sweeter (360-1); solemn, volume (360-1); murmurs, farmers (360-2); treasures, maize-ears (360-2); woody, sturdy (361-1); warmer, firmer (361-1); moonlight, sunlight (360-1) [the seven preceding rimes are, strange to say, all in one poem, "The Lumbermen"]; tell, miracle (400-2); August, Paugus (411-1); vessel, parcel = pa'cel (411-1); famine, mammon (424-1); blossom, bosom (492-2, 497-1). In the early poems the word-accent is twice wrenched for rime's sake, thin, Katahdin (500-1); finer, retina (512-2). We meet, too, a few assonances: Mainland, trainband (51-2); mateless, greatness (167-1); scamper, Hampshire (300-1); blackguard, backward (317-1); fear thee, near me (439-2); please you, knees to (514-2). But our list is already too long.

Yet, if Whittier's rimes display a Biglow-like freedom of growth that suggests nowhere the pruning hand of his brother abolitionist, Mr. Homer Wilbur, A.M., what matters this, after all, to a lover of his gentler thoughts? A great poet is something more than a rime-smith. Any dryasdust armed with Walker's Dictionary or Hood's 'Rhymester' can couple like sounds; the author of "Snow Bound" and "The Tent on the Beach" makes us forget verse-technic and provincialisms when he portrays

"In old familiar things
The romance underlying."

FREDERICK TUPPER, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT, October 13, 1898.

SUGAR-BUSH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In western Massachusetts a small grove of sugar-maple trees is called a sugar orchard or maple orchard. In the Catskills such a grove is known as a sugar-bush or sap-bush. Can any of your readers suggest a derivation for the use of the word "bush" in this connection?—Yours truly, E. N.

NEW YORK, October 20, 1898.

Notes.

Lemcke & Buechner solicit advance orders for Bismarck's Memoirs in the original German, 'Gedanken und Erinnerungen,' making two volumes octavo, "unaltered and complete, as written by him," with introduction and notes by Horst Kohl. The English edition will be brought out next month by Harper & Bros.

Among Frederick A. Stokes & Co.'s October announcements we remark 'A Short History of the War with Spain,' by Marrion Wilcox; 'Cartoons of Our War with Spain,' by Ch. Nelan of the New York *Herald;* 'Ships and Sailors,' by Rufus F. Zogbaum and James S. Barnes; and 'The Jingle-Jangle Rhyme-Book,' by Henry Bradford Simmons, with illustrations in color.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co. will issue immediately 'The Santiago Campaign,' by Major-Gen. Joseph Wheeler; 'Washington the Soldier,' by Gen. Carrington; a translation in blank verse, by Howard Thayer Kingsbury, of "Cyrano de Bergerac"; and 'Philip, the Story of a Boy Violinist,' by T. W. O.

For the holidays, L. C. Page & Co. have nearly ready a new edition of 'The Blessed Damosel,' following the earliest printed version (in the *Gem*), with ornamental borders by W. B. Macdougall, Dante Rossetti's crayon study of the head of the Damosel, and an introduction by W. M. Rossetti.

William Doxey, San Francisco, has in press 'Hawaii Nei,' by Mabel Craft, with numerous original illustrations.

A musical story, 'Poor Human Nature,' by Elizabeth Godfrey, is to be issued shortly by Henry Holt & Co.; along with an 'Elementary Botany,' by Prof. George F. Atkinson of Cornell, with copious illustrations, including many full-page half-tone landscapes.

Dr. Murray hopes to have the entire letter H in type for the Oxford Dictionary before the end of next month.

We have received from George Barrie & Son the first four parts of their history of the 'Army and Navy of the United States,' which is to be illustrated by 300 pictures in the text and 50 full-plate photogravures of the uniforms worn by soldiers and sailors and of famous ships in service, from the Revolution to the present day. There are to be 25 parts of 16 pages each. This work was originally undertaken by the Government, whose aid and official approval the present publishers have received. The reading-matter is intended to be absolutely trustworthy, historically, and the supplement is to contain over two hundred thousand names of all officers in active service from Bunker Hill to Santiago and Manila. Paper and printing are both of the best, and the only criticism which can be made at present is the illogical arrangement of the pictures, by which types of uniforms and historical ships are jumbled together with little or no reference to the letterpress.

The twelfth volume of Mr. J. H. Slater's 'Book Prices Current' (London: Elliot Stock) is prefaced by an explanation of its appearance in the same twelvemonth with volume xi. The calendar year has been replaced by the auction year, with good reason. The sales now recorded are pronounced the most important in ten years, partly in consequence of the disposition of two-thirds of the Ashburnham library. Editions of Burns coming upon the market have chanced to be notable. In other respects there is not much to be remarked. There is the usual collectors' contention for Bewick and Cruikshank, for Dickens and Thackeray, for Stevenson and Kipling. The demand for Rousseau and Voltaire respectively is inversely to the attention which these writers receive at the present day.

Mrs. Browning's 'Sonnets from the Portuguese,' compound of tears and passion, more valuable often for the single culminating line than for the entire conceit, have been daintily republished in London by George Bell & Sons. The ornamentation of borders and initials has been successfully executed, but we dislike the affectation of abolishing indention for the broken line.

In the delectable Temple Edition of Scott's novels (London: Dent; New York: Scribners), bound in flexible lambskin, and provided with topographical frontispieces from the pen of Herbert Railton, 'The Abbot' has been reached, and fills two of the pocket volumes. To Messrs. Scribner we are also in debt for two additional volumes (ix. and x.) in the handsome uniform series of James Whitcomb Riley's works, viz., his 'Armazindy' and his 'Child-World,' both verse collections in the main; two more in the series of short "Stories by Foreign Authors"—to wit, Italian, and Polish, Greek, Bulgarian, Hungarian, with portraits of De Amicis and Sienkiewicz; a reprint of 'The Navy in the Civil War,' by Prof. Soley, Capt. Mahan, and Admiral Ammen, revived for obvious reasons after fifteen years, in three volumes, each indexed; and, in an eighth edition, 'The Book of Games,' by Mary White, whose thirty-

first diversion is extemporaneous china painting, of which the humorous author says that "to entertain successfully a party of people for half an evening, nothing could be better."

Commendable are the three latest 'Little Masterpieces,' edited by Prof. Bliss Perry of Princeton, and published by Doubleday & McClure Co., with portraits of Macaulay, Ruskin, and Carlyle.

Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's 'Great Words from Great Americans' (Putnams) is an annotated reproduction in open print of the Declaration of Independence (with facsimile of signatures) and Constitution (with an index); Washington's circular letter to the Governors of the thirteen States, first and second inaugurals, and Farewell Address; Lincoln's two inaugurals and Gettysburg Address (with a facsimile), and numerous portraits, views, etc. The volume will prove a convenience, and is just now a veritable anti-imperialist vade-mecum.

The little moralities dubbed 'Autobiographical Reminiscences of Henry Ward Beecher,' by his stenographer, T. J. Ellinwood, are drawn from reports of his sermons and lecture-room talks. Some are trivial enough, and a much better arrangement might have been made, chronologically and topically.

M. de Wyzewa, who has done many good things in the graceful French art of criticism, has an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on Harriet Beecher Stowe, which is full of enthusiastic appreciation of the importance, for the history of a country, of her great work, and also of the strenuous spirit which caused her, from girlhood, to long for the occasion to devote her felt powers to some worthy end. The writer in the London *Quarterly Review*, who also makes Mrs. Fields's biography the occasion for an article, regards Mrs. Stowe's inspiration as of similar nature with that of Joan of Arc.

In a charming article in the Berlin *Zukunft* of September 17, Prof. Hugo Münsterberg of Harvard passes from a hint of the extraneousness of the late war and its imperceptible effect on the regular teaching of the University, to a consideration of German newspaper unfriendliness during hostilities, and finally to a psychologic comparison of the two peoples. He errs, we are sure, in saying that the declaration of war was in accordance with the desire (*dem Wunsch*) of a majority of Americans; but his informal and incidental view of the American character, as against that ignorantly held by the average German, will be recognized as just. His thesis is that the American is at bottom an idealist, and that his entire inner life is controlled by idealism. On this he predicates a closer natural union between Americans and Germans than between Americans and Englishmen, saying that mere community of the sporting spirit without common ideals has nothing binding in it. He foresees, as a consequence of the war, the future contact of America and Germany to an extent which makes an international understanding of grave importance, and he contributes his mite to it. Prof. Münsterberg forcibly remarks on the fact that while Germans quickly feel at home in this country, Frenchmen always remain strangers. He illustrates this by conversations held here at about the same time with Helmholtz and Paul Bourget; the Frenchman not knowing that his feeling of strangeness proceeded from the German element in the American character.

Modern Oriental research has two particular *cruces* which, at the present stage of affairs, seem to be insoluble. They are both historical problems, but both based on philological perplexities. The one deals with the somewhat mysterious Hittites, and seeks, on the basis of meagre inscriptions, to locate, historically and ethnographically, this strange people. The other even more important problem is the Sumerian question, the claim that the civilization and culture represented by the Babylonian literature of the cuneiform inscriptions was not the original production of that Semitic nation, but was merely an adaptation from a Turanian race that had preceded the Semites of historic age in the Tigris and Euphrates valleys, just as the Pelasgians did the Hellenes. The general tendency among scholars in recent years has manifestly been in the direction of denying the existence of a non-Semitic type of civilization, but the defence of the Sumerian theory still finds new friends, as in F. H. Weissbach's 'Die Sumerische Frage,' in which it is maintained that the cuneiform style of writing was the invention of a non-Semitic race. Dr. Jeremias, in reviewing this work in the *Theologische Literaturzeitung* of Leipzig, No. 19, shows how exceedingly meagre the data are for such a thesis, and that even the Telloh tablets and the Nippur finds, from which so much had been expected, give us absolutely no material for believing in the existence of Sumerian texts.

Throughout the Greek centres of the East a considerable number of "Syllogoi," or literary societies, are displaying much activity in the publication of manuscript matter found in the many (mostly smaller) collections in the monasteries and other depositories of the Levant. Financially the strongest among these is doubtless the Russian Palestine Syllogos, and to its efforts scholars are indebted for access to not a few excellent literary remains and remnants of the Greek Orient. Among its present projects is the publication on a really magnificent scale of a Catalogue of the Jerusalem Library, edited by the indefatigable Papadopoulos-Kerameus. Three volumes have appeared. The third (440 pages quarto) gives detailed descriptions of 109 manuscripts, the earliest of which dates from the eighth century. It overabounds, perhaps, in minor particulars. The manuscripts here described are of special interest for the student of Oriental ecclesiastical history. Another series published by the same society and edited by the same scholar is entitled "Inedita," and contains valuable original matter collected from many sources, chiefly on the history of the Eastern Church. Its fourth volume has also recently left the press of the society in St. Petersburg, and two are to follow. The agency for the Western trade is the house of Harrasowitz in Leipzig. Next to the St. Petersburg Society, the most active in the publication of new material is the Syllogos in Constantinople, which issues in pamphlet form at regular intervals a "Hellenicos Syllogos."

That entertaining monthly journal the *Far East* has been absorbed with its staff in the *Kokumin Shimbun* of Tokyo, which has decided to introduce amid its normal Japanese characters an "international department written in English and Romanized Japanese," but also with occasional admission of other European languages. "Short notes, written in Romanized Japanese, sometimes with translation in English, will be regularly inserted once or twice a week." This is a noteworthy step indeed. The daily may be procured by addressing the publishers at No. 4 Hiyoshicho, Tokyo; the subscription price being 3.85 yen, plus a monthly postage (abroad) of 50 sen.

Statistics of the foreign trade of the Philippines for the last six years occupy the first place in the Consular Reports for September, and are followed by a description of the Caroline Islands. The largest space, however, is given to accounts of the commerce and trade openings of South Africa. The October number opens with an interesting review of trade conditions in Egypt, with useful suggestions as to the best business methods for foreigners. There is also a condensed account of the French colonies and protectorates, their area, population, and annual foreign trade. The total value of the French exports and imports is about $144,000,000, or thirty millions less than the trade of Singapore in 1896, but the expense of administration is not stated. The Consul in Moscow writes that a commercial institute is to be opened next year in Vladivostock, Eastern Siberia. Special instruction will be afforded in commercial and industrial lines. The term of preparation will last five years, and there will be three divisions—Chinese-Japanese, Chinese-Korean, and Chinese-Mongolian.

In 1880 Germany threw open the doors of its courts, for practice, to all who could pass the prescribed legal *rigorosum* of the state, and since that date the number of lawyers in the Fatherland has increased from 4,091 to 6,149, or 50.3 per cent. In Berlin there was actually a "lawyer famine," and here the increase has been from 141 to 702. On the other hand, the neighboring Charlottenburg, with 132,377 inhabitants, has only 18, and Barmen, probably on account of its proximity to Elberfeld, has only 15. In proportion to the population, Frankfort is best supplied, having one attorney for every 1,806 inhabitants.

—A fireside conversation with Napoleon when First Consul, on October 3, 1800, has been unearthed by Senator Hoar, and was contributed by him to the American Antiquarian Society, which has just printed it in the last report of its proceedings. It was derived from the manuscript journal, now in the Congressional Library and never before published, of Vans Murray, one of the three American Commissioners (and the most active of them) in making a treaty which secured us peace after imminent danger of war with France. No future historian can afford to ignore any part of this journal, but we have room only for a few personal details. Napoleon met Mr. Murray at a château twenty miles out of Paris. "He was very affable, in five minutes he proposed a walk, and asked me to join him. We went out and walked in the shrubbery alone for half an hour; his conversation was general; about the rapprochement we had made and the good understanding which would now follow," etc., etc. At a concert the same day: "I had a seat near the First Consul. His brother Lucien and he were on a sofa near the orchestra. Before it began he spoke to some of the performers, and seemed to speak scientifically about music. He is about the height of Gen'l Hamilton, hardly so tall, not large nor square, but well made. His complexion a pale, tinged with an Italian and Egyptian, hue; eyes a lively, piercing grey, large, and a good deal of white about them, particularly when he laughs a little, and he laughs but little when at all. Then his eyes

open in accord with his smile and an under low heh! heh! showing his teeth also, by falling the under jaw. . . . His hair is black and well placed, short in his neck, and neither combed on his forehead nor turned back, but rumpled and standing different ways: he certainly looks best so, it gives more the air of his countenance. His voice is good, though not loud," etc., etc. The next day, Murray says: "I spoke to Bonaparte, who was sitting on the left of the fireplace, in a grey riding-coat, he had not been long returned from the chase [in a shower]. He asked me to sit down by him, and Lafayette on my left. He told me they had taken a biche. I asked him how he bore the wet and fatigue. His answer was: *Ah, très bien, je suis un militaire, et très accoutumé à la fatigue et beaucoup d'exercice.* He spoke about the American Government and constitution with an air of real inquiry, which convinced me he wished to know of what he was not well informed." Murray adds a dozen questions put to him, with his answers. "Bonaparte talked gaily with the little daughter of his brother Lucien, whom he handed into the dining-room. The child talked freely, and he jocosely said something menacing. She said: 'Very well, I have a friend who will defend me, and who is able to do it against you.' 'Who is that?' said he. 'Lucien, Minister of the Interior,' said the little girl."

—Prof. Hart of Harvard objects, in the current issue of the *American Historical Review*, to passionate appeals to Washington, Jefferson, and Monroe against imperialism. What he calls "the historical progress of the Cuban question" "in the four hundred years which have rolled away since America was discovered," should reconcile the rest of us, as it has reconciled him, to what is going on in the West Indies and the Philippines towards saddling the responsibility for those islands upon us. His "historical progress" is only a euphemism for "manifest destiny," or else he must pretend that the war could not have been averted, although it is notorious that a majority of our population was taken entirely aback at the thought of war at a time when the Administration and the majority in the Senate were fully bent upon it. Every political status has an historical progress leading up to it, as cause and effect; but that has nothing to do with the inevitableness of the next stage. There was an "irrepressible conflict" between freedom and slavery under the old Constitution and Union, but whether forcible secession should be persisted in after the proffer of the Crittenden compromise and the adoption of the Corwin amendment to the Constitution, depended upon the worldly wisdom of the Confederate leaders. Prof. Hart infers an aptitude for the study of history from the American people's eagerness to "make history," as it has just, he thinks, been signally doing; this phrase not being applicable to humdrum instrumentalities like yellow journals, bosses, trade-unions, Ohio wool-growers, Nevada silver-mine-owners and Hawaiian sugar-planters, Tanners, Altgelds, Hills, and Blacks, pension agents, and what feeble organized resistance good citizens can oppose to such corruption of the body politic. The "Historical Opportunity of America" awaits a war of aggression; and now if we will only flock to the libraries, gather up the scattered papers of Salmon P. Chase, and put a tablet on every Revolutionary building, we shall all learn how, by natural selection of principles and precedents, to persuade ourselves and the world that the United States is at this moment pursuing its historical path.

—Unlike Mr. Stevens's 'Yesterdays in the Philippines,' Mr. Amos K. Fiske's 'Story of the Philippines' (New York: Army and Navy Illustrated) treats not of the commonplace, every-day life, but mounts to the consideration of the past history, statistics, and future of Spain's former stronghold in the East. The author's avowed purpose is "to tell the story of the Philippines—their so-called discovery by Spain, their possession and government by that country, their physical characteristics, natural resources, their inhabitants, native and alien; the progress and development they have experienced under the adverse conditions of Spanish colonial rule, and the possibilities that await them under different conditions." All this in 158 pages, and at second hand. Sentences like this, which begins chapter xiii., speak for themselves: "The evidence in this chapter contained relative to the character and habits and the social and domestic conditions of the native inhabitants of these islands, is founded upon *information and belief*, and for its absolute accuracy this deponent voucheth not." In another instance Mr. Fiske says: "*Probably* some of the Spanish priests and friars are men of intelligence and high character." That he has never visited the islands appears from this passage about Manila: "Bathing on the beach . . . is indulged in promiscuously by all ages and both sexes in a state of natural nakedness, without thought of impropriety. . . . This shows that in one direction a tropical climate may improve the moral sense and tend to civilize mankind." The truth is that the average Filipino around Manila is as modest as he is immoral. A stranger is struck with the fact that neither native men nor women near Manila ever expose their persons in bathing, and yet he soon finds that the word "moral" is not in the Philippine dictionary. The book ends with a description of the fight on May 1 in Manila Bay, and contains fourteen illustrations.

—Vol. xxvi. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) is wholly occupied with Document liii. of the series—the report for the years 1643-44. This is among the most extended narratives which fall within the limits of any single twelvemonth, comprising two parts: the one by Vimont from Quebec, the other by Lalemant from the Hurons. Each writer is charged with that intense spirit of action which characterizes Jesuit life in Canada between 1640 and 1650. We are now well advanced in the culminating decade of their endeavors. The machinery of conversion has been fully developed, colonization has added greater physical force to the undertaking, while despite past and present sufferings the Society has not yet lost hope. Relationships are more complex than before, and efforts more strenuous. Excited, though self-controlled, with nerves on edge and throbbing hearts, the Black Fathers press forward to the consummation or destruction of their work. Among the topics which one expects to find conspicuously treated in these narratives, two lack their usual prominence, viz., the connection between piety at home and missionary zeal in New France; and the progress of colonization. The seminaries, savage stubbornness against the truth, the torture of the priests themselves (for instance, Father Bressani), and native usages, are the leading topics advanced.

—As we have in recent notes dwelt almost exclusively on the missionaries and their miseries, we shall call attention now to a curious Indian ceremony at Tadoussac which Vimont reports. "The desire of immortality," says our Jesuit author, "reigns in the minds of savages as well as in the souls of the most civilized nation." They "resuscitate" a chieftain by observing certain ceremonies which signify respect for the dead, and at the same time give the tribe a new leader. Captains of neighboring and friendly bands are invited, presents are provided, furs, food, and the other commodities of savage wealth are paraded, and a master of ceremonies conducts the proceedings. The chieftain-elect is brought from the cabin where he has been waiting, receives a richer robe than that in which he was clad before, and is adorned with a collar of porcelain beads. Then, after he has been given a handsome calumet and the necessary tobacco, a special official—with painted face—rises and declares the object of the meeting. This "herald" first lauds the dead, and, after describing the circumstances of his demise, concludes by stating that he lives again in the person of the successor designate. "There he is, who is clothed with that fine robe. It is no longer he whom you lately saw, and whose name was Nehap. He has given his name to another savage. His name is Etouait (that was the name of the deceased). Look upon him as the true captain of his tribe. It is he whom you must obey; it is he to whom you must listen, and whom you must honor." Here follow many interesting details of presents, food, and speeches. The new chief expresses his want of wisdom and general shortcomings in a tone of perfectly civilized humility and with more than modern conciseness. Decorum prevails, gifts are handed about in the most generous spirit, and the gravity of the spectators could not have been more complete had they stood within the gray walls of a cathedral.

—By appointment of the authorities of the University of Jena, Dr. Julius Pierstoff, Professor Ordinarius of Law in that institution, has prepared a full résumé of the salaries paid at the various universities of the Fatherland, the object which the Jena authorities had in view being primarily an increase of the salaries, on the ground that the instructors of that institution receive the smallest salaries among the university men of Germany. The *Denkschrift* of Prof. Pierstoff was printed "as manuscript," *i. e.*, for private circulation only; but the *Hochschulnachrichten*, No. 93, gives the leading data of his compilation. From this it appears that the salaries at the Bavarian Universities, Erlangen, Munich, and Würzburg, are on the whole in the most satisfactory condition, the present arrangement dating back to 1872 and 1892. At these three institutions, a full professor, from his thirtieth year, receives a salary of 5,100 marks ($1,275), which quinquennially is increased until in his seventieth it reaches the maximum of 7,080 marks ($1,770). An extraordinary professor at thirty receives 3,600 marks, the maximum at seventy being 5,580. These are the minimum sums, which are occasionally increased in the cases where a professor is transferred from one school to another, or the Government desires him to decline a call

to a non-Bavarian university. In no case, however, is the sum greater than 9,000 marks ($2,250). In Prussia, too, the salary question has been regulated by law. The average salary for a full professor in Berlin is 6,500 marks, and in other universities 5,500, while that of the extraordinary professor is respectively 3,250 and 2,750. The Berlin ordinarius begins with 4,800, and elsewhere with 4,000, to which, however, a certain sum for rent is added, with a gradual increase of 400 marks in intervals of four years. This increase a Berlin ordinarius may expect five times, but the professor in the provinces only four times. The Prussian extraordinary professor receives at the outset just half the salary of the ordinarius. These sums are the minimum, increased at times for special reasons.

—In general the Prussian Government, in deciding the salary of a teacher, makes the sum depend to a great extent on the personality and reputation of the individual. A special law regulates the inequality resulting from the difference in the lecture fees received by the various professors—these lecture fees in all the German universities being an income in addition to the regular salary—by decreeing that in Berlin the ordinary professor can receive annually only one-half of these in case they exceed the sum of 4,500 marks, and in the provinces 3,000; the other half being taken by the state for the benefit of other teachers not blessed with large salaries or fees. In the Würtemberg University of Tübingen, a three-class system of normal salaries is in vogue for the full professors, based on the years of service. The minimum salary is 4,030 marks. The extraordinarius begins with 2,020. A special fund of nearly 150,000 marks is at the disposal of the Government for special salaries in special cases. In the two universities of Baden, Heidelberg and Freiburg, the average salary of the ordinarius is 6,955 marks, with additional sums in special cases. The extraordinarii draw salaries varying from 1,820 to 5,220 marks. The Imperial University at Strassburg and the Saxon at Leipzig pay good salaries, but the sums are not mentioned; while the Hessian institution at Giessen pays its full professors 4,300, and its assistants or associates 3,250, with an increase until after twenty-five years of service the maximum sums of 6,300 and 5,250 are reached. In Rostock, the smallest of the German universities, the salaries of the full professors run from 4,500 to 5,850 marks; the extraordinarius begins with 2,400. In Jena the lowest sums are paid, the ordinarii receiving 300 less than is paid even at Rostock.

BUSCH'S BISMARCK.

Bismarck: Some Secret Pages of his History. Being a Diary kept by Dr. Moritz Busch during twenty-five years' official and private intercourse with the great Chancellor. Two vols., 8vo, pp. xvi, 504, 585. The Macmillan Co. 1898.

No politician ever used the newspapers more systematically than did Bismarck. He began to organize Prussian influence over the press when he was at Frankfort, in the fifties. When he became Premier, the press bureau connected with the Foreign Office at Berlin was brought to unexampled perfection. A number of ready writers, journalists and professors, were employed to work up articles which Bismarck desired to have published and to secure the insertion of these articles in German or foreign journals. Sometimes the Premier gave a mere hint of what he wanted; sometimes elaborate instructions. At times he dictated the entire article. He nearly always indicated the journal or journals in which the article was to be published. Of the newspapers listed as available, some were notoriously in confidential relations with the Foreign Office; others were unsuspected; many had only occasional relations with the Prussian Government. The articles appeared sometimes as editorials, sometimes as correspondence from German or foreign cities. If the matter verged on the scandalous, it was first printed in "any out-of-the-way yellow journal" *(irgend ein entferntes Schandblatt)*, in the confident expectation that it would soon find its way home (vol. ii., p. 56).

It was for this sort of work that Busch, a journalist and writer of books, was taken into the Foreign Office, February 23, 1870. He was not placed in the regular press bureau; he was to be a sort of auxiliary skirmisher, receiving orders directly from the Chancellor. During the war of 1870 he accompanied Bismarck and the mobilized Foreign Office into France. The rough life of the campaign threw the chief and his staff into close companionship: they lived in the same quarters, messed together, and discussed questions of all sorts with military freedom. After Bismarck's return to Berlin in March, 1871, this easy intercourse came to an end, and Busch saw the Chancellor only when he was summoned to receive instructions. In July, 1871, even these business interviews ceased, and Busch had only to carry out the instructions transmitted to him through others. In his immediate relations to Bismarck he was supplanted by Professor Aegidi, for whom he instantly conceived a natural and rancorous hatred. He still enjoyed, however, the privilege of inspecting documents relating to foreign affairs, which had been granted to him during the war, and he took the liberty of making excerpts for his own use. He also received much confidential information from Lothar Bucher, a man of great ability and high character, whose relations to Bismarck were of longer standing than his and far closer.

In the spring of 1873 Busch had grown thoroughly weary of his subordinate position, and exchanged it for the editorship of the *Hannoverscher Courier*. His resignation was accepted with the customary thanks for his diligent services, and, in accordance with the arrangement made when he took office, a pension of 1,200 thalers was granted him. In a parting interview Busch promised to hold his pen at the service of the Chancellor, and it was arranged that he should receive inspiration from Bucher. More than four years elapsed before Busch again saw the Chancellor. The last two years of this period were spent in Leipzig; for Busch had left the *Courier* and joined the staff of the *Grenzboten*. In April, 1877 (on a hint from Bucher), he went to Berlin in order to get points for a journalistic campaign against the court clique which was endeavoring to oust Bismarck from his place, and which, according to the information Busch received, was headed by no less a person than the Empress Augusta. From this time till 1893 Busch saw Bismarck every year except 1884 and 1892, and made several visits at Varzin and at Friedrichsruh.

At first the interviews were sought and accorded for journalistic purposes only. Whenever Busch heard or suspected that subterranean work of importance was wanted, he applied for direct instructions, and his applications were usually granted. Then came interviews about Bismarck articles which Busch was to write, and other interviews regarding the Bismarck books he had written and wished to publish. Bismarck was induced, with some difficulty, to read these books before they were published, and then came further interviews over the proof-sheets. Finally, in 1888 and afterwards, Busch was occasionally called in to sort and copy the Prince's correspondence. In no single year, however, was the number of Berlin interviews above half-a-dozen; and the longest visit, that at Friedrichsruh in the autumn of 1888, extended over only five weeks. We particularize in this fashion in order to show how incorrect an impression is given by the claim of "twenty-five years' . . . intercourse." Counting each day in which Busch saw Bismarck as a full day of "intercourse," we roughly estimate, from Busch's own statements, that, after the first year (1870-'71), he enjoyed three months of Bismarck's society.

Of the opportunities accorded him Busch unquestionably made the most diligent use conceivable. He had a good memory, which grew stronger with practice. No matter what burden of work was thrown upon him—and Bismarck spared his assistants as little as he spared himself—Busch always found an opportunity, after each day with his chief, to jot down the interesting things that Bismarck had said; and Bismarck himself seems to have admitted the accuracy of these reports. The first important use which Busch made of his material was to publish, in 1878, a great part of the diary he had kept during the French war. In this book there was some padding, but an immense amount of Bismarck—more of the real every-day Bismarck than the public had then had from any other source. The success achieved by 'Graf Bismarck und seine Leute' was very great; it had a remarkable sale in Germany and was translated into various foreign languages, appearing in English as 'Bismarck in the Franco-German War.' In the following year Busch published some further extracts from his diary—'Neue Tagebuchsblätter'—but these attracted much less attention. In 1884 Busch attempted something more ambitious in 'Unser Reichskanzler.' He endeavored to portray Bismarck's character in a systematic way, using not only his own notes, but Bismarck's published correspondence and speeches. In this book there was so much more Busch than Bismarck that it fell comparatively flat. It was, however, translated into English, and has furnished Bismarck's biographers with some useful anecdotical material. During the past summer, immediately after Bismarck's death, Busch published in the London *Times* some new extracts from his diary and from the papers he had copied at Varzin and at Friedrichsruh; and almost simultaneously there was printed in Germany a pamphlet entitled 'Bismarck und sein Werk,' in which he utilized the same new matter.

In the present work we have, in English translation, practically all of Busch's material: the original diary which he kept from 1870 to 1893; many of the newspaper articles which he wrote at Bismarck's suggestion (and not infrequently from Bismarck's

dictation); and the copies of documents or excerpts from documents which he made in the Foreign Office, at Varzin or at Friedrichsruh. There is naturally a great deal of matter in these volumes that has been used in his previous books. The greater part of the first volume (pp. 48-423) is merely a new edition of 'Bismarck in the Franco-German War'; but a good deal of the padding has been removed, the translation is more accurate, and nearly all the passages that had to be suppressed in 1878 are now printed. The relation of the second volume to Busch's other books and magazine articles is somewhat similar, although we have here somewhat more new matter.

The historical importance of the new matter in the present work is not great. Nearly all the revelations Busch hesitated to make in his earlier publications have in the meantime been made by others. That King William wished to attend the assembly of German Princes at Frankfort in 1863, and that Bismarck had great difficulty in preventing him, we learned many years ago from Sybel. That the Crown Prince opposed the reactionary policy of the *Conflikts*zeit (1862-'66) was fully understood at the time. That Bismarck found it far from easy to induce the King to follow the anti-Austrian policy of 1865 and 1866, and to sign an alliance with Italy, we have long known; the facts were first revealed by the Italians and then set forth by Sybel. The story of the Gablenz mission of 1866, just before the war with Austria, is also in Sybel. The scene in the hut in Bohemia, where Bismarck pleaded with the King and Moltke for a lenient treatment of Austria and a speedy peace; his failure to convince them by argument, his retreat to an adjoining room, his hysterical sobbing, and the King's final compliance—all this has long been in print. That Bismarck promoted the candidacy of Prince Leopold for the vacant Spanish throne; that this candidacy was "a trap" set for Napoleon; that the trap was sprung with the "editing" of the Ems dispatch—all this again was suspected by Sorel and made certain several years ago by the publication of the diary kept by Leopold's brother, King Charles of Rumania, and the printing of the story of the *dîner à trois* in Berlin. That all the "exalted ladies" at Berlin opposed the bombardment of Paris, and that Frederick was induced by his wife to work against it, was made notorious at the time, largely through the efforts of Busch and the other press agents of the Prussian Foreign Office. That Frederick desired to deal roundly with the South German states in 1870 and force them, if necessary, into the proposed empire; that Bismarck opposed this course and achieved the desired end by diplomacy—this came out ten years ago in the public discussion provoked by the excerpts from Frederick's diary which Geffcken published in the *Rundschau;* and here again Busch had a hand in the revelations. Passing to the period subsequent to 1870, we obtained the inside Bismarckian view of all the principal events several years ago, from Blum, in his 'Deutsches Reich zur Zeit Bismarcks.' Blum, like Busch, had interviews with Bismarck, and Bismarck read his proof-sheets also. Blum told the story of Bismarck's enforced resignation just as Busch tells it. All that Busch adds is the text of Bismarck's resignation. This, however, is not the document for which historians have been waiting. What they want to see is the memorial which accompanied the resignation, and in which Bismarck set forth the reasons why it was desirable for him to remain in office. Of this memorial Busch claims to have a copy, but he does not dare to print it; he fears that it would disturb Germany's foreign relations.

It would be unnecessary to recapitulate all these things that we knew before, except for the fact that Busch tells them all with the air of giving us something quite new. He never refers to the version which others have given of the same story—not even when it varies from his own. This has already misled many reviewers who are imperfectly acquainted with the Bismarck literature; and their reviews have given the public an exaggerated impression of the importance of Busch's book as a contribution to history.

In many cases, however, as has just been intimated, Busch's version of a story—or rather Bismarck's version as reported by Busch—differs from the account elsewhere and previously printed. New or varying details are added; and in some cases new light is thrown upon the events described. Whether this new light is always a white light, and the new color which facts assume a true color, may be doubted. Bismarck was a great *raconteur*—one of the greatest of our time. He had a literary instinct for effective presentation and dramatic point; and every student of literature knows that this temperament produces a mixture (sometimes unconscious) of *Wahrheit und Dichtung.* Besides this, Bismarck was before all things a politician. The spoken or written word was to him an instrument for affecting men's minds, for controlling opinion, and shaping events through opinion. Even in his retirement it was impossible for him to speak or write without this instinctive tendency. Bucher, who began in 1890 to write Bismarck's memoirs from dictation, told Busch that he was "well-nigh desperate" over the work. Bismarck's chronology, he declared, was quite untrustworthy, and falsified the causal relations of things (vol. ii., p. 562. "Casual" is the adjective in the text—an obvious misprint). This was partly due to the infirmities of age; but

"There is yet another drawback. In these notes he might think of history, of a legacy for the future, and that would certainly be most praiseworthy and useful, as there are many things of which he alone has a complete and accurate knowledge. But he seems to be thinking rather of something else. *His thoughts are still with the present, which he desires to influence.*" (Vol. ii., pp. 541, 542. The italics are ours.)

Here Bucher has clearly diagnosed the temperamental bias of the man of action; and this bias was, of course, always operative—not merely in Bismarck's old age, but also in 1870, when Busch began to report his table-talk.

Of greater value, for historical purposes, are the documents that Busch prints in the latter part of his second volume. Of especial interest is the letter, remonstrating against the policy of the ministry, which Frederick wrote to Bismarck in 1863, with Bismarck's marginal comments. From this letter and these comments alone a historian of any insight could reconstruct the two men. Characteristic in a high degree is also Bismarck's memorial to the King, in the same year, concerning the public opposition of the Crown Prince. "Even now," he writes, "clergymen are preaching from the text 2 Samuel, ch. xv., verses 3 and 4" (vol. ii., p. 462). The clergymen were probably mythical, and Bismarck does not enlarge upon the point or write out the verses; but when King William looked them up, he read:

"And Absalom said unto him, See, thy matters are good and right; but there is no man deputed of the King to hear thee.

"Absalom said, moreover, Oh that I were made judge in the land, that every man which hath any suit or cause might come unto me, and I would do him justice."

The majority of the new things that we find in Busch's present volumes are rather of biographical than of historical interest. The portions of the diary kept during the French war that were omitted in 1878 and are printed now, are chiefly frank expressions of Bismarck's opinions of nearly all the rulers of Germany, from "the Coburger" up to King William. They are in many cases extremely disrespectful; in not a few instances they would have furnished ample ground, if the speaker had been a common man, for prosecution. Bismarck was quite within bounds when he said, in November, 1870: "Every one of us has already deserved ten years' penal servitude, if all our jibing at princes during the campaign were proved against us" (vol. i., p. 239). There is less of this sort of thing in the second volume, but there is quite enough there also to explain the sensation which extracts from the book are said to have excited in Germany.

The biographical value of Bismarck's appreciations of the old Emperor, of Frederick, of their consorts and of William II., is incontestable; but his judgments, like his historical reminiscences, are to be used with caution. They depended to a considerable extent upon the momentary relation of agreement or disagreement between Bismarck and the person of whom he was speaking. When Frederick is in opposition to Bismarck, he lacks the strong sense of duty which characterizes his father (vol. i., p. 282). When, nine years later, Bismarck is struggling to obtain the old Emperor's assent to the Austrian alliance, and is supported by Frederick, the former is dull, wilful, and opinionated, "but the Crown Prince is entirely different" (vol. ii., p. 196). After Frederick's death, however, and the publication of his diary, "he was far from being as clever as his father, and the latter was certainly not a first-rate politician" (vol. ii., p. 428). There are similar changes in the view taken at different periods of the Crown Princess Victoria (Empress Frederick); and there is naturally a great difference in Bismarck's opinion of the present Emperor before and after 1890. The only prominent person of whom Bismarck never expresses a favorable opinion is the old Empress, Augusta, who was always in opposition to his policy; first on liberal grounds, and later under clerical influences. If, however, we contrast the judgments passed on each person at different periods, and allow for the momentary bias which affected the single utterance, we get in each case a striking and fairly consistent portrait.

On Bismarck's own character these newly revealed utterances throw no new light. Busch was not the only person before whom Bismarck spoke freely, and many of the Chancellor's sarcasms about royal personages circulated in the diplomatic gossip of Berlin and of Europe until they found their way into print. It is probably true, as Bismarck said in alluding to the things that Busch had heard from him: "The King knows that I have already said much worse things of him" (vol. ii., p. 100); and the King's knowledge of his Premier's unbridled

license of speech gives a special meaning to the remark he made to a Minister who could not get on with Bismarck: "We must all learn to be patient" (vol. ii., p. 380). But though Busch does not disclose to us for the first time this trait in Bismarck's character, he gives us many striking illustrations of it besides a couple of quotable sayings from Bismarck himself. "I lack altogether the bump of veneration for my fellow-man," he once truly remarked (vol. ii., p. 307); and at another time he declared that, but for his religious belief, he could see no reason why he should subordinate himself "to those Hohenzollerns. They are a Suabian family no better than my own." "A resolute faith in a life after death—for that reason I am a royalist; otherwise I am by nature a republican" (vol. i., pp. 163, 164). We have here a really curious bit of Bismarck psychology—his association of belief in religion with submission to royalty. It was thoroughly mediæval, but it was perfectly genuine. In 1847, he had asserted that the words "by the grace of God" were to him no empty sound, and his views on this point never changed.

Busch tells us repeatedly that he had Bismarck's authority to publish "everything" after Bismarck's death. He reports one utterance of Bismarck's, however, which should have made him hesitate:

> "Ever since 1847 I have constantly represented the monarchic principle and held it aloft like a banner. Now I have seen three Kings in a state of nakedness, and frequently these exalted gentlemen did not make altogether a very good show. Still it would not do to say that. . . . And if it [the publication of the memoirs] takes place after my death, then they will say: 'There you have it! Even from his grave! What a detestable old wretch' " (vol. ii., p. 549).

Of course the chief significance of Busch's book is to be found in the picture he gives us of his hero. In its general effect it is undeniably repellent. Bismarck's high opinion of himself, his arrogance, his overbearing disposition, his capacity as a hater—all these things are strongly brought out. Of the fidelity of the picture there can be as little question, we think, as of the accuracy of a photograph. But we all know that the camera is capable of caricature. Everything depends on the light, the position of the sitter, and his momentary expression. In estimating the truth of the impression that Busch makes, we must remember that many of the utterances he reports were made in moments of expansion when, after work at high pressure, Bismarck vented the impatience or anger aroused by hindrance or opposition; many more were made when he was directing underground press-work against his adversaries, and his nature was "subdued to what it worked in."

THE ARMY CHAPLAIN.

War Memories of an Army Chaplain. By H. Clay Trumbull, formerly Chaplain of the Tenth Connecticut Volunteers. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. 421.

Mr. Trumbull has given us a book upon the civil war which is in some respects unique. The chaplain of a regiment had a peculiar experience, and as the clerical profession is in constant touch with literary work, it is a wonder that we have not oftener heard from the chaplain concerning his army life. Most of our veterans would say that it was so rarely satisfactory to the chaplain himself that he does not usually recur to it with pleasure or care to tell the unvarnished story. Mr. Trumbull's position in his regiment was exceptionally free from irksome conditions. He had a cordial understanding with the commandant, who took uncommon pains to give dignity and official recognition to the chaplain's work and to his personal position among the officers of the field and staff. Then the chaplain himself seems to have had uncommon adaptation to the rough life of the camp, and to have made himself acceptable to officers and men without forfeiting respect for his calling. He was recognized by the officers as a useful supporter of discipline and an aid to good relations with the rank and file, and by the latter as a friend in need and a hearty sympathizer in suffering or in sickness.

Chaplain Trumbull does not touch upon the radical difficulty found in the relations of the Government to religion. In this country the separation of Church and State creates peculiar embarrassments in selecting and appointing a chaplain for anything—an asylum, a legislative body, a prison, or a military organization. We all know that such appointments are too often farcical, and tend to bring our greatest public functions into contempt. The fathers took pains to show that, in separating government and religion, they did not mean to be irreligious, as when in the great Ordinance of 1787 they declared education and religion to be the pillars of a republic; but their children have never been able to find a way to choose a permanent chaplain for any public organization, civil or military, without giving good ground for debate whether the omission would not be better than the observance.

The problem became hopeless at the outbreak of the civil war. There were some fifteen hundred chaplains to be appointed, first and last, each chaplaincy a public office with "the pay and emoluments of a captain of cavalry." In the first great surge of patriotic emotion, many noble pastors offered to go with the young men of their flocks, and were appointed chaplains by the Governors of States. Even at first there was self-seeking, however, and it was not long before this office, like every other, was sought for with the use of all the "influences" and "pulls" which characterized professional office-seeking. The denominations and ecclesiastical organizations of the country had no recognized control over the appointments and hardly a practical check upon them. If a man was an authorized clergyman of a religious denomination, he was eligible. What constituted a "religious denomination," who could tell? A Mormon, a Shaker, a spirit-rapper, made quite as loud claims to belong to a religious denomination as any ordained minister or priest of the better known organizations. Governors of States differed in creed, or no creed, as much as their people. The fear of offending large classes of voters would make it easier to ignore the importunity of those who were backed only by small classes; the general wish of the men of a regiment had real weight; and so we could console ourselves, as we so often have to do, that the outcome might have been worse.

Logical consistency with our constitutional principle of independence of Church and State would not have worked badly if it had been earnestly tried. The home mission societies of the churches would have sent their missionaries into the field with as much zeal and as liberal support as was given to the Christian Commission and the Sanitary Commission. Laws to protect and encourage are quite another thing from laws to appoint and to pay. If the churches had acted in the spirit of the Apostle's reply to Simon Magus, it would have been better for religion and for them; but the many hundreds of places with "pay and emoluments" was demoralizing, and there were too many cases in which the military "cure of souls" was much of the sort that would have been administered by the Samaritan magician.

The position of a chaplain in the field was often made most unhappy, and sometimes quite intolerable, by the abuses of power on the part of regimental officers. The exercise of autocratic power is among the things quickest learned in military life—far quicker than fitting one's self to use it. The public used to laugh at the story of the Colonel on the Potomac ordering a detail of fifty men to be baptized because he would not be outdone by a neighboring regiment in which forty had received the rite. The author of the fable was hitting off the almost equally absurd things which ill-balanced possessors of authority would do. It was no uncommon thing for a colonel to treat a chaplain with studied insult, to mouth bigger oaths than common in his presence, and to browbeat and abuse him if by word or look the victim rebuked it. If economy of transportation and of means forced the chaplain to be one of the headquarters mess, he might have to live in closest intimacy with men who thought they were asserting their own independence by outraging his convictions and feelings on every occasion. He could not escape contact with wild carousal and gambling if he would. Of course such a state of things might be the exception and not the rule, but that it was of frequent occurrence every experienced officer of the civil war knows. If the chaplain were a man of character and ability, he would in time acquire influence over his companions, or he would prefer charges which would subject them to the discipline of a court-martial; but if he were timid and weak, he would live in torment, becoming a toady to make his position bearable, losing his self-respect and the respect of others.

In a country having an established church, the bishops and other dignitaries would exert their ecclesiastical powers both to discipline and guide their subordinates, and to protect them from imposition or abuse; but with us an army chaplain was, if he chose to be, free from all church supervision and control, as he was also isolated from the support and protection which a strong organization may give. This is another reason why a government like ours should not meddle with appointments to a religious charge, for the selection and commissioning implies a subsequent supervision and discipline which it can neither exercise nor commit to an ecclesiastical body.

We have thus added to Chaplain Trumbull's book a chapter which he has been chary of discussing, though he touches, here and there, upon the unfit appointments, the good men who had no adaptation for camp life, and the butts of the regiment who had an urgent call "to go for the mail" when firing began. He also mentions a small class of fighting chaplains, one of whom was killed, rifle in hand, in the streets of Fredericksburg, and another, in North Carolina, cheering on the men in action. Of eleven reported to have been killed in action, most may have been performing some legitimate

duty under fire, though the military rule is that non-combatants have no business in the line. They forfeit their protected character when they are there, and are neglecting urgent duty among the wounded that are carried off the field. Priests sometimes fought among the guerillas of Spain in the war with Napoleon, but, by doing so, they gave an extra tinge of barbarism to the conflict and provoked shocking retaliation.

A sound organization of chaplains' work in an active army would bring all the ministers in a division into recognized and authoritative relations to each other, with some administrative supervision in the joint council or in the ranking chaplain. The chaplains of a brigade might mess together, and be saved from enforced intimacy of social life with men maliciously disposed. Such a little organization would make a wholesome stimulus in the work of each, a mutual support against demoralization, and a mutual protection against tyranny. If it made reports of work to the division commander, it would find in many ways a great advantage in a quasi-staff relation to an officer accustomed to heavy responsibilities and comparatively broad views. The work of each chaplain would still be in his own regiment, with the possibility of providing for temporary service with detachments through the assistance of the organized body.

Mr. Trumbull's chapters on Religious Services in the Field, on Chapels, on Sermons, on Pastoral Work, are full of interesting matter, and very suggestive of the way in which coöperation of the kind above mentioned would raise and improve the whole service. Gen. Sherman has been credited with the saying that army chaplaincies were *meant* to be a humbug. What *he* meant was that the legal provision was merely an effort to obey a supposed popular demand in a matter which was in its nature incongruous with our political system—a hollow makeshift. A hearty effort on the part of the religious denominations of the country to solve the problem could not fail to improve the existing system, and might lead to the more radical solution which we have suggested. The present organization of a large army of regulars and volunteers offers unusual opportunity for investigation in this field if they choose to profit by it.

Cyrano de Bergerac. By Edmond Rostand. Translated from the French by Gladys Thomas and Mary F. Guillemard. R. H. Russell. 1898.

Cyrano de Bergerac. By Edmond Rostand. Translated from the French by Gertrude Hall. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1898.

Translators too often undertake their task in the spirit of the interpreter before a mixed jury who, on hearing the phrase "a vaporing puppy," promptly rendered it as *chien à vapeur*. But the collaboration which has produced the first of the two examples named above seems to have been conducted on a different method, which consists in occasionally substituting for the original words or phrases the easiest promptings of guesswork or the evasive quasi-paraphrase that misses both sense and spirit. Thus, *bouquetière, pharamineux, grignoter, toile*, are here respectively presented as shop-girl, marvel, crunch, and woollen (pp. 4, 53, 201, 263); while the following expressions, whether familiar or Cyranesque, are handled with corresponding freedom:

Simple bourgeoise, daughter of plain untitled gentleman (p. 22); *je fais tâter ma canne à leurs rubans*, make them taste my cane (p. 32); *retroussant mon esprit ainsi qu'une moustache*, my spirit bristling high like your moustaches (p. 48); *n'être aimé que pour ce dont on est un instant costumé*, to be loved for beauty—a poor disguise that time so soon wears threadbare (p. 243).

We forbear further examples. What becomes of M. Rostand's poetry under such treatment is already a foregone conclusion. Incidentally noting that the translators' knowledge of quantities is manifested in the verse

> You outrage *Thalia* in insulting me (p. 32),

where the name of the muse is obviously believed to rhyme with "dahlia," we are struck with the fitful way in which this version oscillates between undisguised prose and very improvable blank verse, the selection of the form being apparently determined by its facility and convenience, and in one or two cases relatively simple obstacles are met with summary suppression. For instance, at the end of act i., for the graceful verses

> Et sur son ronflement tintant un bruit fantasque,
> L'entourer de grelots comme un tambour de basque!

no equivalent whatever is offered (p. 70). As for the poetic sense to be expected from this version, no better test of it can be found than in the attempt at reproducing in English verses M. Rostand's lovely description of Gascony in eight lines (act iv., sc. 3):

> Ecoutez, les Gascons . . . ce n'est plus, sous ses doigts,
> Le fifre aigu des camps, c'est la flûte des bois!
> Ce n'est plus le sifflet du combat, sous ses lèvres
> C'est le lent galoubet de nos meneurs de chèvres! . . .
> Ecoutez . . . C'est le val, la lande, la forêt,
> Le petit pâtre brun sous son rouge béret,
> C'est la verte douceur des soirs sur la Dordogne,
> Ecoutez, les Gascons; c'est toute la Gascogne!

The translation of this is at all events literal:

> Hark to the music, Gascons! . . . 'Tis no longer
> The piercing fife of camp—but 'neath his fingers
> The flute of the woods! No more the call to combat,
> 'Tis now the love song of the wandering goatherds! . . .
> Hark! . . . 'tis the valley, the wet *landes*, the forest,
> The sunburnt shepherd-boy with scarlet *béret*,
> The dusk of evening on the Dordogne river,—
> 'Tis Gascony! Hark, Gascons, to the music!

"If this," said Campbell of Byron's blank verse in Werner, "be poetry, then we were wrong in taking his Lordship's preface for prose."

The second attempt stands in a very different category, for it makes no struggle after what is likely to remain unattainable until some perfectly bilingual and erudite poet sets a brave hand to the task. In the meantime, this generally faithful prose version will be of service to playgoers ignorant of French. Still, the conscientious translator must bear with us if we point out that, "La dentelle surtout des canons, coupez-la!" does not mean "Snip off the *canonical gentlemen's* lace" (p 8). *Canon*, in such a connection, is more commonly understood to signify a sort of seventeenth-century pantalette—not worn by women. Slips of this nature are not, however, the exclusive failing of translators, for did not Hugo ('L'Homme qui Rit') imagine "wapentake" to be an exalted high-constable? But no good reason can be given for the following mistranslations: *La ceinture qui craque*, the Belt and Bosom; *petit gredin*, imp of Satan; *en guise de buffet*, as on a platter trimmed with green; *monarque des drôles*, Man of the Monster Belly; *manteau roussi*, shaggy mantle; *Quai des Orfèvres*, Goldsmiths' Square, etc. Nor can anything be gained by cheap expansion and effort to improve on the original text, as in the appended specimens:

> On ferait une tour rien qu'avec nos tortils.
> Our coats of arms piled up would dwindle in the clouds (p. 85).

> Vous m'offrez du brouet quand j'espérais des crêmes.
> You proffer cider to me when I was hoping for champagne (p. 125.)

> Ah! que ce dernier jour de septembre est donc beau!
> Ma tristesse sourit. Elle qu'Avril offusque,
> Se laisse décider par l'automne, moins brusque.

"How beautiful, this golden hazy waning day of September at its wane! My sorrowful mood, which the exuberant gladness of April offends, Autumn, the dreamy and subdued, lures on to smile" (p. 218).

The best wish one can express for the author of "Cyrano" is an acquaintance with English hazy enough to prevent his realizing the disguises which his hero has been forcibly and hastily made to assume. Brilliant success, it is true, breeds in some men patience with temerity; but if we may read an author's feeling through his personage's words,

> *Son sang se coagule*
> En pensant qu'on y peut changer une virgule
> (act ii., sc. 7).

And translations attempted thus far seem to succeed only in emphasizing what is defective in the plot and grotesque in the leading rôle, by failing to convey the pathos of the central situation, as well as the high-bred courage and grace with which it is met.

The Spanish Revolution. 1868-1875. By Edward Henry Strobel. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 1898.

In some respects Spain is as little known to the outside world as is Central Africa. Its foreign connections are limited to France, for the German support has been withdrawn. Its financial policy has long since closed the foreign markets to its loans, state or corporate; and its internal and colonial troubles have prevented an effective attempt to regain even a small part of the influence it once exerted in European matters. Its political history since 1868 has been a mystery even to those who have made it a study, and the changes in the name of government since that time have been difficult to explain by party movements or principles. Professing to enjoy a suffrage and an elective Cortes, the people are not free to use the one with effect, or to determine the constitution of the other. The ministry of the day decides the results of the elections, and is able to announce before the day of the vote what majority it will have in the Legislature. This is not infrequently a barren victory, as there is no assurance that this majority will continue to exist even for a short time. The intrigue for office is keen and perpetual, and stays at no bargain or coalition.

The curiosities and at the same time the futility of such a system were never more clearly shown than in the seven years that followed the expulsion of Isabella II. A series of experiments in government were instituted and continued until the Restoration brought a reasonable assurance of stability and power to control the greatly divided sentiment of the politicians. It is this period of experiment and failure that is described by

Mr. Strobel. Possessing singular advantages for obtaining material by his residence in Madrid as the diplomatic representative of the United States, he has told the complicated story clearly and without bias. A mere statement of the facts is sufficient for the history, and constitutes an interesting study of political ineptitude. It has more than a local application, for it goes far to explain the slow development of administration in the Spanish-American republics.

Prim was a good soldier, but an unscrupulous politician. A combination of factions gave him his opportunity, and he used it to dethrone a queen whose rule had been marked by great irregularities in private as well as in public conduct. But Prim was opposed to the monarch and not to the monarchy. The constitution prepared while he was in power declared the form of government to be a monarchy, at a time when no one was ready to name a king. A domestic outbreak enabled the Regency to put down with a strong hand the Republicans, yet this could not remove the real cause of difference over the choice of a monarch. Ferdinand, the ex-King of Portugal and the nearest candidate, declined the honor so precipitately that he was obliged to explain his haste. The Duke of Genoa, then a pupil at Harrow and in the household of Matthew Arnold, was favored because of his connection with the house of Savoy, but his family refused to permit the use of his name. The somewhat dramatic abdication of Isabella in favor of her son, and the even more dramatic duel between two possible candidates, the Duke of Montpensier and his cousin Henri de Bourbon, were followed by the most momentous act of all—the offer of the crown to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern—an offer which was interpreted by France as against her honor and interests, and which led to the Franco-Prussian war. These repeated failures induced Prim to look again to Italy, and the Duke of Aosta, son of Victor Emmanuel, was elected. As Amadeo he accepted the throne.

The assassination of Prim was followed by serious differences in the combination that had chosen Amadeo. The King, who had a sincere desire to represent no one party, was gradually driven to depend upon the radicals, and this alienated beyond recall the other factions. None, not even the radicals themselves, were in favor of the King, for he was a foreigner. Ministry followed ministry in rapid succession, in vain efforts to reach a permanent and loyal basis, but the Cortes was unmanageable, did nothing to bring about a stable reform, and finally, after two dissolutions, accepted the abdication of the King without a murmur of surprise or dissent. The experiment of a democratic monarchy having failed, the Republicans now assumed control and undertook to frame a constitution, mainly the work of Castelar, which closely followed that of the United States. It was never put to the test, for the difficulties of the Government accumulated too rapidly to permit a trial. There were serious cantonal, Carlist, and Cuban insurrections; the European Powers distrusted the republic, and refused to recognize it; and, worst of all, the ever-present questions of Church and finance were pressing for settlement. Four Presidents held office for short terms, and no sooner was one seated than his followers began to intrigue for his deposition. The last of the series, Castelar, accomplished most and promised more; for he was no longer the ardent, almost extreme, Republican he once was, but was earnest for order and authority, to restore which dictatorial powers were conferred upon him. Even this could not save him from party intrigues, and, refusing to retain office by force, he resigned. Once more the power was in the hands of a soldier, Serrano, who was overthrown by an army intrigue and a restoration accomplished through Martinez Campos.

Such, in brief, was the record of the seven years, marked by revolutions, Carlist uprisings, and local riots; by military *coups d'état*, and by political intrigues and changes so rapid as to defy classification. When an obstacle is encountered by an administration, Cortes is dissolved and a majority obtained in the new body. Ministries resign or are overturned on matters so petty that they hardly rise above the dignity of nursery squabbles. The party changes are admirably detailed by Mr. Strobel. We wish he had been more full on the side of finance. The domestic and foreign debt was more than doubled in these years, and the propositions made by different Finance Ministers were too often tainted with dishonesty to win support. This is a phase that deserves careful study as a supplement to Mr. Strobel's painstaking and admirable political essay.

Silva Maniliana congessit Joh. P. Postgate. Cambridge (Eng.). 1897. Pp. vii, 72.

The star of Manilius seems at present to be in the ascendant. Twenty years ago the astronomer-poet was so sadly neglected that it did not occur to Lewis and Short to quote him even in illustrating the use of such words as *sidus*, *signum*, and *astrum*, which he employs perhaps more frequently than any other Latin writer does. But all that is changed now. Long and favorable estimates of the merits of Manilius as a poet find a place now even in popular manuals of Latin literary history, like the handbook of Mackail, for instance, and technical papers upon his work appear in rapid succession. This is notably true in England, where the last ten years have witnessed the appearance, in the field of textual criticism alone, of the 'Noctes Manilianae' and the collation of the Madrid MS. by Ellis, of a series of conjectures for book i. by Housman, and of the work before us. Perhaps this revival of interest in Manilius may be traced in part to the publication of two monographs in 1878 and 1888 respectively. One of these, Bechert's dissertation, 'De M. Manilii emendandi ratione,' established what must be recognized in the main as a sound basis for the textual criticism of the poet, and the other, the 'Lucubrationes Manilianae' of P. Thomas, offered a complete collation of G. with Jacob's text. The time would, therefore, seem to be almost ripe for the preparation of a new edition of the text to take the place of Jacob's, which can now be improved at many points. But the establishment of the text of Manilius will call for a rare combination of qualities on the part of an editor. He must not only be a scholar of keen insight and sound judgment, but, also, to quote the phrase used by Ellis in another connection, *astrologiæ peritus et astrorum*.

Postgate, in the volume before us, has a twofold purpose. In chapter i. he releases some verses from the ban which Bentley put upon them, and in chapter ii. he selects for emendation others which escaped even Bentley's suspicious eye. The work is a brilliant contribution to the criticism of the text of Manilius, and in many cases one is tempted to ask why so simple and probable an emendation has never occurred to any critic before. A case in point is verse 135:

Hinc fidae mentes tremebundaque corda creantur.

Here *infidae* is conjectured for the impossible *hinc fidae* with great probability. On v. 280-1, which in the accepted text reads,

Et si forte labor ruris tardaverit artes
Quis sine nulla Ceres, non ullus seminis usus,

Thomas remarked in 1888, "Huiusmodi igitur sententiam requiro: *Et si forte natura eis negaverit vires ad opus ruri faciendum, exercebunt artes sine quibus*, etc. Sed emendationem nondum inveni." Postgate has cleverly given to the passage the meaning which Thomas felt it must have by simply changing *ruris* to *viris* and by placing a comma after *tardaverit*. By an equally simple and convincing emendation, suggested by Martial VI. 28, 8, the meaning of III. 590-617 is made clear for the first time. One more passage may be cited in illustration, where the boldness of the critic is almost worthy of Bentley, for whom Postgate expresses an unbounded admiration. In G. II. 619 *sqq.* read as follows:

At quin Lanigeri partus sub utroque trigono
Non *parcit* sed rara gerit pro tempore bella
Quod feritas utriusque magis pro tempore *cogit*.
Plus tamen in duplici numerandum est roboris *esse*,
Cui commixtus homo est quam te, Nemeaee, sub uno.
Idcirco et pax est signis et mixta querella.

Accepting the emendation which had been made before, of *gerunt* for *gerit*, for the italicized words our author reads *atqui*, *pacem*, *surgit*, and *ipse*, transferring the comma from the end of the verse to a position after *roboris*.

A brilliant critic, especially if he has a fine appreciation of the subtleties of a language, is liable to see serious textual difficulties which do not exist. This charge cannot properly be made against Postgate in many cases. He is well aware of the unevenness of Manilius and of his frequent harshness of expression, and he does not try to make the poet say what he ought to have said. Of course all of Postgate's conjectures will not find a place in our next accepted text. Probably a majority of them will not. For instance, in I. 470 Housman's *tum lumina* seems preferable to *tum lunae*, and in III. 325 Jacob's *regens gressum*, for *gradus gressum*, the reading of G., is better than Postgate's conjecture, *gradus urgens*.

It would be out of place here to enter into a technical discussion of any of the individual conjectures made by Postgate, but in the matter of general critical methods a word should be said against the free use which he has made of transposition. A change in the order of words is a common error of scribes, but the transposition of lines is far more unusual, and where we are certain that such a mistake has been made, the cause of it can often be discovered in the context or in the condition of the archetype. To resort, therefore, to frequent and violent changes in the order of verses, as Postgate does, seems unjustifiable. Thus, in the passage beginning with I. 128, the order adopted is 128, 129, 171, 172, 130; after I. 421 he places 429, 428; after IV. 265 come 267, 268, 266, 269. In these passages no other reasons than exegetical ones are given in support of the changes which are proposed or accepted.

By way of an appendix to the conjectures contained in chapters i. and ii., in chapter iii. the author discusses the value of the Madrid MS., and gives an interesting summary of the commonest errors made by

scribes in the MSS. of Manilius. We are glad to learn that this valuable list will be supplemented by Bechert in the near future. This work belongs to a branch of the science of textual criticism which has been sadly neglected. There is great need of a collection and classification of errors for each one of the principal book-hands, based upon a comparison of an archetype with a direct copy. Lindsay, in his 'Introduction to Latin Textual Emendation,' has done this for the capitals and Caroline minuscules, but, until a similar work is done for the other styles of writing also, textual emendation must often rest on an insecure basis.

The Rainbow's End: Alaska. By Alice Palmer Henderson. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. iv, 296. Illustrated.

This is an account of a journey by Mrs. Henderson from Chicago to Tacoma, Unalashka, St. Michael's, and up the Yukon to Dawson. In it are recorded the impressions of a traveller who appears to have been wholly inexperienced in frontier life, exceptionally credulous of gossip, avid of sprightly tales, and careless in verifying random statements. Her adventures are related in a lively and amusing manner, are illustrated by numerous very good "process" pictures, and have been issued by the publishers in a very attractive form, only wanting a map and index to be unreservedly commended so far as outward form goes. The brightness and good nature, superficiality, inaccuracy, and cocksureness of the average American young woman stand out in bold relief on every page. This is the first typical "tourist" book on the Yukon, though southeastern Alaska has been the subject of a dozen of them. As long as the scenery serves as a text for the enthusiasm of such writers, we have no quarrel with them; but when, as usually is the case, the residents, native and white, are caricatured or misrepresented in a way no one would dare to use toward their own neighbors and fellow-citizens, there is room for some righteous indignation. Trifling and unimportant as this class of books may seem, they do much to form opinion in the average reader, and to this sort of opinion, no doubt, is due a large part of the indifference with which the general public has regarded the disgraceful mismanagement of Alaskan affairs by the Government. If we are led to believe a country is inhabited by degraded natives, whose religion is only "gross superstition," who are dirty, immoral, and disgusting, and by whites who spend their time in low dance-houses and despise missionaries, it is not unnatural that we should acquiesce easily in leaving them to laws and officials as imperfect, lax, or obnoxious as themselves. This would seem poetically just, however incongruous with our ideal democracy. Even the average missionary comes to his work with a store of such preconceived ideas; and it very naturally happens that everything which puts the non-missionary population in the depths of degradation, finds a place in the reports which are sent home to raise funds for the elevation of the Alaskans. The blacker the report, the larger the contributions of the benevolent; but this does not heighten the local popularity of the missionary, and so the vicious circle is continued.

Economically, it is unimportant that Mrs. Henderson should call the slaty murres "white birds," or should ascribe the purchase of Alaska in 1867 to a desire to prevent foreign nations from recognizing the Confederacy which collapsed in 1865. But the case is somewhat different when her errors and misconceptions relate to living people. What one learns of the natives, if one lives long enough among them with an open mind, is, that they bear an extraordinary resemblance in essentials to "folks." It is true they are often as dirty as some of the Christians of the East Side, and partake of equally ill-smelling dishes, but it is not because they prefer it, but because one cannot keep clean without soap, and soap is worth on the Yukon about the equivalent of ten dollars a cake in trade. Bathing in the icy streams of the Yukon valley is torture, but the Indian invented and frequently uses a hot steam bath. Any philanthropist who wishes to do good to the natives of Alaska can far surpass the average missionary by sending up a cargo of soap for free distribution. The religious ideas of the natives may be "gross superstition" from our standpoint, but they accomplished for ages some good things which we might do well to copy. In what Christian country can a man leave property of inestimable value, such as a gun has for an Alaskan Indian, in a tree in full view of passers-by, for weeks, and return to find it safe? In what Christian community can a stranger enter any house in it with a certainty of finding shelter for the night and a share of such food as the owner possesses?

It is very natural that the tourist on the Yukon from an old and settled community should be curious in regard to the sins of the dance-house and groggery, as rampant at Dawson as in some parts of Chicago. In default of mail and newspapers, these establishments furnish most of the gossip on the Yukon. They are naked and not ashamed. But for every hundred men who waste their substance in the desperate endeavor to break the dreary monotony of life among the frozen placers, under the Arctic night, there are a thousand toiling mightily for wife, children, and home, quitting themselves like men. "Where the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together"; the gambler and barkeeper follow the miner on the trail. Where the way is too difficult, as at the gates of the Passes, the scum is left behind to form a human cesspool, as was the case at Skagway for a time.

If one desires to describe a social condition or a people such as those on the Yukon, it is unfair and wrong to dwell on the evil traits of a minority, or on customs which are the result of a pitiless environment, as if there were not behind it all human hearts, passions and ambitions, self-denial, charity, and courage. Not that Mrs. Henderson is, in her thoughtless superficiality, a sinner above many others, but we have used her book as a text (as it is the first, probably, of many to come), in the hope that our present sermonizing may awaken a greater sense of responsibility in those who may attempt to describe for others the passing phases of Alaskan development.

Aetolia: its Geography, Topography, and Antiquities. By William J. Woodhouse, M.A., F.R.G.S. With maps and illustrations. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

This is the day of specializing in every line of research, topography not excepted. What in topography corresponds with the district survey, as opposed to the mere route survey of the engineer, is the only kind of research countenanced by the exact science of the day. Consequently, Mr. Woodhouse has done well to limit his researches to one province of northern or continental Greece. Thanks to this fact, he has produced the most important work of its kind since the time of the honest and careful Leake. Moreover, he has been fortunate in the selection of a comparatively open field—one that has been unduly shunned, not alone by modern travellers, but in great measure by Pausanias as well. Mr. Woodhouse's chief object has been to give a more or less exhaustive account of the natural or physical characteristics of the country, but his broad humanity leads him not only to fix the sites of ancient towns and the scenes of historical events of classical times, but also to treat of the sites of events in the history of later Greece. He says truly that history attains its full value only by borrowing actuality from geography and topography, and in this he is supported by the somewhat exaggerated contention of Mr. Ramsay:

"Topography is the foundation of history. No one who has familiarized himself with Attic history in books, and has afterwards ascended Pentelicus and seen that history spread before him in the valleys and mountains and sea that have moulded it, will ever disbelieve in the value of topography as an aid to history. . . . Yet few that study Greek history, and play the part of examiner or examinee in it, realize what we owe to the greatest of modern topographers, Leake. Who that goes through the usual course of highest honors in ancient history and literature, ever hears the fame of Leake, or knows that he has done more to make a real understanding of Greek life possible than any other Englishman of this century? We all know Curtius's 'History of Greece'; how many of us know a finer and greater work, Curtius's 'Peloponnesos'? Some of us are even so narrow as to imagine that the reading of some modern books, supplemented by a little study of Thucydides, Herodotus, and Xenophon (a few reach Polybius—how few go deeper!), will enable us to understand ancient history. If we want to understand the ancients, and especially the Greeks, we must breathe the same air that they did, and saturate ourselves with the same scenery and the same nature that wrought upon them. For this end correct topography is a necessary, though humble, servant."

Despite the fundamental correctness of this utterance, there are several points in it which might be disputed with success. However that may be, it is the underlying principle on which Mr. Woodhouse has built his work. All will agree with him that Ramsay's 'Historical Geography' is "a thesaurus of knowledge," but few will admit that it is "a very text-book of topographical *method*," for the reason that not many serious books have been hurled together, so to speak, as unmethodically as has this. Mr. Woodhouse not only adopts the virtues of his prototype, and they are certainly many, but some of his vices as well. Like Ramsay, he often displays inability to write plain, straightforward, understandable English, and his presentation of facts is often slovenly and wearisome. But, for all that, his work cannot be dispensed with by any one who would gain an accurate knowledge of Aetolia and Aetolian geography, which, on the whole, is not at all complicated and presents few great problems.

The book itself is beautiful, and is abundantly illustrated with maps and excellent reproductions of photographs.

Geschichte der Musik in England. Zweiter Teil. Von Dr. Wilibald Nagel. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

The history of music in England is a good deal like England itself: there are some picturesque lakes and peaceful valleys, charming villas and fine cathedrals, but the mountains are low, and there is not a single Alpine summit crowned with eternal snow. In the first volume of his history, Dr. Nagel was called upon to record only one masterpiece (for its time), the canon "Sumer is icumen in," which indicated that England was ahead of the Continent in the technique of composition; but it was an isolated phenomenon and did not create an epoch. In this second volume, which brings his task to a close, he takes us from John of Dunstable to Henry Purcell, the immediate precursor of the imported Handel. Purcell is certainly a peak; the English have made a sort of sacred Fuji of him, yet, in truth, he is not a snow mountain, being hardly visible from the Continent. The chapter which Dr. Nagel devotes to him includes an excellent summary of what is known of the only school of national opera England has ever had—for Gilbert and Sullivan's works are operettas.

Dr. Nagel cannot find the "English school of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries," of which Coussemaker speaks—that is, he cannot find a group of composers having in common certain peculiarities of style that might be called typically English. He finds, on the other hand, many evidences of England's being influenced by the Netherland school, which at that time ruled Continental music and continued to do so for several generations. There is nothing specifically English in Dunstable and his contemporaries; to them music is little more than *Tonspielerei*—dallying with tones—the expression of feeling being as yet out of the question. In technique the English composers appear to have equalled the Netherlanders, and it must be said to their credit that they avoided the most aggravated tricks and artifices of composition by which some of their rivals degraded themselves to the level of charlatans; but, on the other hand, the England of this whole period has no master comparable to Josquin, who did not make technique an end in itself, but a means to the expression of ideas and emotions. The English composers of the fifteenth and part of the sixteenth centuries were not prophets, but listeners to echoes which the Netherlanders had left behind them.

The branch of music in which England shows to best advantage is the madrigal (unaccompanied vocal compositions in several voices), of which the modern glee is an outcome. In these pieces the melodies do not appear to have been invented merely from the point of adaptability for contrapuntal development, but seem genuine, spontaneous, and in consonance with the spirit of the words to which they are sung. The same spirit is found in Purcell's dramatic works. Unluckily Purcell allowed himself to be too much influenced by the taste of the hour, giving up opera and devoting himself to what the populace wanted. This disposition Dr. Nagel notes as a weakness of the English composers in general; they stoop to conquer. Another old English trait in the musical sphere is the aversion to abstract speculation and theory. In the days of Elizabeth even the theoretical writers, of whom there were very few, avoided discussing the topic of the resurrected interest in Greek music. In the latter part of the sixteenth century, when music was becoming more and more a social art, Morley was quite disgusted when he found himself called upon to devote himself to theoretical questions.

The æsthetic side was less neglected. Lawes agreed with Milton in complaining of the difficulty of making a musical use of the English language; his own aim was, he explained, "to shape Notes to the Words and Sense," to make the musical accent always coincide with the poetic. The author cites in the appendix a little known letter of Milton to Master Sam. Hartlieb, in which he recommends that a youth's speech be "fashioned to a distinct and clear pronunciation, as near as may be to the Italian, especially in the vowels. For we Englishmen, being far northerly, do not open our mouths in the cold air wide enough to grace a southern tongue, but are observed by all other nations to speak exceeding close and inward; so that to smatter Latin with an English mouth is as ill-hearing as low French." Milton also declares his belief in the utility of music in morals and hygiene: "Sometimes the lute or soft organ-stop . . . have a great power over dispositions and manners to smoothe and make them gentle from rustick harshness and distempered passions. The like also would not be unexpedient after meat, to assist and cherish nature in her first concoction, and send their minds back to study in good tune & satisfaction."

A peculiarity of music in England is that, more than anywhere else, it was affected by political and religious changes. To these Dr. Nagel gives brief attention, especially to the antics of the Puritans and the attacks on the Mass, which, he says, were made "in a shameless, outrageous manner, and with a rudeness that defied all moral sensibility." Socially, too, the musicians suffered much. Taverner, having been found harboring forbidden books and pamphlets, was, unlike the other culprits, set free, on the ground that he was "only a musician," from whom, presumably, outside of music, nothing sensible could be expected. Public opinion made music and her serious devotees suffer for the irregularities and vices of the wandering minstrels. It may be added that Dr. Nagel's second volume is written in a less involved style than his first and that it is beautifully printed. The footnotes are relegated to the back, and the reformed spelling is used, the essence of which seems to be a war of extermination on the mute letter h.

A Dictionary of the Yiddish Language. Compiled by Alexander Harkavy. New York: Published by the Author. 1898. 8vo, pp. xvi, 352.

In the Middle Ages, as even to-day in countries of oppression, the Jews have used their Hebrew alphabet in transcribing the languages of the Gentiles among whom they lived. As a rule, the transcription is purely phonetic, and in that way the older writings of the Spanish, French, Greek, and German Jews form a very valuable material for philological studies of the corresponding countries at the periods of their composition. Only when widely separated from the influence of their Christian fellow-citizens, the language taken with them into exile begins to deteriorate, or to develop independently. This has happened with the Spanish which is spoken by the Sephardic Jews of the Balkan Peninsula, in Asia Minor, and on the northern coast of Africa, where, under the name of Ladino, one may hear even now a group of dialects which, in enunciation, resembles more the language of Cervantes than the native modern language of Spain, though slightly affected in vocabulary by Turkish, Arabic, or Slavic elements. The same thing has taken place with the German of the Jews who, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, fled from the Middle Rhine into Poland, where they found a hospitable reception from its kings and nobles. Under Slavic environments and subject to Hebrew training, the Jews have evolved the Yiddish, or Judeo-German, which is nothing else than the local dialects of the Middle Rhine, in which 30 per cent. of Hebrew and Slavic words have been substituted for the original German.

From the sixteenth century up to the present there has been produced a vast literature (mostly of a popular character) for the Jews of the Slavic countries, which, for lack of native initiative, also became the literature of their German coreligionists. It early attracted the attention of Christian scholars and missionaries, who devoted some remarks to the peculiarities of the language contained in it. Buxtorf, Wagenseil, and later Callenberg, Chrysander, Selig, and several others, have written grammars and dictionaries of the Judeo-German. In our century has appeared the large work of Avé-Lallemant, which contains both a grammar and a dictionary of the language. None of these, it is true, is exhaustive, as they confine themselves mainly to noting the Hebrew part of the composite tongue.

Of late Yiddish has developed, in Russia and America, an astonishing activity, and in the course of fifty years it has produced a large and noteworthy literature. The names of the classical writers, such as Aksenfeld, Abramowitsch, S. Rabinowitsch, Frug, Perec, Rosenfeld, deserve to be known to a larger class of readers, and their works would well pay translating. There have also been written dictionaries of Judeo-German, two of which deserve special mention—the Russian-Yiddish dictionary of I. Dreisin, and the Russian-Yiddish and Yiddish-Russian dictionaries of O. M. Lifschitz. The first reached a fourth edition in 1892, and contains 832 pages. Lifschitz's works are storehouses of valuable and rare definitions (the first edition was published in 1876 at Zhitomir), and fill 648 closely printed large octavo pages.

After these preliminaries, one can easily see how ridiculous the introductory words of the author under discussion are. He says in the preface:

"The present work is the *first attempt at a Yiddish Dictionary, and therefore an entirely original production.* In the compilation of this book *the author has had no predecessors to follow*, and thus the work undertaken has been very difficult; it has consisted in gathering the stray words of the language, in arranging them alphabetically, and in poring over their definitions. This dictionary is the product of six years' indefatigable labor."

In comparing the first page of Lifschitz's Yiddish-Russian Dictionary with this work, one finds the following words absent from the latter: *obode, obid, obchod, ewentow, obcas, obcwenge, obce, obrot, ogrod, ogrodnik, odlche, aderof.* At this rate, the author has omitted 3,000 words which he might easily have copied out of his predecessor. In reading the first page of Aksenfeld's classic 'Dos Schterentichel,' the following words were

found absent from Harkavy's work: *schterentichel, redne, sich reissen* (strive), *lerow, hosn* (hareskin), *kehren* (belong), *staren sich, sarwer, chosserdejenik,* and several others of Hebrew origin. But these faults are not the worst in the book, for the grammatical forms are for the most part incomplete and entirely wrong; one will in vain look for the plural *naronim* of *nar* (fool), while for *kunst* Harkavy gives the German plural *Künste* instead of the Judeo-German *kunsten* or *kinst.* This will suffice to prove the absurdity of the author's claims, which, to be lenient with him, we shall suppose are the result of insufficient knowledge. His diligence, if he knew nothing of any previous sources, cannot be denied, and his work may still be of use to such Russian Jews as wish to discover the English meaning of a Yiddish word, and to those who want to read Yiddish, although in many cases the dictionary will fail them.

Colonial Mobile: An Historical Study, largely from original sources, of the Alabama-Tombigbee Basin, from the discovery of Mobile Bay in 1519 until the demolition of Fort Charlotte in 1821. By Peter J. Hamilton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898. Pp. xii, 446.

Mr. Hamilton's attractive volume has, of course, primarily a local interest, but its breadth and thoroughness give it value in a wider sphere. Mobile had a varied early history. Visited by Piñeda, Bazares, De Soto, and other Spanish explorers, and mapped and claimed for Charles V. and his successors, it became, after a century of obscurity, the French capital in the days of Iberville and Bienville, and saw the progress of the commercial ventures of Crozat, Cadillac, and John Law. Then, losing its preëminence as the capital, and becoming instead the administrative centre of the eastern department, it passed, in 1763, into English control, only to be taken again by the Spanish in 1780, in whose hands it remained until its capture by the Americans under Gen. Wilkinson in 1813. As a centre of French and Spanish influence, the natural outlet for an extensive Indian trade, and the most important military and commercial point between Pensacola and New Orleans, the history of Mobile is more than the history of a single town; and Mr. Hamilton has added to the interest and value of his work by emphasizing, as occasion offered, the points of contact with a larger world.

For the rest, the book is a minute account of the early history of the city—its streets, its houses, its public buildings, its fortifications, and its old families. The difficult subject of the early land-grants and titles is given special attention. The claim of the author to original research is amply borne out by these portions of his work. He has used, for the first time, the invaluable Mobile church records for the period subsequent to 1704, the early court and land records, the Haldimand papers, and such collections as Margry's 'Découvertes.' The illustrations, drawn mainly from contemporary sources, are finely done, and add much to the value of the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. I. L. In Nature's Image. Chapters on Pictorial Photography. Illustrated. Baker & Taylor Co. $2.50.
Africa. By Stanley and Others. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Atkinson, Prof. G. F. Elementary Botany. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Austin, Prof. A. E., and Coriat, I. H. A Laboratory Manual of Physiological and Clinical Chemistry. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.25.
Beddard, F. E. Elementary Zoölogy. Longmans, Green & Co.
Black, Hugh. Friendship. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Blaikie, William. How to Get Strong, and How to Stay So. New ed. Harpers. $1.75.
Bloundelle-Burton, John. The Scourge of God. A Romance of Religious Persecution. Appletons. $1.
Cable, G. W. Old Creole Days. Doctor Sevier. The Grandissimes. John March. Bonaventure. Scribners. Each $1.50.
Collins, Dr. Joseph. The Genesis and Dissolution of the Faculty of Speech. Macmillan.
Crawford, F. M. Ave Roma Immortalis. Studies from the Chronicles of Rome. 2 vols. Macmillan. $6.
Crockett, S. R. The Red Axe. Harpers. $1.50.
Darwin, Prof. G. H. The Tides and Kindred Phenomena in the Solar System. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Dodge, Mary M. Irvington Stories. New ed. W. L. Allison Co.
Douglas, Amanda M. Sherburne Girls. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Fisher, Prof. G. E., and Schwatt, Prof. L. J. Text-Book of Algebra, with Exercises. Part I. Philadelphia: Fisher & Schwatt. $1.25.
Foster, L. C. A Syllabus of English Grammar. Macmillan. 60c.
Gudeman, Prof. Alfred. Tacitus: Dialogus de Oratoribus. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Guerber, H. A. The Story of the English-American Book Co.
Günther, Ludwig. Kepler's Traum vom Mond. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Hammond, S. T. Hitting vs. Missing with the Shotgun. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. $1.
Harper's "Round Table." 1898. Harpers. $2.50.
Hewett, Katherine M. Freytag's Velorene Handschrift. Macmillan. 60c.
Higginson, T. W. Tales of the Enchanted Islands. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hultsch, Friedrich. Die Gewichte des Altertums. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Humphrey, Maud. Baby's Record. Illustrated. F. A. Stokes Co. $2.50.
Humphrey, Maud, and Tucker, Elizabeth S. The Littlest Ones. Illustrated. F. A. Stokes Co.
Jacobs, W. W. More Cargoes. F. A. Stokes Co.
Kemble, E. W. The Billy Goat, and Other Comicalities. Scribners. $1.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Day's Work. Doubleday & McClure Co.
Kobbé, Gustav. Miriam. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50c.
Lamb, Charles and Mary. Poetry for Children. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Lang, Andrew. The Arabian Nights Entertainment. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Latta, Robert. Leibniz's Monadology and Other Philosophical Writings. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Leonard, Mary F. The Story of the Big Front Door. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Loughead, Mrs. Flora A. The Black Curtain. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Maartens, Maarten. Her Memory. Appletons. $1.50.
Mabie, H. W. Essays on Work and Culture. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Merriman, H. S. Roden's Corner. Harpers. $1.75.
Miller, Rev. J. R. Young People's Problems. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Munro, Neil. John Splendid. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Murison, A. F. Sir William Wallace. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Needham, J. G. Outdoor Studies. American Book Co.
Newth, G. S. Manual of Chemical Analysis. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Noble, Annette L. Jesse. A Story in the Time of Christ. American Tract Society. 75c.
Oman, C. W. England and the Hundred Years' War. Scribners. 50c.
Ottolengui, R. Final Proof; or, the Value of Evidence. Putnams. $1.
Park, C. M. An Alphabet of Animals. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $2.
Parker, Gilbert. The Battle of the Strong. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Paterson, Arthur. Father and Son. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Peck, Prof. H. T. Trimalchio's Dinner. Translated from the Original Latin. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Remington, Frederic. Frontier Sketches. Werner Co. $2.
Repplier, Agnes. Philadelphia: The Place and the People. Macmillan. $2.50.
Scott, Sir W. The Fortunes of Nigel. [Temple Edition.] London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $1.60.
Smith, Prof. Munroe. Bismarck and German Unity. Macmillan. $1.
Studinczka, Franz. Die Siegesgöttin. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Symonds, J. A. Sketches and Studies in Italy and Greece. New ed. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.
Taber, C. A. M. The Ice Age, Past and Coming. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
Thackeray, W. M. Esmond. [Biographical Edition.] Harpers. $1.75.
The Casino Girl in London. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
The Story of Little Jane and Me. Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co. $1.
Thompson, E. S. Wild Animals I Have Known Illustrated. Scribners. $2.
Torrey, Bradford. A World of Green Hills. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Upton, Florence K. The Golliwogg at the Sea-Side. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Webb, F. R. Manual of the Canvas Canoe. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. $1.25.
Wells, Prof. B. W. A Century of French Fiction. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
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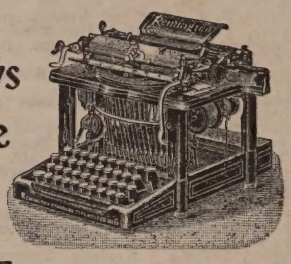

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 3, 1898.

The Week.

Dispatches from Paris and Washington agree that the Commissioners sent by the United States to arrange with Commissioners of Spain the terms of a treaty of peace, on Monday demanded as one of its features the surrender by Spain to this nation of all the Philippine Islands, as territory of the United States. We do not now discuss the wisdom or folly of annexing this archipelago. We simply point out that its acquisition would mean the incorporation into our system of an immense group of islands on the other side of the globe, occupied by eight millions of people, of various races, that are for the most part either savage or but half-civilized; which the most ardent advocate of the policy admits can never become States in the Union, and which, therefore, must constitute colonies of such a sort as were never contemplated by the founders of this nation, and for the government of which we have no precedent in our history. We then invite attention to the manner in which this revolutionary change in our policy is to be effected, if the McKinley Administration can have its way with the Senate when the treaty drawn up at Paris shall be submitted next winter. No step in the development of the American republic since the adoption of the Federal Constitution is comparable in importance with the annexation of the Philippines. The abolition of slavery, although it required a four years' war, necessitated no change in our form of government and no departure from the principles of a Union of equal States upon which the Government had been established; while the annexation of a distant group of islands, which can never become States, involves a radical departure from all our traditions and our methods. Yet a change in policy of such stupendous importance to democracy is to be made—so far as the McKinley Administration can make it—without any expression of opinion on the subject by the people through a vote, either directly or indirectly, and in response to the supposed demand of the populace.

Representative Boutelle of Maine, who showed his courage in standing out against the craze over Venezuela three years ago, and against the demand for a needless war with Spain last spring, served notice in a speech to a Republican club in Boston, on Saturday week, that he will make a fight in Congress for the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. "I look upon that question," he said—the question what shall be done "where our flag has gone up"—"as one of the most important, as involving the deepest considerations of statecraft, as of more vital interest to the future of the people of this country, and possibly to the future relations of the nations of the earth, more important than anything that has transpired affecting the relations of the great Powers of the earth within the last generation." He asked his countrymen that "they shall meet that question like statesmen and thoughtful patriots; that they shall not let themselves be carried away by any wild enthusiasm of military glory; that they shall not rush to conclusions simply because the flags are waving overhead and because the guns are exploding to the right of us and to the left of us." For himself, he did "not believe that, because Gen. Miles and his legions marched so triumphantly across the island of Porto Rico and raised our flag so gloriously over its citadel, it carries one iota of obligation upon us to assume responsibility of the government of that island, either by acquisition or otherwise, if we deliberately conclude that it is not for our best interests to do so." Nor was he "yet ready to believe that the fundamental principles of the Declaration of Independence have become obsolete," or that "we have reached the time yet to repeal any portion of that most magnificent creation of statecraft and patriotism, the Constitution of the United States."

John W. Stewart, ex-Governor and ex-Congressman of Vermont, one of that old school of public men who thought out public questions and had the courage to stand by the convictions which they reached, was lately asked by a Burlington editor whether he believed in the "imperial" policy which is now so popular with the bosses, the speculators, and the clergy of the United States. Replying, "most emphatically," in the negative, Mr. Stewart expresses his regret that we already have incorporated into our body politic "the heterogeneous peoples of Hawaii and Porto Rico," but would make the best of it by accepting their future statehood as inevitable, and trying to minimize as much as possible the harm of this inevitable result. Here, however, he "would draw the line absolutely." He pronounces "intolerable and indeed unthinkable the idea of taking the hundreds of the tropical Philippine Islands, with their millions of incongruous heathen, or any one of them, with a view to their ultimate incorporation into our system as an integral part thereof"; and he holds that "we cannot run two irreconcilable systems of government at the same time without shipwreck." He says that we have denied the principle of the free choice of the people in taking Hawaii and Porto Rico without consulting the wishes of their inhabitants, and we cannot safely go a step further on that road. "Our great paramount duty is to guard the rights and interests of the seventy-five millions of our own people, and to preserve and maintain intact the vital principles upon which our own and all popular government rests."

The bellicose clergymen are beginning to "catch it" from the laity. The truth is, the average man had his breath quite taken away for a while by the chorus of war cries from apostles of "the Prince of Peace" who advocated the conquest of savages in order to give them the Gospel, and it has taken some time to recover the power of speech. Now that the man who sits in the pew is able to express his views, he is making very clear his opinion of the extraordinary doctrine which has been preached at him from the pulpit. Mr. J. N. Larned of Buffalo, in an admirable address at a reception to officers of the Thirteenth Regiment the other evening, characterized as one of three influences which are "working dangerously in this country" to carry us into political courses that have their issue in war, "ministers of a class who look for the Gospel of Christ in the Jewish war-histories of the Old Testament"; the other two being "newspapers of the class that would sell 1,000 lives, if they could, for a shrieking headline, or a hideous picture, or a startling newsboy's cry on the street," and "Senators and Congressmen of a class who listen to the talk of barrooms and take it for the public opinion of the country." Mr. Larned declared that he "feared them, feared the delusive, sham patriotism and sham religion that they hold up to us," and contended that the real "mission" of this people is "to work out a grand experiment of self-government for mankind, clear and exempt from all the old-world tangles of feudal and military growth; to build this republic great and high, and to perfect it from base to pinnacle, as a model to the nations of freedom, of justice, of honesty, of honor, of order; to make its people missionaries, not by preaching, but by example, of Christian righteousness and peace."

Apropos of the "blessings of civilization," which we were going to distribute with a lavish hand in both the West and East Indies, the thoroughly trustworthy correspondent of the *Evening Post* in San Juan tells a shameful story of the disgraceful misconduct of United States troops in Porto Rico. He quotes

the complaints of the Ponce newspapers, all of which were most cordial in their reception and support of the new government, and states that his own investigations confirm the worst that is charged. Briefly, the Ponce press declares that "there is no safety" on the streets; that "our ladies are at all times exposed to the insults of drunken soldiers"; that soldiers rob servants going to market, enter restaurants, drink until intoxicated, beat the servants and break the crockery, and even enter private houses and steal what they can lay their hands on. One of the newspapers sums the matter up by saying that "we suffered much under the Spaniards, but certain of our liberators commit greater offences than those of our former masters." So unbearable have these outrages by the United States troops in Porto Rico become that a Ponce journal already says that "these acts are breeding hatred between us and the Americans," and suggests that if the authorities, civil or military, do not put a definite stop to them, "a commission be sent to Washington to energetically set our complaints before the Government and the American people." Another newspaper says that, if these abuses continue, "we shall lose all our illusions of liberty and justice, and the consequences will be truly lamentable, because we will not submit quietly to a new tyranny." It is only a few weeks since we landed our forces in Porto Rico, with the announced purpose of putting an end to the intolerable rule of Spain in that island.

It will be unfortunate if we should lose Illinois just as we are acquiring the Philippines, for Illinois is worth fifty Philippines. But Illinois has already left the Union without the firing of a shot for its preservation. It has passed, to our eternal disgrace, under the rule of a man called Tanner, a barbarian of the type of Menelek of Abyssinia—that is, a half-savage with a gloss of Christianity. He has already virtually declared war against the United States by forbidding the entrance of any persons from the Union into his dominions without his permission, and threatening to kill them with Gatling guns if they attempt it. He has apparently cowed the President of the United States, who attempts no resistance to the dismemberment of the republic, but some say that he will lead an army against Tanner after the election. The true reason of his tame submission we believe to be the absence of so large a portion of his troops civilizing and elevating Spaniards and Tagals. If Tanner is to be opposed, however, it ought to be done quickly, for he is daily gathering strength and committing fresh atrocities. But we must give the devil his due. The "yellow" story that he cuts off heads for fun, we are assured has no foundation. His civilization, though thin, is of a much higher type than King Koffee Kalkalli's.

There seems to be no doubt that the Mormons in Utah have broken their pledges to give up polygamy on condition that their Territory should be admitted into the Union as a State, and that the Church is "running things" with as high a hand as ever. The testimony which comes from Gentiles who represent various denominations is so clear and detailed that nobody can question the fact. Under ordinary circumstances people would be stirred up over such a state of things, and ask what should be done about it. But since we have become a "world Power" and are engrossed in "spreading the blessings of civilization" all over the globe, the Mormon problem is a mere "parochial question," which nobody has time to bother over.

The usual number of negroes were lynched last week. Two were thus disposed of in Edgefield County, S. C. The charge against them was the killing of a white woman. One of the inculpated negroes, named Sullivan, accused the other one, named Mackey, of the crime. Mackey denied the charge, and retorted that Sullivan was the guilty party. So both of them were lynched in order to make sure of punishing the right one, although one of them had been exonerated by a Coroner's jury. A third negro was killed in the course of the proceedings, but the dispatches do not tell why. The course of events was varied slightly at St. Helena Parish, La., where a white man was lynched for taking sides with a negro in a quarrel which the latter had with another white man. News comes, simultaneously, from Lafayette, Ala., of a lynching that occurred there several days ago.

We cannot recall a more extraordinary political spectacle than that which was displayed in Lenox Lyceum on Monday evening, when Gov. Black made his first appearance in the present campaign. Elihu Root, the man who in 1895 denounced Lou Payn as a "corrupt lobbyist in the legislative affairs of the State," saying that for thirty years he had "been notorious, a stench in the nostrils of all good and honest men in the State of New York," spoke from the same platform with the Governor who, in full knowledge of Payn's character and in full light of Mr. Root's exposure and denunciation of him, appointed Payn to one of the most powerful offices in the public service of the State. Mr. Root not only did this, but he spoke of the joint appearance of himself and the Governor as gratifying evidence that the Republican lion and the Republican lamb were "getting together and fighting together with equal ardor against the common foe," and declared of the Governor that "no Republican in the State can come before the people of this city and find a more sincere welcome or receive for his words more genuine respect." Yet the last time the Governor came to this city he spoke from this same platform in defence of Platt's course in opposing Low with Tracy, thus putting Tammany in possession of the city. Mr. Root was at that time denouncing Platt for joining hands with Croker against honest and decent government of the city. We should like to know what kind of conduct Mr. Root would require of Gov. Black to convince him that he was not worthy of the "genuine respect" of the people of this city. Forgery?

The best indication we see, of an indirect kind, that Croker is uncertain about his future is his talking so much. Last year, when he achieved an immense victory, there was no talking on the Democratic side at all; the silence, as it proved of confidence, reigned. This year his talk is incessant, and it is the talk of a blackmailing criminal. He threatens his more prominent opponents with exposures of various sorts, just like the strolling extortioners who so often make erring citizens pay smartly, lest their sins should find them out. Thus far, however, we cannot say he has done much for popular morality. Most of his stories are either evident exaggerations, or silly trivialities, or plain lies. A good work he could do, but is not doing, would be the exposure of the companies and financiers who for some years past have been paying him blackmail in return for dishonest legislation. If he would produce some particulars of this kind, he would make a genuine sensation and help the "organization." In fact, there is not a man in this community, in all probability, who has so much dynamite stored in his capacious bosom.

There is a bit of *concio ad clerum* of our own composition, apropos of Croker, which we faintly hope may be blessed to some of our clerical brethren: "Knowing as you do, beloved, what kind of person Croker is, how he began life, what his career has been, how he lives, where his income comes from, what his notions of duty and patriotism are, what kind of political morality he diffuses through the poor and ignorant masses of this city, what immense influence he wields among them; seeing, too, how he talks to judges, legislators, merchant princes, and how respectfully he is listened to, do you not feel that these admonitions he is addressing to us are an awful shame to us as a Christian community? Do you not also think that there is something very absurd in gentlemen like some of you longing to get

at more heathen to evangelize and elevate when you have a state of things like this at your own doors? Are you not, considering the moral and religious state of your nation at this moment, among the comic 'expansionists' of history? Are you not amusing in trying to bring the heathen to sit under you by the aid of quick-firing guns, when you have already got fifty times more heathen around you at home than you can possibly manage? Is there in Cuba or Porto Rico or the Philippines a shame more burning, a deeper disgrace, than this same Croker? Had the Spaniards any ruler more steeped in iniquity, or more expert in the arts which kill the soul, according to the story you tell every day in your pulpits, than he is? Will you not look down and around a little more, and think of the duty that lies nearest at hand instead of your duties in longitude 120 degrees and latitude 15 degrees?"

The decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois in the case of the Pullman Palace Car Company, holding that the company had no right under its charter to own a town and exercise municipal authority, must not be considered as an attack on the rights of property. It is a well-known rule of the law of corporations that they cannot exercise powers not specifically granted to them. This is a necessary rule since, without it, there would be no limit to their powers except those which they set for themselves. It is very likely that if the Pullman Company, in its first application for a charter, had applied for the powers which it has since exercised in the town of Pullman, they would have been granted. They have certainly been beneficial to the community there domiciled, and have been not harmful to any other people. Still, as the powers exercised were never asked for and never granted, it was pretty certain that they would be annulled if ever called in question in the courts. The unauthorized powers exercised by the company include the holding of real estate other than the amount necessary for the purposes contemplated by the charter, and the exercise of functions which the general law of the State contemplates shall be possessed and exercised only by the municipal authorities of cities and towns and by the public-school authorities. It may be true, and we think it is, that the town of Pullman has been managed better by the company than it would have been by ordinary municipal authorities, and, perhaps, its schools have been better managed than they would have been if under the supervision of the public-school authorities; yet it was altogether an *imperium in imperio*, which could not last if it were once challenged. The case goes back now to the lower court to be tried in conformity with the rules laid down in the opinion of the Supreme Court. The company's property rights are not molested, subverted, or impaired.

Building the tombs of the prophets who had been stoned to death is an old way of making amends. The new way is to erect a statue. One of Shelley now stands in the grounds of the college from which he was expelled for supposed atheism; and a few days ago a statue to Dr. James Martineau was unveiled at Manchester New College, Oxford. This, of course, is a Nonconformist foundation, and the University proper was not involved. Yet Oxford gave Martineau the degree of D.C.L. in 1888, and at the ceremony the other day the Master of Balliol, Dr. Caird, took a part. Considering the radical type of theology, even for a Unitarian, represented by Dr. Martineau, this marks a great advance in the spirit of toleration, and of reverence for the finer qualities of mind and life irrespective of theological differences. In Jowett's Life there is an amusing account of the flutter at Oxford when it was discovered that the American Minister, Mr. Everett, who was to receive an honorary degree from the University, was a Unitarian. He nearly lost his degree; and, as it was, the horrified dons (it was in the full tide of the Oxford Movement) shrank from the unconscious American as if he were another Cerinthus and they so many St. Johns.

There is at least this to be said about the action of the French Chamber in upsetting the Government, that it went swiftly to its aim without being at all diverted by the threat of a foreign war. The Prime Minister was evidently manœuvring to get the Parliament to "stand behind" him, like another American Congress when the President breathes a word of war. The various "groups" and parties were sounded to see if they would not drop everything else for the moment and face England as one man. It was eminently a time, as Mr. McKinley says, for "sinking all differences at home" and presenting a united front to the foreign foe. But the lucid French Deputies were not humbugged by this talk. They knew what they wanted, and marched towards it with startling rapidity and directness. The war could wait. One minister was as good as another to front the enemy. So down went the Brisson cabinet with a crash. The display of passion, and the motives operative in the mob and Chamber alike, were not highly creditable; but at bottom the political instinct was a sound one which refused to put up with an intolerable domestic situation on the plea that foreign complications compelled it. We doubt if any other country in the world would have been equal to doing this. England would not. Salisbury's opponents are falling over each other in their haste to declare that he can count on them if his voice is for war. As for our own Congress, in the place of the French Parliament, it would have voted Brisson a milliard on sight, wept and shouted and waved the flag, and been interviewed in all the yellow journals like fury.

People are saying that the Paris mobs look as if 1789 had come again, but one must go farther back than that to find a parallel for the Dreyfus revelations. The cold official report made on Thursday to the Court of Cassation reads like a chapter out of the history of the fifteenth century. Alexander VI. and Francesco Sforza seem to have come out of their graves. They could have had no more brutal frankness in putting an innocent man out of the way than Gen. Gonse has displayed. "But he is an innocent man!" protested Col. Picquart. "What has that to do with the case?" was the reply. "Mercier and Saussier sent him to the Isle du Diable, and there let him rot." Not the faintest idea of justice as a natural right or as a pillar of the state appears to have been in the mind of any of these military chiefs. Another mediæval note of the Dreyfus affair throughout is the frightful credulity which has rested like an obsession upon Frenchmen of all classes. The machinations of "the Jews" have taken the place of the evil eye and demoniacal possession as a means of popular terrorization. Even the coolest men go off their heads in the general mania. When Col. Picquart carried to Bertillon, the expert, documentary proof that Esterhazy, not Dreyfus, wrote the famous *bordereau*, all that he could see in the facts was that "the Jews" had been training a man for two years to imitate the handwriting of the *bordereau*, and at last they had succeeded in deceiving even him. Cruel injustice, unbounded popular gullibility—these are true characteristics of the Middle Ages. Happily, France seems to be waking herself from her four years' nightmare about Dreyfus, and he is at last in a fair way to have an impartial trial.

The Court, as well as public opinion in France, has reversed itself. It dismissed Zola's appeal on the narrowest technical grounds, though his counsel, though Col. Picquart, stood ready to prove all that has since been proved about the forgeries and the secret documents. Then, when the nation was raging at Dreyfus and "the Jews," the Court easily found law to support the popular contention. Now that press and people are convinced that Dreyfus was grossly wronged on his first trial, the Court of Cassation finds itself of that opinion, too, and discovers abundant warrant in the statutes for granting a new trial. The case will add but one more to the historic examples of judges finding the law to execute the popular will.

COLONEL WARING.

We have to announce, with the deepest sorrow, the death of Col. Waring, on Saturday morning, of Cuban yellow fever. This Cuban war has cost many valuable American lives, but they have been generally young lives whose value lay largely in their promise. Col. Waring was distinctly a man of mark, to whom the city and the whole country had incurred the deepest obligations. His labors as a sanitary engineer in various towns and villages had literally carried light into numerous dark places. In this city he solved a problem which many wise and experienced heads deemed insoluble, by showing that the streets of New York could be cleaned, and by cleaning them. That they could not, was the opinion even of Waring's warmest friends, who regretted that he should attempt, in the afternoon of life, a task so unpromising. He consulted us before undertaking it, and we gave him what encouragement we could, but the way he was received at the beginning of his enterprise seemed to justify the forebodings of those who dissuaded him. He was received with a howl of derision and contumely from the press and the politicians and office-seekers. It made no difference that he was trying to do something to benefit the public, and that it would be a great thing for the city if he succeeded. He was treated from the outset as a public enemy. Of course Tammany raved against him, but the Republican politicians were just as bad. The Republican machine denounced him from the first. The "Grand Army of the Republic" were infuriated against him because he publicly resented their pursuing him for places for decrepit or lazy men, whose only merit was their having possibly served in the war thirty years previously. Then, he lived at the time of his appointment in Newport, and to have the streets cleaned by a Newport man was more than a hungry New York politician could bear. In fact, to sum up, we doubt whether any public officer in America has, in time of peace, ever undertaken the performance of a public service under more disheartening difficulties.

To crown all, the clamor provoked by his outspokenness, so rare among American office-holders, finally became so great as to alarm Mayor Strong, and lead him to threaten him with dismissal. We confess that we, who knew the anxieties which lay behind Waring's cheerful face during his first year in office, were filled with admiration for his calm. To hold his post and carry out his plans under such conditions needed a steadier and loftier courage than the charge of any battery or redoubt. We do not need now to tell the people of New York, over his cold ashes, how many things he did for their welfare, how he not only cleaned their streets, but infused new hope and promise into the movement which, in his time, began to spread, for a better municipal life; how he made municipal cleanliness and hygiene popular and welcome in the foulest regions of the city; how he cheered municipal reformers all over the country, by showing them what heart and hope could accomplish in this apparently most unpromising of fields. This is now an old story, which every one who longs for better things knows by heart.

But there is another lesson in Waring's history and in his sad end, which we would fain hope the American public will take to heart. We are trying one of the most astonishing experiments ever tried by man since society was organized. We do not mean the experiment of democracy. There is just as much to be said for that as for any other form of government. The place where power is lodged makes little difference, as long as the power is well exercised, as long as the public good, and not selfish interest, is its aim. What we are trying to do is to exercise power through the least fit members of the community, through its failures and ignoramuses, through persons whose only qualifications for office are greed and selfishness, want of skill, want of love of country, want of public spirit. We are trying to exercise power with a complete ignoring of most of the lessons of human experience, either ancient or modern, in the conduct of human affairs. To say that knowledge, the knowledge that our successful colleges all over the land are so busy in accumulating, goes for little in our government and is rather despised by our governing class, is to state a familiar fact. We are treating the lessons of history and science with equal contempt. Take the case of the recent war with which we are so delighted, because we happened to have a weak and imbecile enemy. What has human experience—that is, history and science—to say about going to war with raw troops in the middle of summer in a tropical country? What has human experience of war, or, in other words, military science, to say about taking raw troops to the field under officers as raw as themselves? What has human experience to say about beginning war without any preparation whatever—commissariat, medical service, staff, or suitable clothing or drill? And who planned the war and urged it on? War is the most awful and solemn undertaking in which human societies can engage. Who was it said ours was "necessary," and should begin immediately? Who became "our country" *pro hac vice*, demanding "son and wife, limbs and life"? Was it our men of mark, our statesmen, our scholars, our philosophers or jurists, our great soldiers or seamen? On whose requisition was it that our youth left their studies and offices to slaughter their fellow-men? Was it not mainly men whose advice we should not think of taking on any affair of private conduct for a single moment; on whose recommendation, if not "clothed with a little brief authority," we should not think of destroying a troublesome dog?

We shall not answer these questions. We trust to most of our readers they answer themselves. But they lead us back directly to Waring's case. Waring proved himself, in one department of American life very important for our health and comfort, to be the leading, if not the only, expert in the country, for whose advent we had vainly waited ever since New York became a city. Were our affairs, as we have said, conducted rationally, we should at once have seized on him for permanent service, at such a salary as we pay a railroad president, for instance. We should never have let him go as long as he retained his faculties, if money could keep him. But we dismissed him, almost with contumely, at the end of three years. During his term of office he had the wretched salary of $6,000 a year, and he quitted his office in debt; but we have joyfully spent $400,000,000 in killing Spaniards and destroying their property, on behalf of a people whom we confess that, before we began killing, we knew nothing about, and, when it was over, we acknowledged to be worthless.

When Tammany turned him out, did reason hold much sway among us, would not a dozen American cities have begun to bid for his services? Nearly all American cities are in the condition in which New York was when he took charge of the streets. We do not suppose one of them ever thought of such a thing. The proposal to employ an expert for such a purpose would have seemed the thought of a wild visionary or millenarian. Then appeared the comic feature which so often marks our public affairs. A better illustration of the working of our "expansion" policy we could not have desired. Although every city in America needed him, the city on which he was set to work was a city in Cuba. In other words, *pace* Griggs of New Jersey, our own problems were dropped in order that we might tackle those of the Spaniards. He was sent by our President into holes in a foreign city reeking with the filth of four hundred years, to which the inhabitants were acclimated, and which they probably liked, and laid down his life for "expansion." The cleaning of Spanish streets is none of our business. The business we have, with such folly, taken on ourselves, is to provide Cubans with a government of their own, which will clean their streets if they want them clean. We are no more bound to clean the streets of Havana than the streets of Pekin, which need it even worse.

We may rely on one thing, that unless we keep Cuba indefinitely under military government, and clean it through

our soldiers, the streets neither of Havana nor of any other Cuba town will stay clean one day after we leave. Once the Cuban people enter again into the management of their own affairs, they will keep the streets the way they like them—that is, dirty. And why should they not? How do we keep ours in most of our cities? Keeping the streets clean is an affair of character, as we have said about the "sea power." You know whether a people will keep their streets clean by the kind of men they employ in the transaction of their public business.

Waring was sent to Cuba on an errand as foolish as most of the "expansionist" policy. He sacrificed in it a life of great value to the American people. This is probably what will continue to happen if the American people continue to allow such sages as Hanna and President McKinley to shape their "destiny" for them, without a word of protest. They are doing it now without a voice being raised. Napoleon did not dispose of France with less let or hindrance than our Napoleon disposes of us, and yet we know or feel that he does not concoct our "destiny" himself, but has it dealt out to him in instalments by a private friend. And we may be sure that if "expansion" continues, Waring will not be its last victim. We shall continue to send our best citizens, who would be invaluable to us at home, to solve for the benefit of the Tagals and the Cubans problems which here in America we refuse to consider for a moment. If we knew the things which make for our peace and prosperity, we should regard the life of a man like Waring as of more value to the American people than the whole island of Cuba and all that it contains.

THE "ELEVATION" BEGUN.

Senators Hanna, Quay, and Platt and all other eminent advocates of expansion and empire assure us that the enlargement of our boundaries will elevate and broaden us as a people by compelling us to take wider views of our mission in the world. The eloquent Griggs has said that the business of governing our new possessions will "raise the sense of political and official obligation as they increase responsibility," and "will take the people out of the treadmill rounds of domestic politics, where issues are too often artificial and transient." He has bidden us "lift up our eyes to the heights where, glory-crowned, the genius of American liberty points to a future pregnant with prodigious good to all mankind," meaning thereby our new possessions, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines. A striking glimpse of some of these "glory-crowned heights" is afforded us in an account of the experiences which Gen. Wood, Governor of the Military Department of Santiago, is having with some of the new peoples to whom we are extending the blessings of American civilization and incidentally elevating our national character.

Gen. Wood, who was appointed by President McKinley to his position of Military Governor after the fall of Santiago, has been travelling over our new possessions in that region with a view to giving them good American government in place of the barbaric Spanish rule which we went to war to exterminate. He reached Manzanillo a few days ago and found there awaiting his arrival "no fewer than two thousand insurgents, of whom 500 are officers, who want office, and whose clamor almost amounts to a demand." They are divided into two factions, one led by Gen. Jesus Rabi and the other by Gen. Rios. Nearly all the offices, including the mayoralty and custom-house inspectorships, are held by the Rabi faction, but the supply is by no means equal to the demands of that faction. Gen. Wood, proceeding upon the approved American method in such cases, sought to "pacify" the Rios faction by giving them "six places on the rural police force, the lighthouse at Cape Cruz, and several other minor appointments." What is the result? "Neither party is satisfied, each thinking that he ought to have all the offices." Something like that situation has surely existed in this country at various times and places. Gen. Rios has had an interview with Gen. Wood, and has demanded that Gen. Jesus Rabi's man, who is in possession of the mayoralty, be "fired" and his own man be given the "place." From this point the interview became so thoroughly American in character that we quote the account in full:

> "Gen Wood asked on what grounds the dismissal could be sustained. He said: 'Is not the Mayor a competent officer? Has he not an excellent reputation? Did he not serve bravely and effectively throughout the entire war?' To all of this Gen. Rios replied in the affirmative, but he insisted that *his own nominee was entitled to the place, because he was a Rios man. The interests of the city and locality were apparently minor considerations* in the mind of the Cuban commander. But this appears to be the case everywhere among the Cuban insurgents."

Is not that the genuine American system as it is practised by all our bosses and put in operation by the President? The surprising statement is made in the account from which we are quoting that Gen. Wood "regards the outlook as rather discouraging"? Why? we should like to ask. Could stronger evidence be given us that the "elevating" process has already begun in Cuba? Not only begun, but, so far as this portion of our new possessions is concerned, virtually completed. They have grasped our system perfectly. What is the difference between the reasoning of Gen. Rios in favor of having his man put into the mayoralty of Manzanillo, and that which President Harrison followed when he "fired" Mr. Pearson from the postmastership of New York and put Mr. Van Cott in his place? Were not the "interests of the city and locality minor considerations" in that transaction? Was not the same line of reasoning followed by President McKinley in reference to the Comptrollership of the Currency, the post-office in Brooklyn, and, in fact, nearly all the large offices of the country? Is it not, in short, the very basis of our political system as administered by all our Presidents and Governors and bosses whenever they come into power? Instead of being "discouraged," we should lift our hands in wonder and admiration at the phenomenal quickness with which our Cuban allies in the late war have grasped the spirit of our institutions. They have no sooner caught a glimpse of "American civilization" than they have said, "That is what we want."

They want it so deeply that they have given up everything else in the way of occupation in order to get it. Read this picture of them in the account from which we are quoting:

> "The majority of the insurgents here have no money, and go about living from hand to mouth and wondering what will happen next. Armed men are not allowed rations. As the Cubans will not disband and will not work, nothing remains for them but to strut about the city with machetes and revolvers. Some of them are nearly naked, others appear in long-legged patent-leather boots with silver spurs, carrying superbly wrought Toledo machetes. A few wear immaculate white suits and Panama hats. These are, for the most part, the New York contingent, each man now a veritable Bombastes Furioso."

When we read also that Gen. Wood is "besieged by the seekers for office," in what respect does the scene differ from that which we are accustomed to in Washington every four years when a new President is inaugurated? The apparel of the new Cuban-Americans is somewhat more picturesque, but their hearts beat as true to the flag of their new fatherland as do those of our native office-seekers. They have been "elevated" and they will allow nothing to deprive them of the fruits of that blessed change. They have their eyes so fixed upon the shining "heights" that they will even shoot one of their own number if he takes his eyes off the heights and goes to work, for while "members of the rank and file of the two factions are anxious to go to work, the leaders refuse to allow them to do so, and the men dare not desert, as they would certainly be shot if captured." So determined are they, that Gen. Wood found it "necessary to send a detachment of the Fourth Immune Regiment, under a sergeant, to the Rigney plantation, in order to compel the armed Cubans to allow men to work there." Was ever such devotion as this to a new system of government shown by a rude and hitherto barbaric people? They have been "elevated," civilized at a single stroke, and under their leaders take their places with the rest of us as American citizens living happily under boss government and enjoying the emoluments and blessings thereof.

EXPANSIONISTS, ATTENTION!

A great deal is said about the necessity of our seizing and holding the Philippines in order to furnish a chance for our manufacturers to sell their wares to the savages who inhabit those islands. To hear the advocates of this policy, one would suppose that the business men of the United States had already worked up all the chances for trade that exist in civilized nations, and had nothing left in the world to reach but barbarians.

The absurdity of all this talk can be clearly exposed by a sample illustration of the manner in which Americans have neglected to improve an excellent opportunity to extend their trade in Italy, which was thrust upon their notice by a representative of our Government who realized its importance. An international exposition was planned to take place in Turin during the present year, to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of the proclamation of the Constitution of 1848. An American tourist passed through Turin about the end of September. The exposition had then been open some months, and the attendance had aggregated a million and a half in the first 100 days, or an average of 15,000 a day. The traveller made two visits to the grounds, and he was impressed by the almost total absence of exhibits from this country. While his examination was not thorough, and more careful search might have disclosed additions to the list, all that he saw from the United States was the display of a typewriter firm, a cash-register manufactory, and a paint company. He was struck by the apparently total absence of American agricultural machines, which could not easily be overlooked. As he had himself travelled 2,000 miles in Europe on an American bicycle, he naturally looked with interest to see what manufacturers from this country were represented. "I hunted high and low for an American machine," he wrote, "but not one did I see exhibited, although several English firms were represented."

Upon learning of the poor showing by the United States at Turin, we consulted the Department of State to learn whether American manufacturers had been left in ignorance regarding this exposition. We find that as early as the spring of 1897 the Italian Ambassador to the United States brought the matter to the notice of our Secretary of State, and made a special reference to the desire of his Government that the electrical firms of this country should send displays to the department of electricity, the promoters being "convinced that nothing but a show where makers and specialists of all countries are represented will prove efficient in assuring progress both in science and industry," and also pointing out that "Italy, where unemployed hydraulic power is still abundant, affords a large field to the enterprising spirit of electrical engineers."

Our Consul at Turin appears to have done his full duty in the premises. In a communication to the State Department, he wrote that "probably in no Continental country would the superiority of the American goods and fabrics be better recognized than in Italy, which is overstocked with cheap German and shoddy English articles," and he thus described the efforts which he had made to see that "examples of American ingenuity and workmanship" should be displayed at Turin this year:

> "Anticipating that, on account of the Exposition at Paris in 1900, the United States Government was not likely to be represented officially at the national exposition to be opened here in the spring of 1898, of which the electric and machinery departments are of international character, I induced a leading business house here, well recommended by New York bankers, to ask our exporters to be represented at the exposition. Two thousand circulars were sent to the leading exporters all over the United States by the Turin firm."

What was the result? "The responses," wrote the Consul, "were practically nil; not a single exporter seems to show the least anxiety to extend his market to Italy or to show his goods at the exposition." The melancholy conclusion of our representative at Turin is that "an excellent opportunity has been lost, which will not soon offer itself again for this country."

This was only the most flagrant and striking of many opportunities for extending American trade in Italy which have been lost. The same 'Review of the World's Commerce' issued by the State Department that contains the letter from which we have quoted, tells a similar story from our Consul at Genoa, which is worth quoting. Premising that "Italy is ripe for American manufactures of every kind," and that "there will be no trouble to find ships to transport the goods," he writes:

> "In 1892, when the Columbian Exposition was about to open here, the writer opened correspondence with certain manufacturers of locks and safes in the United States, and begged them to make an exhibit of their productions at this exposition, for at that time, and even now, I believe, neither an American lock nor an American safe was to be found in this entire consular district, except the small locks used in the general post-office here. The answers were, they were too busy preparing for the Chicago Exposition, which was to be opened one year later. English locks have since been introduced here."

Our Consul at Messina makes the same complaint that our business men neglect their opportunities in Italy. There is not the least obstacle, he writes, to the introduction of United States goods; the people will be only too anxious to use American wares if they can get them on the same terms as the English, Belgian, or German. He adds:

> "The real obstacle to trade lies in the apathy of the United States manufacturers, who should adopt the methods of their foreign competitors. The English bicycle manufacturer establishes an agent in every city of importance, and keeps a stock of wheels on hand. The American manufacturer establishes an agent in one city, who in turn names sub-agents in other cities, and furnishes them with pictures of a wheel, which their customers can have in about six weeks; and, as there is a middleman's profit to be made, the wheel costs 25 per cent. more than the English make. Is it any wonder that there are hundreds of Raleighs and Humbers in use here, and only two American wheels?"

Our Consul-General at Rome writes to the same effect. He declares that Italy is a good field for American importations, but "a glance at the list of importations will show how comparatively few articles come from the United States." He is convinced that "a market could be created for American coal, steel, and iron, machinery and tools, household goods, furniture, cotton, rubber and leather goods of all kinds, paper, stationery, etc." All that is necessary to secure this market, in his opinion, is the application of enterprising business methods by Americans.

There are other reports from representatives of our Government in Italy, all in the same tone, but we do not need to quote more. Here is a nation in Europe, with which many steamship lines put us in easy communication, ready to buy our wares by millions of dollars every year, and yet the representatives of our State Department cannot persuade our business men to be represented at expositions where tens of thousands of people would see their displays every day, and we are told that we must conquer savages on the other side of the globe, and keep a large standing army among them for ever, in order to secure a market for American goods!

THE LATIN PLIGHT.

While there is a great deal of nonsense talked about the peculiarities of particular races and about their capacities, and also about the origin and composition of races, the attention of the world is being called to-day, as never before, to the plight of the nations which pass by the name of "Latin," as indicating peculiarities of temperament or character which do differentiate them from the rest of mankind. If only one of the three leading ones—France, Spain, and Italy—were proving unfortunate, the matter would seem no more puzzling than the misfortunes of an individual man, but when you have the whole three apparently going to the dogs, while the rest of Christendom is flourishing, political philosophers are kept unusually busy speculating and analyzing about causes and consequences. In France, after one hundred years of mastery of herself, the nature of her government and her future are still as uncertain as in 1795. No real parties have apparently been formed, no particular set of ideas has got the upper hand. The thinkers have, it would appear, to fight as hard to-day for the elementary principles of civil government as they would have had to do a century ago. Everything is at sixes and sevens. Any form of government seems possible—a limited mo-

narchy, an absolute empire, a republic, or a military despotism.

The fact that the same afflictions seem to be overtaking all three of the Latin nations, has drawn the attention of philosophers to the causes which affect them in common, and the only one which they are as yet substantially agreed about is religion. The one thing they all three are and have been for eighteen hundred years, is Christians of the Catholic Church. We were surprised last summer, when the ritualistic controversy was raging so fiercely in England, that this fact was not more prominently coupled with the failure of all three politically—that is, that an attempt was not made earlier in the day to account for the political failure of the Latin nations by their religion; but somehow it did not appear on the field until Lady Winborne produced it in the September number of the *Nineteenth Century*. Since then it has appeared in full panoply at the English Church Congress. The Protestant champions have begun to maintain that the uproars in Paris, and the multiplicity of French governments, and the roaring Dreyfus injustice, the poverty, ignorance, and weakness of Italy, the imbecility and steady decline of Spain, are all along of centuries of auricular confession, and prayers for the dead and a dominating priesthood.

Unfortunately for this argument, there is no way of deciding whether the Latin nations are unsuccessful because they are Catholic, or Catholic because they are weak in character; in other words, whether it was their race which prevented their going over to Reform in the sixteenth century, or whether it is their religion which makes their race seem feeble. The whole question was raised fifty years ago by Macaulay in one of his review articles, but since then little light has been thrown on the subject. Some of the disputants have, in reply to Canon Gore, pointed out forcibly that whatever auricular confession may do for individual morality, it weakens individual character for public purposes; that you cannot have a strong and energetic nation composed of persons who run every week to another man to confide their secret sins to him, and ask him what they had better believe; and then, they say, look at the Latin nations. They also add that the more strong-minded portion of the French went over to the Reform in the sixteenth century, and that it is their extermination, like the burning of the heretics in Spain, which is leading the nation to death, in spite of its splendid intellectual equipment. Something of a set-off to this is made with Belgium, which may be considered a successful nation, at least industrially; but Belgium is a protected nation, and is kept by the great Powers from trying to do great things, so that it proves nothing.

The fact that the men in France and Italy do not go to confession is freely used on the Catholic side, but the youth in Catholic countries are nearly all educated by ecclesiastics and are bred by religious mothers. There is a striking passage in D'Azeglio's 'Ricordi' on the difference between the attitude of the Italian and that of the Englishman towards religion, which has a good deal of bearing on the question of their respective relations as religious men towards the state, and throws a good deal of light on the character of the two as politicians. That is, the Englishman is more prone to think everything in both church and state his individual concern, while the Italian turns war and peace, heaven and hell, over to professionals. The secret of Latin political failure evidently lies somewhere in that direction.

THE BASTILLE.

PARIS, October 18, 1898.

'Legends and Archives of the Bastille' is the work of M. Frantz Funck-Brentano, and was written with the help of the Catalogue of the Archives of the Bastille, which forms the ninth volume of the extensive Catalogue of the manuscripts of the Library of the Arsenal, the public library which is second in importance in Paris and ranks after the famous National Library. One of the rooms of the old Bastille contained a valuable collection of Archives which had been forming since 1659. There were to be found all the documents concerning not only the prisoners, but all the persons who had been prosecuted within the limits of what was called the generality of Paris, in virtue of a "lettre de cachet." Hundreds of thousands of documents were carefully classified. After the storming of the Bastille, the pillage of the Archives lasted for two days, when it was interrupted by Commissioners appointed by the Convention. Many papers had been pilfered, burned, thrown in the mud. A huge package fell into the hands of Peter Lubrowski, an attaché of the Russian Embassy; the documents contained in it are now in the Imperial Library at Saint Petersburg. The Commune of Paris took care that what remained of the Archives should be transported to the City Library. They were forgotten for a long time, or rather preserved in a heap, without any attempt at classification. This ungrateful task (for there were no less than 600,000 papers in disorder) was executed only in our day. The Archives of the Bastille, which constitute a respectable whole, notwithstanding the pillage of 1789, are now to be found at the Library of the Arsenal, in special rooms. Many registers and letters still bear the marks of fire and ill use, but everything has been catalogued, and there is hardly a day when these Archives are not consulted and examined. It is with their help that M. Funck-Brentano has been able to write his valuable book, which substitutes history for legend.

The author has been fortunate in inducing Victorien Sardou to write a preface to his work:

"I viewed," says Sardou, "with some friends, at the great Exhibition of 1889, the storming of the Bastille, which everybody might have seen, and which, by the by, was well calculated to give an entirely false idea of it. Hardly had you passed the door when you saw, in the dark, an old man, with a long, flowing white beard, lying on the traditional damp straw, shaking his chains and making lamentable sighs. And the guide told you, not without emotion: 'You see here the unfortunate Latude, who remained in this position, with his arms chained, for thirty-five years.' I completed the information by saying, in the same doleful tone: 'It is even in this attitude that he had the cleverness to fabricate the ladder which was a hundred and eighty feet long, and which enabled him to make his escape.' The assistants looked at me with surprise, the guide with an angry look, and I went off. The thought which prompted me to this utterance is precisely the same which dictated to M. Funck-Brentano this book on the Bastille, in which he places things in their true light, and offsets the legends which everybody knows with the truths of which many are ignorant."

Notwithstanding the works published by several writers—M. Ravaisson, in his 'Introduction to the Annals of the Bastille,' Victor Fournel, Bord, Biré, Bégis, etc.—public opinion remains attached to the legend which represents the Bastille as full of iron cages and dark cells. Louis Blanc, speaking of this melodramatic Bastille, says eloquently, "The man who enters it ceases to belong to the world." In 1789 the cells of the Bastille situated on the first floor of the old fortress had windows; for a century, there had been no instrument of torture; the prisoner had a large room, and could furnish it as he pleased with furniture from the outside; he could wear any clothes he liked and had no uniform; each room had a fireplace, the prison furnishing the wood; the prisoner could procure candles, if he liked, as well as paper and ink. The prison had a library where he could get books; he could have as many as he liked sent to him from the outside. He was allowed to play on the violin or the flute. There were concerts given in the chambers and even in the Governor's rooms. Prisoners whose conduct was not disorderly were allowed to visit each other, to play at cards, chess, or trictrac; in the courts they could have games; they were authorized to take walks on the platform of the castle, and from there they saw the Rue St.-Antoine. The regimen of the prison was, in fact, very lenient under Louis XV. and Louis XVI.; whatever the Bastille may have been in earlier times, it had become a prison chiefly for gentlemen who were imprisoned, without any preliminary trial, by *lettre de cachet*. This is probably what made the name of the Bastille synonymous with the abuses of the old régime: it was the prison of the "arbitraire," of the "bon plaisir." The downfall of the Bastille was the signal of a renovation, of a revolution. History takes on always a more or less symbolic and legendary character; the legend of the Bastille will not easily be destroyed. The old feudal fortress, standing with its high towers, its moats and drawbridges, in the midst of a gay and active capital, will always remain an image of the past, and will evoke the gloomy memory of detested abuses.

The two persons who contributed more than others to propagate the legend of the horrors of the Bastille were the pamphleteer Linguet and the famous Latude. Linguet, in his pamphlet on the Bastille, confesses that he had three good meals a day; they gave him such a quantity of meat that he suspected "it was to poison him." What he does not say is, that the Governor, De Launey, sent him every morning the menu. Linguet regretted, perhaps, his repasts in the

Bastille when he was imprisoned during the Terror before being sent to the guillotine. It is generally believed that the famous Latude was imprisoned for thirty-five years in the Bastille merely because he had sent to Madame de Pompadour a parcel of inoffensive powder which was thought to be poison. M. Funck-Brentano has taken the trouble to write a full biography of this personage, with the help of many documents. He was arrested for swindling, and was condemned to a few months' imprisonment at Vincennes; his captivity was not so severe that he could not escape. He was rearrested, and this time sent to the Bastille. Instead of remaining quiet, he begins to perorate, to insult everybody; he writes on the books which are sent him insulting verses about the Pompadour. He is allowed, nevertheless, to have a room, a servant, and a companion, D'Allègre. It is with the help of this companion that Latude prepares his escape:

"One does not know," says Sardou, "what to admire most, the ingenuity of the pair or the simplicity of this prison *vieux jeu*, which allows them to fabricate at ease several instruments and fourteen hundred feet of cord, a ladder one hundred and eighty feet long, out of two hundred and eighteen pieces of wood; to conceal the whole, between two floors, without anybody taking the pains to see it all; to bore a hole through a wall four and a half feet thick, and to escape without having been once fired at."

In the early morning the passers-by saw the ladder on the wall; the escape became known, and people laughed at the police. The two prisoners were found and arrested, Allègre at Brussels and Latude in Holland. This time Latude was guarded with more severity, but it did not hinder him from remonstrating and protesting without intermission. He was sent to the prison of Vincennes, and was promised his freedom if he would condescend to remain quiet for a while. He was on the point of being liberated when he preferred to escape, which was very easy, as he was allowed to walk in the moat of the château. He was arrested again, kept again for a while at Vincennes, and, as he was considered to be somewhat out of his mind, he was urged to go to his own *pays* and remain with his family. This did not suit him; he remained in Paris, attacking constantly and publicly M. de Sartine and M. de Marigny, writing memoirs, claiming enormous damages, extorting money by threats from a lady, etc. The police lost patience, and Latude was finally sent to Bicêtre as a dangerous madman. The long chapter which M. Funck-Brentano has written on Latude is a sort of psychological study which is not without interest. We have numerous letters of Latude's; he appears in them all as full of a morbid vanity and as an impudent and insupportable person.

M. Funck-Brentano has another chapter on the "Man of the Iron Mask." I confess that, before reading it, I was ignorant that this enigmatic personage had been sent from Pignerol to the Bastille; but M. Funck-Brentano gives us the text of a passage in the register of Du Junca, Lieutenant of the King, at the Bastille, in these terms: "On Thursday, September 18, 1698, M. de Saint-Mars, Governor of the château of the Bastille, arrived, from his government of the Islands Sainte-Marguerite and Saint-Honorat, bringing with him, in his litter, a prisoner whom he had at Pignerol, whom he keeps always masked, and whose name is not revealed." This prisoner is treated with much care, and a second report says that he died on November 19, 1703, "without having had any great malady." In the register of the Church of Saint Paul, the dead prisoner, buried in the cemetery of that church, is entered as Marchioly, aged forty-five years. M. Funck-Brentano writes at great length of what he calls the legend of the Iron Mask. I will not dilate on it, as I remember a story which was told me in England about Disraeli. One of his admirers brought him one day a son, a young man of great promise, and asked Disraeli to say to this young man something which he might remember all his lifetime. "Well," said Disraeli, "if you aim to become a writer, never write anything about the author of the letters of Junius, because you would be considered a bore; and never try to find out who was the Iron Mask, because then you would be a still greater bore."

The end of M. Funck-Brentano's work is devoted to the famous July 14, the day of the fall of the Bastille. Many are the documents on this historical event, very petty in what may be called the military sense, almost ludicrous in some details, horrible in others, but very great as a landmark for France. The Bastille was stormed by the mob, by insurgent soldiers, and by brigands; these brigands have been transformed into great men. When the Duke of Larochefoucauld woke up Louis XVI. to announce to him the taking of the Bastille, "Why, it is a revolt," said the King. "No, Sire," said the Duke, "it is a revolution." Taine has well described in his great work the effect all over France of the fall of the Bastille. The people became in a moment lawless; pillage, fire, assassination, marked in a hundred places the end of a régime which was no longer defended. The disorganization was complete. The 14th of July was the turning of a leaf in the book of destiny.

Correspondence.

GERMAN IGNORANCE OF AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Münsterberg's recent article in the Berlin *Zukunft*, which you justly characterize as charming, deserves more than a passing mention, for by his attempt to enlighten Germans as to the real character of Americans he has rendered both his native country and our own a noteworthy service. There are probably few German-Americans who have not had occasion to deplore the dense ignorance concerning American matters which prevails even among the educated classes of Germany. This ignorance is all the more painful to the feelings of patriotic Americans of German descent because it is in a measure wilful, and in marked contrast to the otherwise cosmopolitan extent of German knowledge. The most striking manifestation of this indifference to the truth about things American may be found in the letters from the United States which the leading newspapers of Germany permit to appear in their columns. They are, as a rule, sensational and untrue to a degree which has no parallel in the letters from Europe published in our papers. In fact, it may be said that the German public, so far as we are concerned, is treated to hardly anything but highly-spiced accounts of American corruption, folly, and eccentricity. Even so able and generally well-informed a paper as the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* allowed itself, some years ago, to be represented in this country by an impostor, who sent to it, among other fictions, a purely imaginary account of an interview with President Cleveland. Not long ago the same paper published in its local columns without a word of comment a story of the domestic doings of an eminent American which was enough to make the blood of any citizen of our country boil. What wonder that the European who reads such stuff entertains the most distorted ideas of what constitutes American life, and lends but an incredulous ear to his relative on this side of the water who, during a visit to his mother country, endeavors to spread juster notions of America and the Americans?

All such German-Americans will therefore rejoice to have in Prof. Münsterberg's article so convenient a weapon with which to disarm prejudice and ignorance. Especially will they appreciate the stress which he lays on that idealism in the national character the existence of which is not even suspected by the average German. Doubtless more than one learned German professor will rub his eyes in astonishment on learning for the first time, from so high an authority as an ex-colleague of his, that

"on the shores of this New England bay more verses are written and read every year than anywhere in Germany; that more philosophy is here being taught, listened to, and discussed than anywhere in the fatherland of Kant and Hegel; . . . Assyriology and Sanskrit, psychology and astronomy flourish here; . . . tens of thousands of schoolteachers devote their vacation to work and discussion in the summer schools; and sound instruction in art, pursuing purely æsthetic ideals, occupies here a place in scholastic life such as is possibly not accorded to it anywhere in the Old World."

Perhaps this is not the place, and the present not the most suitable time, to quote Prof. Münsterberg's remarks—so flattering to our self-love—concerning the public spirit and the intellectual aspirations of the American merchant; but I may be permitted to contrast his remarks as to the confiding trustfulness which he considers the mainspring of American society, with the answer which one of the most prominent manufacturers of Vienna gave me last year when I expressed my surprise that the American system of banks of deposit had not been adopted in Austria: "Very few Austrian merchants," he said, "would be willing to let a bank know what their financial condition is."

The removal of international prejudice and ignorance is one of the greatest services which an enlightened thinker can render to his fellow-men. The American character is complex and at best difficult to analyze and appreciate. There exists, to my knowledge, no single book in any language which portrays American life as we believe it to be. Even so wise an observer as Prof. Bryce, who had his own kinsmen to judge, felt the difficulty of the task and shrank from incorporating in his 'American Commonwealth' more than the most general remarks concerning some features of our society. It is idle to hope that what cannot be found in Tocqueville and Bryce some German of the present day may supply; but Prof. Münsterberg has at least shown, in an unpretentious letter, what a fair-minded, intelligent, and sympathetic observer of American life may, in a comparatively brief period of time, be able to learn and to communicate. That he kept his vision true is especially praiseworthy at a time when the doings of certain

Americans are so apt to disturb one's gaze. The America which he depicts is refreshingly different from that which is presented to the European reader by those of our journals which exhibit in themselves the worst failings of the American character, or, on the other hand, by those which, with the laudable desire to correct these failings, speak of them in unmeasured terms of denunciation, obscuring thereby to the foreign eye what is essentially sound and valuable in American life. G. P.

SUMMIT, N. J., October 31, 1898.

THE SENTIMENT FOR EXPANSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A careful observer can scarcely doubt that there is an overpowering sentiment in this country in favor of territorial expansion. But the curious thing about it is the paucity of arguments offered in favor of it. One hears on every hand weighty reasons against such a policy, but in its favor only generalities and cheers. The majority of our people who are capable of rendering a reason, seem convinced that this policy has very little from the standpoint of politics or economics to recommend it, but still they either are outspoken in its favor or give tacit approval by their silence.

The only satisfactory explanation of this phenomenon is that the idea of territorial expansion is itself directly gratifying to our feelings, and we are willing to undergo some economic loss for the sake of this gratification. It is on the same principle that the country gentleman maintains a park or the sporting man supports horse-racing—not because it pays, but because he likes it. The distinction between expansion for the sake of commercial and economic advantages and expansion for the satisfaction of expanding is not unlike the distinction which the economists make between productive and unproductive consumption. In the one case, the new territory is taken in order to increase our opportunities for the production of wealth and the making of a living; in the other case, the new territory is taken solely for the satisfaction of having and holding it.

If this be the true solution, the opponents of expansion must change their tactics. It is useless to argue that we shall gain nothing economically by acquiring territories beyond the seas—people are convinced of that already. The only thing that can stop the demand for expansion is a change of national taste, or appetite, so that the mere idea of expansion will be less gratifying to our feelings. To this end the opponents of expansion ought to work; but they must understand to begin with that this appetite has about a century the start of them. They need not be disappointed, therefore, if their efforts do not at once succeed.

T. N. CARVER.

OBERLIN COLLEGE, October 24, 1898.

A QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have carefully read your various writings claiming the binding effects of our declarations to Spain made before war was declared, as set forth in your leader of September 22 on page 217, and this question arises in my mind: When a nation, in a time or peace, makes certain demands and promises to another nation, and those demands are refused, and, in a war which follows, the nation which made the demands defeats the other, are the conquerors, according to historical and international usage, bound to abide by the promises? Conceding that it is so bound in case the demands are peacefully granted, do not the refusal and subsequent defeat of the refusing nation release the conquerors from the promises, and warrant them in making new conditions quite at variance with the promises?

"It is true that in the beginning we aimed not at independence, but there is a Divinity which shapes our ends," seems to have been the sentiment used to justify the Declaration of Independence, and the substituting of it for the Bill of Rights put forth before hostilities commenced some century and a quarter ago.

This inquiry is made, not in criticism, but for enlightenment.

EDWARD F. SWEET.

262 SOUTH CLARK STREET, CHICAGO, ILL.

[What historical and international usage has to do with a question of national conscience and honor, we are at a loss to discover. The resolutions passed by Congress were demands at the point of the bayonet, and directed the President to support them with the army and navy. They destroyed, and were meant to destroy, the peace heretofore existing between the two countries. The pledge against annexation involved in them was made in expectation of Spain's defeat—it would have been senseless otherwise. No new situation has arisen, so far as Cuba is concerned.—ED. NATION.]

THE ATTACK ON THE JUDICIARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The members of the bar of Cincinnati have read with interest the accounts of meetings in New York held to protest against the selection of candidates for the bench who are utterly unfit to assume judicial responsibilities. We are confronted by precisely the same condition here. At the county Republican convention, a few weeks ago, the local boss had no difficulty in "turning down" one of the present judges, whose term expires in December, for the simple reason that the latter, having previously been found guilty of insubordination, had not been able to make his peace. It happens that the judge in question, though a young man, has proved himself a conscientious and painstaking judge—a man who, in point of personal honesty and dignity of bearing, has the confidence of the bar and of the people. In his stead was placed a man whose integrity as a lawyer, and whose knowledge of the law "as a science," the leading lawyers of the city have had occasion to question. His mate on the ballot is to be another of the retiring judges, whom the lawyers in both parties are very anxious to have re-elected. The bar developed a highly unusual activity—after the nominations—in devising some plan to defeat the undesirable Republican candidate and to elect another man in his place, without, at the same time, defeating the one candidate whom they consider fit. The plan of placing the latter, together with another good man, on a separate independent ballot was not feasible, for the reason that there is a law prohibiting the appearance of the same name on two separate tickets; and to have the one acceptable Republican candidate withdraw from the regular ticket and submit his name to an independent ticket, would be to divide the vote and jeopardize his election. The only course left—which was the one adopted—was to call a meeting of lawyers, formulate resolutions in the shape of a petition to be signed by all lawyers who had the courage to sign it, and send a copy to every voter in the county. The resolutions, which are openly denunciatory of the undesirable candidate, advise the voters, without regard to party, to vote for that retiring Republican judge who has managed in some way or other to keep in the good graces of the boss, and for one Democratic candidate, who, the bar is sanguine, would prove a better man, at least, than the objectionable Republican candidate.

The petition has been signed by nearly all the solid men at the bar—the so-called kid-glove element, and even some who are not of that element. A great many men were in accord with what was contained in the petition, but hesitated about signing it, because they are afraid of being severely dealt with if the objectionable man is elected, which is extremely likely. Others despair of the efficacy of bar movements. Cincinnati has had them before, and they were not always successful. But it seems to the writer that the reason they are not successful is because the lawyers (enough of them), in seeking to effect changes, are not sufficiently earnest to go about it in the proper manner. The trouble is, there is too much self-interest and apathy among the lawyers to do anything that requires a little public spirit. A great many of them want to "be something" themselves. The number of young men, and even maturer men, who are "training" with this boss or that political crowd is simply appalling. Everybody wants to be Corporation Counsel or Prosecuting Attorney or Judge—it doesn't make much difference which; anything to acquire business subsequently. The pursuit of the law "as a science," as the petition has it, or even as a dignified profession, is more and more becoming limited to a few. The boss in Cincinnati doesn't have to get up a Bar Association of his own, as was suggested for his prototype in New York. He has men already in the ranks who will sign counter-petitions, as, indeed, they have done in this instance. But the boss is not responsible for it all. He is powerful, to be sure; but if the bar made itself more of a power, if it could weed out men who have not the slightest qualification for being members of a learned profession, men who have not even common honesty—and it can do that if it would pluck up the courage—the boss himself might have more respect for the office of judge, and save the bar the trouble of opposing his candidate. A. J. F.

CINCINNATI, October 29, 1898.

ON CHAUCER'S CLEOPATRA AND HER PIT OF SERPENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When, in the 'Legend of Good Women,' Chaucer makes Cleopatra head the list of love's martyrs, he does some little violence to the average reader's conception of martyrdom for love; in his account of the amorous queen's death, the poet is equally unfaithful to accepted tradition. The reader may remember that, after the

death of Antony, Cleopatra encloses the body in a fair "shryne," or coffin. Next the coffin she has dug a pit wherein are placed all manner of serpents. Into this nest of adders she plunges naked to her death.

"And next the shryne a pit than doth she grave;
And alle the serpents that she mighte have,
She putte hem in that grave, and thus she seyde:
. . . . . .
And with that word, naked, with ful good herte,
Among the serpents in the pit she sterte;
And ther she chees to han hir buryinge.
Anoon the neddres gonne hir for to stinge,
And she hir deeth receyveth, with good chere,
For love of Antony that was hir so dere.
And this is storial sooth, hit is no fable."

Truly a barbaric self-immolation this, and far indeed from that sensuous contemplation of death and the fondling of the asp, death's minister, which Shakspere has for ever associated with Cleopatra's dying moments; but the somewhat grotesque heroism of the deed serves perhaps to establish Cleopatra's pretensions to martyrdom for love.

Without taking too seriously Chaucer's insistence upon the "storial sooth" of his tale, it is not at all likely that the poet, who in the 'Legend' avails himself of well-known sources and follows them faithfully, should have invented the incident in question. On the other hand, Chaucerian research, which has now measurably sifted all the books known, or likely to have been known, to the poet, has not to my knowledge brought to light any similar account of Cleopatra's death; and I am much inclined to doubt if any literary authority for the serpent pit ever existed before or after Chaucer himself.*

The fact appears to be this, that Cleopatra's pit of serpents is due to a curious misinterpretation of certain lines of Boccaccio's 'Amorosa Visione,' a book sufficiently well known to Chaucer.† In the course of this work, Boccaccio describes a series of pictures which he says (Canto IV.) only Giotto could have surpassed. Among them he marks the death of Cleopatra, who, "to avoid the disgrace of a Roman triumph, in a sepulchre suffered death from two serpents." Or, in Boccaccio's own words (Canto X.):

" A fuggir quello oltraggioso furore
Con due serpenti in una sepolcura
Sofferse sostener mortal dolore:
E ancor quivi nella sua figura
Pallida si vediono i due serpenti
Alle sue zizze dar crudel morsura."

Evidently Giotto might easily have surpassed in clearness this particular picture; and Boccaccio is, in fact, merely alluding to a story with which he presumes the reader to be perfectly familiar. This presumption was apparently unwarranted in Chaucer's case. When the English poet read these lines, he lacked the association they were intended to evoke, while nothing in Boccaccio suggested that the *sepolcura* was a mausoleum; accordingly, he visualized these vague hints of his original in the most natural manner possible, understanding the *sepolcura* to be merely a grave. In this grave, then, following his "autor," Cleopatra gave herself to the fangs of two serpents. It was this image that stuck in Chaucer's memory till he set about writing the legend of Cleopatra; and there he has only taken the liberty of multiplying the serpents. One should never let a good horror shrink in the telling.

This, unless some one finds a literary source, may pass as the origin of Cleopatra's pit of serpents, and this most novel feature of her legend becomes merely a literary fluke. The matter is chiefly interesting because it shows Chaucer lending definite form to the vaguely allusive lines of Boccaccio; it seems to prove, also, that Chaucer's people never existed *in vacuo*, but had from the first their appropriate setting—and right here would be the place for a homily on instinctive vs. mechanical realism; finally, it reminds us that the poets use their sources high-handedly. I am not sure but that Chaucer would have stood out for his blunder against the "storial sooth" of a Latin Plutarch. With this slender text, it would be easy to dilate indefinitely upon these neglected commonplaces of criticism. I refrain, only querying if there is not an essay to be written which should cover authors' flukes, say from Chaucer's Cleopatra in her pit of serpents to Keats's Cortes upon his peak in Darien.

FRANK JEWETT MATHER, JR.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE, October 18, 1898.

*Gower, in the 'Confessio Amantis' (ed. Morley, p. 438), has merely borrowed the incident from Chaucer.

†The curious will find something to interest them in this connection in *Anglia*, xiv., p. 233, and *Mod. Lang. Notes*, x., p. 379.

RHYMES TO EYE AND EAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. G. M. Whicher's remarks anent the above subject, he says, "the offender does not, with Prof. Matthews and Mr. Lang, say *morrn*, but mawn." Yes, and may we not say that "morn" *is* "mawn," rather than *morrn?* Why should one *r* be made equal to two? If we allow that the two should betoken the "strong trill," the one *r*, by contrast, clearly should not do so. Again, in teaching the alphabet here in England, we say, "Kew, ar, ess, tee"; and do not sound the *ar* with the "strong trill." Are we to rhyme by letters, which are mere symbols, or by sounds, which are the things the symbols stand for? That is the question. "In the dialect of the upper classes in Old" England, *dawn=dorn* and *morn=mawn*, as Mr. Whicher says; and there is no "trill." But, there, a consonant follows the *r*. In such words as *tremble, grumble, rumble*, etc., with a vowel after the *r*, there usually is a suspicion of the "trill" to be heard, and, occasionally, with some people, or under impressive circumstances, of the "strong trill." And this seems reasonable. If it seems right that one *r* should not have the force of two, then "the upper classes in Old and New England" do not need the censure which Mr. Whicher has indicated. We have some preachers in this country who pronounce "God" as "Gawd"; and, if "morn" (as Mr. Whicher suggests)="mawn," then "Gawd" ="Gord," which is, therefore, tantamount to the insertion of an *r* where there is no "letter" *r* to give it.

The fashion among the educated majority is what rules the roast in this matter. It is fashionable among the lights of the Law Courts to address the judge as "m' Lud," though an *r* is thus and there deliberately passed over. Here you have, opposed, "God" as "Gord," and "Lord" as "Lud." Clearly there is little rule but fashion. But the Scottish "trill" does not rule the roast yet in Britain, and does not to me seem likely to do so.—Your obedient servant,

W. H. B.

LONDON, W., October 17, 189 .

Notes.

'The Family of William Penn, Founder of Pennsylvania: His Ancestors and Descendants,' by Howard M. Jenkins, is in press for early issue by the author-publisher, at No. 921 Arch Street, Philadelphia. There will be numerous full-page illustrations. A limited edition will be printed, from the type.

The Chicago Caxton Club's next publication will be the Relation of Henri de Tonty concerning the Explorations of La Salle from 1678 to 1683, translated by Melville B. Anderson.

Prof. John Rhys's 'Welsh People: Their Origin, Language, and History,' is soon to be brought out by Macmillan Co.

Richard G. Badger & Co., Boston, announce Sir Henry Irving's Cambridge lecture, 'The Theatre and the State'; 'The Fairy Spinning-Wheel,' by Catulle Mendès; and 'Adobe-Land Stories,' by Verner Z. Reed.

The October volume of the Biographical Thackeray (Harpers) gives us 'Esmond,' in which, as Mr. Leslie Stephen has just reminded us again, the novelist's "style had reached its highest perfection." Within the same covers are the Lectures on the Humorists and the Georges, and also that on "Charity and Humor," first delivered in New York in 1852. The biographical material furnished by Mrs. Ritchie in her Introduction relates principally to the Lectures and the American tours. "It's all exaggeration about this country," Thackeray wrote to Dr. John Brown—"barbarism, eccentricities, nigger cruelties, and all. They are not so highly educated as individuals, but a circle of people knows more than an equal number of English." Several sketches in Thackeray's best manner enhance the value of the volume.

Prof. William Hand Browne's concise 'Clarendon Dictionary' has been revised and much extended by the compiler, and reprinted anew by the University Publishing Co. It supplies pronunciation and a certain number of excellent illustrations, and has for apparatus a brief historical sketch of the language, lists of affixes, of geographical names and Greek and Latin proper names: of French, Latin, and Italian phrases; of abbreviations; and finally of coins. A legible 'Gem Pocket Pronouncing Dictionary,' of English origin, published by Messrs. Putnam, purports to contain 25,000 words. Its selection is, of course, different from that of the foregoing work, sometimes supplementary and sometimes lacking; and its appendixes differ in the list of Christian names, with their significations, and "directions for commencing and addressing letters to persons of rank."

The Doubleday & McClure Co. bring out Hamlin Garland's 'Ulysses S. Grant: His Life and Character,' which originally appeared as a serial in *McClure's Magazine*. Mr. Garland's book is full of anecdote and minute information with regard to periods of Grant's life usually passed over lightly, such as his boyhood, his cadetship at West Point, his army life in California, and his leaving the army. So, also, in the period after his Presidency, his connection with the firm of Grant, Ward & Co. is told with more detail than commonly. Great industry has been used in collecting and verifying these details, in deference to a supposed popular demand for whatever will satisfy curiosity regarding such a man. The illustrations in-

clude a number which have value, but one wonders why pictures are given of every shanty connected with the family history, or reproductions of discarded portraits that are caricatures.

A number of illustrated folios are on our table. To be recommended without reserve is Carton Moore Park's 'Alphabet of Animals' (London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners)—bold and intimate, on occasion decorative, drawings in black and white, which will interest any child and cultivate his taste. Birds do not occur in Mr. Park's Zoo, which is wholly tenanted by quadrupeds and the bat. The letterpress is brief and intentionally light in character. Youngsters will also find amusement, of a different sort, in Florence K. Upton's doggerel, 'The Golliwogg at the Seaside' (Longmans), with Bertha Upton's droll jointed-doll heroines, drawn in color in many exciting situations by land and sea. E. W. Kemble's 'Billy Goat, and Other Comicalities' (Scribners) is humorous in varying degree, and generally tells the story without need of the legend. The explosive and catastrophic situation is freely relied upon. The fifteen plates which make up Frederic Remington's 'Frontier Sketches' (The Werner Co.) are in this artist's well-known vein, and have the merit of being historical in the sense of being true to the life of a period, as also of depicting actual occurrences of moment and fame in our collisions with the Indians.

A disciple of Kate Greenaway's, Winifred Green, is probably responsible for Mr. Gollancz's making a selection from Charles and Mary Lamb's 'Poetry for Children' (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan). Her designs are well enough for quaint decoration. Is the "poetry" really poetry, and to be recommended as such? Is it throughout for children? We cannot affirm. Here are 127 pages of moral and pious sentiment and narration in rhyme. The editor promises more if this takes.

Of book calendars, Kate Sanborn's 'Starlight Calendar' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is first to reach us. The daily prose and verse excerpts are all for the assurance of our belief in immortality, and are drawn from many ranges of talent and authority. At the close is a series of blank pages for recording the death of friends. A couplet of Whittier's, inserted under February 16, is unsigned, and is repeated in its connection under February 27. Now and again the poetry reads so roughly as to make it certain that there has been some carelessness in transcription.

The French are now well abreast of us in the two indispensable aids to a knowledge of current literature. The American 'Trade-List Annual' blossomed richly in the 'Bibliographie Française' of H. Le Soudier, with its precious index volume; and 'Poole's Index' and its child (the father of the man) the 'Annual Literary Index' have in turn begotten the annual 'Répertoire Bibliographique des Principales Revues Françaises,' compiled by D. Jordell, who presides over the 'Catalogue Annuel de la Librairie Française.' This transatlantic genesis is duly acknowledged in the preface contributed by Henri Stein, but is not carried back to Poole, as would have been proper in a broader retrospect. The group of French periodicals here indexed, by subject and author in two alphabets, numbers 147, and will certainly be enlarged hereafter. The editorial execution is admirably clear and precise, subject to the limitations of a language which, by putting the substantive cart before the adjective horse, offers difficulties to indexing analogous to those we remarked in the German Poole on account of inflections. Add also a difference in method. Here are three consecutive items under *Anthropologie:* "(Le) Mécanisme intime de la variation des races" (English rubric, Races); "Méthode pour la recherche des institutions préhistoriques" (English rubric, Institutions); "Note sur l'anthropologie de Madagascar, etc." (English rubrics, Madagascar; Canaries; Africa, Eastern). In other words, the sub-alphabetizing is purely fortuitous. The typography is elegant and distinct, but is calculated for young eyes. The author-index is a most welcome supplement to that of Le Soudier. The Paris publishing-house of the 'Répertoire' is the Librairie Nilsson (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

The appearance of a volume of poetry by a writer who for a quarter of a century has devoted himself exclusively to critical prose, has an interest quite apart from the artistic worth of the poems. The experiment of Ruskin in printing his early poems has recently been repeated by Georg Brandes, and, to judge by the extracts contained in Danish reviews of the book, the experiment of the Danish critic has been far more successful than that of his older English contemporary. The earliest poem, "Sixteen Years," was written forty years ago; the latest, fifteen years later, the year after the publication of the first volume of Brandes's principal work, 'Main Currents in the Literature of the Nineteenth Century.' Brandes seems to be a writer who, having considerable poetical talent, decided, on reaching maturity, not to be a poet. In this he showed more self-restraint than many others not possessed of native poetic gifts. It is to be noted that the most sarcastic of living Danish critics was least successful as a poet in satire.

The current issue of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* concludes the fifty-second volume, and is duly provided with indexes of subjects, persons, and places. To these Mr. William S. Appleton has added a welcome index to testators in 'Waters's Genealogical Gleanings' in volumes 37-52. Mr. Waters, by the way, in commemoration of the proverbial phrase, "Hobson's choice," here gives the will of "Thomas Hobson of Cambridge, in the County of Cambridge, carrier" (1544?-1631), who let his horses strictly in turn. The accompanying note was written before Lieut. Hobson had lent fresh vogue to the name at Santiago.

The *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for October contains an account, with some interesting illustrations, of Lake Chelan, in Washington, by Henry Gannett. It is an unusually clear description of glaciers and glacial action. Mr. F. H. Newell, in a sketch of Mesa Verde, in Colorado, calls attention to the wanton destruction and removal of the ruins and relics of the cave-dwellings, and pleads for Government protection to preserve them from men who make "a business of collecting the pottery from these ruins, rifling the graves, and selling the material thus obtained to tourists or to collectors of curiosities." The geospheres, by which are meant the atmosphere, hydrosphere, lithosphere, and centrosphere, to which is tentatively added the psychosphere, to indicate the "mantle of thought which to-day envelops the world," are suggestively treated by Mr. W. J. McGee.

The *Geographical Journal* for October opens with an illustrated description of the Tirah in northwestern India, the scene of some of the military operations in the late frontier war, by Col. Sir T. H. Holdich. The Afridis, who inhabit this region, are a brave, intelligent people, with a real sense of honor, and yet, because of their blood-feuds, "steeped to the chin in all the arts and wiles of tribal and domestic treachery." A unique feature of the campaign was the making a survey of the country. At every movement of the troops "the little plane-tabling party was in the field," and oftentimes with the fighting line. Other articles are a description of Kavirondo in British East Africa, noteworthy for its numerous groups of tribes, Bantu, Nilotic, and Hamitic; Col. Church's presidential address before the geographical section of the British Association on Argentine geography and the ancient Pampean Sea; and M. Élisée Reclus's plea for a great globe, in the interest of science.

The first article of number nine of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, by Leo Frobenius, is on West African culture as shown in representations of the human form, pipes, tattooing, ornaments, musical instruments, drums, and knives. Prof. J. Walther treats of the Oxus problem in the light of history and geology. Both papers are accompanied by charts.

Among the varied contents of the *Quarterly Statement* of the Palestine Exploration Fund for October are an account, with a plan, of the Lower Pool of Gihon, by Dr. C. Schick; maps of the vicinity of Hebron and Jaffa, together with some striking photographic views of Petra. The new excavations by Dr. F. J. Bliss are to be at Tell es Sâfi, about twenty-three miles south of Jerusalem, the possible site of ancient Gath, but certainly the Blanche Garde of the Crusaders.

The Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta, has published two sumptuous volumes of Annals containing "The Orchids of Sikkim-Himalaya," by Sir George King and Robert Pantling. The letter-press is the joint production of the authors, while the drawings for the 448 lithographic plates are entirely the work of Mr. Pantling. Specimens from great altitudes were gathered by trained Lepcha collectors during the hot and rainy seasons of several years, and quickly conveyed by swift coolies to Mr. Pantling, who, while the plants were fresh, made drawings of them. Botanists will appreciate the importance of the fact that the drawing of nearly every species was made from a living plant. It is interesting to note that the drawings were put on stone by natives of Bengal, educated at the Government School of Art in Calcutta, and that the coloring was done by sons of Nepalese coolies, skilfully and patiently drilled by Mr. Pantling. In the introduction, Sir George King sets forth his reasons for differing from the views of Darwin, Bentham, Hooker, and others, who hold that the stamen is single in certain orphrydeous genera. He is convinced, as a result of minute investigation, that, in the Sikkim species at any rate, there are two stamens. His conclusions are not, however, endorsed by Mr. Pantling, and the entire responsibility for this hypothesis is assumed by Sir George King. The authors are satisfied that the fertilization of orchids by the agency of insects is not so universal as is sometimes supposed. They

find unmistakable evidence of self-fertilization in genera far removed from each other.

The third volume of Henry M. Bernard's 'Catalogue of Madreporarian Corals' has been published by the British Museum (Natural History), and includes descriptions of the two closely allied genera, Montipora and Anacropora, with collotype reproductions of photographs of over seventy specimens. The three volumes now finished form a complete monograph of this reef-building family of stony corals, and are of great scientific value, for, since the publication of the classical works of Milne-Edwards and Haime more than forty years ago, no comprehensive treatise on the stony corals has appeared, while many new and beautiful types have been discovered.

The Wisconsin Geological and Natural History Survey, under the direction of Dr. E. A. Birge, has begun the publication of a Bulletin, two numbers of which have appeared. The first contains a paper by Filibert Roth, "On the Forestry Conditions of Northern Wisconsin," with a map. In number 2 is an extended account of the "Instincts and Habits of the Solitary Wasps," by George W. Peckham and Elizabeth G. Peckham.

The first competition offered by the Nansen fund, which was established soon after the return of the *Fram* in 1896, has just been advertised. The subject is a thorough work in embryology based on original investigation, and the amount of the prize is 1,500 kroners (about $400). The result will be announced at the annual meeting of the Christiania Academy of Science, May 3, 1900. The statement in the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen does not mention whether the competition is open to foreigners, but information on that point can be obtained by writing to the Secretary of the Academy.

No other war in which the United States has been engaged has given so long a lease of life to war maps as that just concluded with Spain. For generations to come, our eyes must be fixed on the West Indies at least, and hence Perthes's map of this region (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), conveniently folded in paper covers, cannot be slighted as being a day after the fair. It embraces nearly all of this country east of the Mississippi, the larger part of Mexico, the Isthmus, the Spanish Main, and all the Antilles. Even Newfoundland is comprehended. There are also side maps of the north Atlantic and its shores, of Porto Rico, Havana, New York's approaches, Bermuda, etc., and much information as to depths and shoals, sailing courses, etc.

We wrote "self-educated man," but we will not suppress this happy commentary from a constant reader: "The last *Nation* says that no good definition of a 'self-made man' has been yet given (or words to that effect). Goethe has done it neatly in one of his epigrams: 'No master [says the self-made man] can boast that he ever taught me anything.' The poet remarks: 'Das heisst: "Ich bin ein Narr *aus eigner Hand*."' I quote from memory, and forget the exact words of the first line. But 'a fool at first hand,' as we may paraphrase it, is not bad."

—An interesting article on the Pennsylvania Council of Censors is contributed by Mr. Lewis H. Meader to the October number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. The State Constitution of 1776 provided for the election once in seven years of two persons from each city and county, who together should constitute a Council of Censors, and whose duty it should be to inquire "whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate in every part"; "whether the legislative and executive branches of government have performed their duty as guardians of the people, or assumed to themselves or exercised other or greater powers than they are entitled to by the constitution"; "whether the public taxes have been justly laid and collected, . . . in what manner the public monies have been disposed of, and whether the laws have been duly executed." They were, further, to recommend to the Legislature the repeal of such laws as appeared to be in contravention of the Constitution, and were empowered to call a convention to amend the Constitution if there seemed to be "absolute necessity" therefor. As the Constitution did not provide for a supreme judicial department, the Council served as at once the only legal check on the executive and legislative departments, and the only agency by which amendments could regularly be made. The authorship of the section is not clear, but Mr. Meader is inclined to ascribe it to "the combined views of the radical wing of the people's party," whose members included Timothy Matlack, James Cannon, and Thomas Paine. The Constitution at best was a very imperfect work, and the Council of Censors drew a large share of the hostile criticism early directed against the instrument; but the exigencies of war and the activity of the radicals combined to postpone action. The first Council met in 1783, and had no difficulty in pointing out numerous defects in the fundamental law; they could not, however, obtain the two-thirds majority necessary to call a convention. Before the time for again electing a Council arrived, the people of the State, already alive to the weaknesses of their frame of government, and strongly influenced, no doubt, by the example of the Federal Convention of 1787, decided to revise their Constitution without waiting for the Censors; and the General Assembly authorized a convention for that purpose. As Mr. Meader says, the people had borne with the Constitution of 1776, and its unwieldy scheme for amendment, because "the State had been for years divided into two hostile camps," one of which, the radical, sought "to keep its own rights from invasion by the conservatives, who had been so powerful in the Proprietary colony." It is interesting to note, in this connection, that a Council of Censors, modelled on that of Pennsylvania, existed in Vermont, by constitutional provision, until 1869.

—Prof. A. Gudeman of the University of Pennsylvania has given to the press the first volume (prose) of 'Latin Literature of the Empire' (Harpers), a collection of extracts from the literature of the post-Augustan period. Whatever may be true of the majority of American colleges, we are hardly prepared to admit the author's assertion that the works of the period in question "have hitherto, with a few notable exceptions, been virtually excluded from the classical curricula of institutions of learning, both in Europe and America." We should certainly not venture to say this of the works of Tacitus, Pliny the younger, Seneca the philosopher, or Suetonius, which furnish considerably more than one-half of the matter contained in this volume. Admitting the importance of this literature as a "key to the proper understanding of the history of the Roman Empire," and perhaps even more as the source of much of the literature of the Middle Ages, it does not seem clear to us why such writers as Aulus Gellius, Fronto, Macrobius, and the authors of the 'Historia Augusta' should be entirely left out. The influence of some of these on the thought of their day and of later times seems to give them at least as valid a claim to recognition as is possessed by such an author as Minucius Felix, to whom forty-five pages are devoted. It was perhaps a hopeless task to give sufficient samples of the prose of so large a period in a single volume of 600 pages; but it is a pity that Tacitus, who is read in all reputable colleges everywhere, and the younger Pliny and Seneca, who are studied in most of the better colleges, even in America, should displace works so much less known and some so hard to obtain in good editions. The extracts are given without notes, are generally interesting, and are well edited. They will be found useful, as far as they go, by all who wish to get some knowledge of the prose of the silver and brazen age, and they might be advantageously used with classes in sight reading.

—The first part of Thoroddsen's 'Geschichte der isländischen Geographie' has already been noticed in these columns. The second part (Leipzig: Teubner) continues the subject from the beginning of the seventeenth to the middle of the eighteenth century. Like the first part it is geography in the widest possible sense, for the author in reality not only has written an elaborate account of the descriptions of Iceland by native and foreign writers, but has at the same time given us, with a wealth of detail, the whole *Culturgeschichte* of the country. A great portion of the material in this, as in the preceding part, is absolutely new. The productions, sometimes valuable, of Icelandic writers, especially in the period covered in the present volume, frequently never found their way into print, and lie to this day, in more or less easily decipherable manuscripts, in the libraries of Copenhagen and Reykjavik. The author states in his preface that he has made use in this volume alone of three hundred such manuscript sources, and has rejected as worthless as many more. Among other matter of more than local interest the second part contains, as a particular development of the seventeenth century—in many ways one of the darkest periods in the history of Iceland and at the same time the part about which the least has been written—the growth of popular superstition after the Reformation. Iceland, like the rest of Europe, had its black period of witchcraft and witch-burning, the details of which in their connection are here satisfactorily given for the first time. The book, in short, as we have already pointed out, is an absolutely invaluable collection of material bearing upon the history of the land and people of Iceland, from whatever point it may be viewed, and henceforth must be seriously taken into account by all writers upon any phase of it. A third volume, to contain in particular a review of all investigations in the natural and physical sciences from the middle of the eighteenth century down to the year 1880, will close the work. The German translation, it should be said, is an exceptionally difficult task well done.

—From autumnal Korea comes the usual mixture of evidence of the evils of the old régime and the promise of the new order of

things. In the royal palace, on September 11, the King, Crown Prince, chief eunuch, and five servants were poisoned, and barely escaped death after violent illness and vomiting. The "death in the pot" lurked in the coffee which was made in it, for the dry beans, bag, sugar, and milk used were examined by a capable foreign physician, who pronounced these harmless. Pleasanter news is told in the formation of the Female Education Society, by a goodly number of native Korean ladies, who have sent out an appeal to their countrywomen declaring that, while their brothers are seeking the reformation of the country, "on the other hand, we women, like the blind and deaf, still adhere to old customs." Setting forth the condition of women in civilized nations, these Korean ladies "propose to establish a female school, where girls may learn all kinds of accomplishments to prepare them for the duties of intelligent womanhood." They ask that Korean parents will send their daughters to this school. On Wednesday afternoon, September 5, in the presence of the American Minister, Dr. H. N. Allen, Yi Chiyun, Governor of Seul, and Mr. J. L. Furgurson, superintendent of the work, ground was broken for the Seul electric railway. Several ladies of the American Methodist Mission were also present. The site chosen for the power-house is near the East Gate. The road, which is to run between East Gate and the Mulberry Palace, will be completed in two months. The contract granting the concession of the Seul-Fusan Railway to a Japanese firm was signed on the 8th of September. This will be, by far, the most important engineering enterprise yet undertaken in Korea, running, as it does, from the capital two hundred miles through the richest of the southwestern provinces. It will pass over the route taken by the Japanese armies of invasion, under Kato and Konishi, in 1592.

WOMEN IN GREEK POETRY.

Antimachus of Colophon, and the Position of Women in Greek Poetry. By E. F. M. Benecke. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

The Women of Homer. By Walter Copland Perry. With Illustrations. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898.

The position of women in Greek poetry is an interesting question, because it implies and defines, in the main, the position of women in Greek life and society. How far did the women contribute to the powerful impress of the Greek spirit on history and civilization; how great a factor were they in the achievement of the Greek race? The answer to this is, of course, complex and subject to limitations of one kind or another; but it is, on the whole, surprising and disappointing. The influence of the women varied a good deal at different periods and with different tribes—we must make distinctions and differences when we talk of the Homeric women, or of the Spartan, the Ionian, the Æolian; but the curious fact remains that on the most brilliant product of the Greek mind and spirit, the Attic literature and civilization, the Athenian women left no stamp whatever; the marvellous age of Pericles seemed to get on without them. Speaking scientifically, they existed and they bore children; but their function seems to have ended there—unless, indeed, we praise them for playing that rôle for which Renan expressed his gratitude to a line of rustic ancestry and to his peasant mother. Like Mme. Renan, they took a complete intellectual rest; they did not exhaust the fund of latent energy which they were to transmit to their sons by any premature drafts for their own use. They saved, apparently, all the sap of the stock for the blossoming of the masculine intellect.

We do not mean to say that there were no women of strong character and natural gifts in Athens. Such a phenomenon never happens under the most adverse circumstances; even in an Oriental harem, there flash out those exceptional beings who make the power behind the throne, and who leave behind them once in a thousand years the splendid and poetic memorial of a Taj Mahal. But, in general, the epigram of Thucydides described the limit of their ambitions: "their glory was not to be talked about for good or evil among men." A shy and stealthy tribe, as Plato says, creeping into holes and corners, and conspiring stubbornly against change or reform—the despots of the loom and of the pots and pans of the kitchen—they were doubtless deadly dull company; indeed, if they were respectable, they were not expected to be company at all. A semi-Turkish etiquette excluded them from the entertainments given by their husbands and their sons. Yet their husbands were passionately fond of such entertainments; they were naturally expansive, full of curiosity, of vivacity; they loved to talk and to hear talk; they early made a science of after-dinner conversation. If their symposia were not exactly of the pattern and quality of Plato's, at any rate they assiduously busied themselves with post-prandial quips and riddles and topics of discussion. In this business they were obliged to depend mainly on one another, not on the ladies of the house. Very often, it is true, they invited-in the company of a certain class of ladies who correspond, we will say, in their charms and their offices to the Japanese Geishas. The companionship of these lively persons was far from being "a liberal education." If we may believe the comedians and that old gossip Athenæus, the witticisms of the Phrynes and the Laises were neither very edifying nor sparkling with Attic salt. They were not exactly fit personages for Platonic banquets, nor could they have adorned that choice and decorous company of spirits who work out the high problems of the 'Republic.'

We are talking about Attic manners and Attic society. These people, brilliant, loquacious, ardent, and expansive, felt the need of companionship—the need of intelligent and disinterested companionship; and where were intelligent companions to be found except among the men? The women were tiresome and dull, or else mercenary jades; the young men were eager, alert, full of curiosity and intelligence, full also of charm, beauty, and grace to the beauty-loving Greek eye. The result was masculine friendship which was often dyed with the romantic hues of Platonic love—that kind of friendship which finds its ethereal description in the most inspired pages of the 'Phædrus' and the 'Symposium'—the friendship of Saul and Jonathan; in short, that kind of friendship which, in its highest type, is celebrated in the "In Memoriam."

It is quite in place for the cynic to shake his head and point to the black and foul side of these masculine partnerships. This side existed, and is not denied; but it would be a great mistake historically to ignore the fact that this side is only *corruptio optimi;* that primarily it was an entirely honest, honorable, and ennobling relation of high-minded comradeship, such as we see in camps and colleges and the professions, which sublimates all that is highest and most enduring in the intercourse of either sex. What man of middle life does not miss the tender grace of some day that is dead, spent in sweet counsel that can never be renewed and never forgotten? "He lies dead beside the ships, unwept, unburied—Patroclus, whom I will not forget so long as I dwell among the living; yea, if there be forgetfulness among the dead, yet even there will I remember my friend." This certainly is no bad idea of friendship and comradeship. The French could find this kind of society in their salons; we may find it often—not always—at our homes and hearths. The Greeks were driven by circumstances to find it almost exclusively among men. There they satisfied their romantic ideal. They found it more satisfying than the company of a domestic drudge or plaything, or even of a Lais or a Phryne.

Taken at its highest, this ideal reached an extraordinary pitch of refinement. The science of social intercourse had advanced far, as we may see in the niceties and the casuistries of Aristotle's book on Friendship. That true friendship can subsist only between the virtuous; that where friendship is, justice is not needed; that friends guard us from error, and prompt us to a noble life; that friendship consists rather in loving than in being loved; that true friends must be few; that one's friend is a second self—these golden and transcendental maxims, together with certain delicious refinements of casuistry based on them, the philosopher propounds with the dry particularity of a botanist analyzing a rose. But you can see that he feels the sweetness and beauty of the rose—this cultivated flower that had blossomed chiefly from the intercourse of Greek men and comrades. Aristotle does not deny that lovers may be true friends—occasionally; he admits that husband and wife may also, under certain conditions, be true friends. "Matrimony is an aristocratic relation; the rule of the husband depends upon merit"; or, again: "Sometimes the wife rules, as being an heiress, and this rule is an oligarchy"—a plutocracy we call it. These sayings are not romantic nor encouraging, and we are far away from *das ewig Weibliche.* The Aristotelian husband evidently did not speak of his wife as his "better half," though he called his friend a "second self."

Was there, in fact, any romantic sentiment between the Greek husband and wife? Did the Greek lover regard his mistress with any feeling akin to chivalrous devotion? Such a question cannot be answered wholesale. Mr. Benecke's book is a clever and remarkable contribution toward an answer; his conclusions are clear-cut and unhesitating: In the modern romantic sense, the Greeks did not know what love was between man and woman; down to the Alexandrian period they had no such thing. On the other hand, they cultivated a pure and romantic comradeship between man and man, which was the equivalent of our modern chivalrous feeling toward women. Such comradeship was often, as we know, the basis of political clubs, as it was of the famous "Sacred Band"; on the other hand, a Greek of the

Alexandrian epoch might say to a woman, "I love you," and mean what a man does to-day. The person who set this novel fashion was Antimachus of Colophon (a younger contemporary of Plato), who deeply loved his wife, Lyde, and honored her memory with a poem. The elegies addressed by this ancient Petrarch to his Laura are not preserved, they are only vaguely described; but Mr. Benecke concludes that they were the first Greek love-poem in a pure and elevated strain addressed to a woman, and that their author was the first to teach his countrymen that a woman might be loved as purely and chivalrously as they had been in the habit of loving men.

There were, of course, earlier Greek love-poems, but the best of them were addressed by men to men. The 'Iliad' is really a love story, which celebrates the devotion of Achilles and Patroclus. Sappho conceived the novel idea of making intimate and beloved comrades of her own sex, with whom she could maintain an intellectual companionship; she borrowed the notion especially from the Dorian comradeship of boys and men—from such famous pairs as Orestes and Pylades. These were the only patterns of pure and romantic love which were then known to her countrymen, and these were the patterns she imitated in forming her coterie. The love of a Phaon she would have scorned above all things, because, says Mr. Benecke, this kind of partnership offered nothing to her mind and heart.

It has generally been thought that the 'Iliad' offers some charming types of womanhood. Mr. Benecke's theory will hardly admit this. Nausicaa is rather "a charming type of washerwoman"; Andromache will pass muster, but she is a Trojan, not a Greek; Penelope is "an ideal housekeeper"—she is more aggrieved because the suitors waste her herd of porkers than because they threaten her husband's life. Odysseus himself does not reward her constancy with responsive singleness of heart. "From beginning to end there is no suggestion of a love motive in the 'Odyssey.' "

It is the common opinion that Euripides knew what love was and what women were. But here again Mr. Benecke's thesis obliges him to assail and to minimize the prevailing opinion. He admits that about this period women began to be influential in Athenian life; they became important, men began to discuss their rights, to talk of them, to fear them; they had not yet learned to love the other sex. But Alcestis, you may say—did not Alcestis at any rate understand the modern trick of conjugal devotion and self-sacrifice? "No," says Mr. Benecke, "for the *man* she does not care in the least; for the husband, for the ideal of the family, she is perfectly ready to die," whimsically forgetting the words of Phaedrus in the "Symposium": "Love will make men dare to die for their beloved, and women as well as men. Of this Alcestis, the daughter of Pelias, is a monument to all Hellas." No, says our author, Alcestis, Andromeda, Iphigenia are lovable, but not loved. Euripides, though learned in the hearts of women, never painted true love; about fifty years later a certain Antimachus discovered that his wife was a capital and lovable comrade, as good company as a man. He proclaimed this discovery in books which have passed into oblivion, and the miracle was worked. He did not invent the romantic passion, Mr. Benecke concedes; he "simply transferred it to another sex."

These are the views of a young scholar who has made an exhaustive collection of passages and citations, and whose research deserves the highest praise. There is a good deal to smile at in these slashing propositions, and also much that is valuable and suggestive, for they are associated with an exhaustive collection of passages and authorities. The chief error of Benecke's position is that he inverts his solid pyramid of facts, and tries to balance it on its apex—that is to say, upon a shadowy personage who works a social revolution with an unknown poem; in the next place, he does not allow much to human nature, which is constantly rushing in after you drive her out with a pitchfork. Any exceptional woman is liable to break Mr. Benecke's sweeping rule, for such a woman is sure to make for herself exceptional treatment; if she be a strong character and a delightful personage, she will break all barriers, she will captivate even her husband, whether in the third or the thirteenth century B. C. Such accidents happen in China, we know, and the Greeks were by no means bound fast in adamantine traditions like the Chinese. They were by no means jealous of feminine genius. They heartily admired Sappho; they admired Artemisia, who fought like a man and won compliments from Xerxes. In Sparta feminine public opinion was sometimes despotic; the men were afraid to come back to face their wives after the defeat of Leuctra. Yet these handsome viragos could love their husbands, and die with them, as Plutarch, who was a fine connoisseur in the sex and could appreciate an Agiatis or a Cleopatra, takes pleasure in recording.

It is, on the other hand, entirely true that the Greeks addressed poems of chivalrous sentiment to young men. One or two examples will show Aristotle's code in operation. Theocritus makes Hercules the devoted and inseparable protector of young Hylas. "He taught him all things as a father teaches his child—that the lad might be fashioned to his mind, and might drive a straight furrow and come to the true measure of man." This is precisely what the poet Theognis did for the young friend to whom his elegies are addressed. They make a collection of copy-book maxims and moralizings—a sort of manual which is a cross between Machiavelli's 'Prince' and Chesterfield's Letters to his Son, with less cynicism and a higher tone. A large portion of them is entirely fit *virginibus puerisque;* another group, going under the same name, is strangely different, and quite unedifying for boys or girls. Out of the midst of these admonitions and worldly-wise advice there breaks out now and then a stanza full of personal feeling, an accent of reproach, a complaint of fickleness, a note of passion and jealousy, quite in the strain of Shakspere's Sonnets. The highest flight of these elegies exactly anticipates the strain:

"Yet do thy worst, Old Time, despite thy wrong
My love shall in my verse live ever young."

And again, in Theocritus a lover complains of the inconstancy of his friend; of pride, of coquetry; after an absence of three days (*universum triduom!*) he writes:

"Oh, welcome back! the third long day and night are gone at last!
Thrice welcome! we who wait and pine grow old ere one is passed!"

Now, here we have tenderness and Oriental passion—the passion of Sappho with more than her delicacy. To what Phillis or Chloe were the lines addressed? Why, to a young man; and this is rather bewildering—it belongs to the land of 'Alice behind the Looking-glass.' Courtesy, tenderness, chivalry, passionate affection, all these marks and qualities are found in poetry addressed to men—are, in fact, down to a certain date reserved almost exclusively for men; and then, with a right-about-face, they appear, in the New Comedy and in the Alexandrian poetry, transferred to the sex to whom, according to our notions, they rightfully belong. The lover of the New Comedy begins to know the gracious illusions and exaggerations of "Romeo and Juliet," though his world is not bathed in the rose-colored mist of that atmosphere of poetry.

Whence came this surprising change Mr. Benecke's treatise does not really explain. It was undoubtedly not a *bouleversement*, as he represents it; it was due to a series of social movements which had been slowly working towards a culmination. It was due in the first place to the genius of Menander, who held the mirror up to nature, and thought it worth while to make a study of domestic life and character instead of writing political satire and extravaganzas, as Aristophanes chose to do. Doubtless Aristophanes had the genius to give us character-studies; but his bent and the controlling forces of his epoch drove him to turn upon life the distorting mirror of burlesque. Menander, then, painted what he saw, what might have been seen earlier, perhaps, by the fitting genius and the discerning eye.

It is ridiculous to make much of an Antimachus, and to forget Pericles and his Aspasia. Aspasia was without question the kind of woman to live for, and to die for, if necessary. Pericles thought so when he condescended to shed tears before her judges. It was he, a far greater than Antimachus, who first set the Athenians an example of the affection, the courtesies, and the dignity that belong to the position of a wife. Aspasia herself, in her salon, had shown the Athenian ladies what a social force they might become, and had discoursed with them on their duties towards their husbands. It is not likely that they soon forgot so novel a scene and so rare an example; if it offended some prejudices and stupidities, it must have flattered strongly the pride and the self-respect of these caged domestic creatures, who ceased their cackle for a while and listened for the first time to rational conversation. Doubtless there were other centres of influence, though none so brilliant and lofty; these seeds of new ideals were wafted abroad, we may be sure, by the winds and currents of the time; the Dorian and Ionian modes and manners began to invade the seclusion of the Athenian harems. The barriers of the petty states were breaking up; bands of adventurers penetrate to the depths of Asia Minor and to Egypt. Even the Spartans become rolling-stones, and a Spartan king ends his days an exile and an adventurer in Egypt. Corinthian women, the Dorian turtle-doves of Theocritus, visit Alexandria with their husbands, as we visit Paris, to see the sights and the fashions of the great metropolis. The Macedonian queens, the lineage of Olympias and the Berenices, had no great store of virtues, but they had imperious charms and graces, intellect and force of character, which could not be overlooked, which culminated, instead of degenerating, in that miracle of enchantments and fas-

cinations, "The Serpent of Old Nile." They brought their gifts to Egypt, where already for ages the women had possessed their own legal rights and their recognized position. They were honored with statues and epithalamiums and apotheoses; they shared temple and worship and tribute with their royal husbands. No wonder that here women became a power in literature and in art; in this cosmopolitan movement, the maiden and the wife at last attained their dignities and their dues. Their tastes are served by the painters; their souls become worth the scrutiny of the poet; they ascend the throne which they occupy in modern romance and the drama. To take a single instance, the Medea of Apollonius Rhodius reappears in the tone and color of Virgil's Queen Dido; the story of her maiden struggles and waverings, her self-reproach, her curiously decorous elopement, contains bits of psychology that remind one of the latest novel, told with a reserve, a decency, a restraint which the latest novel is too apt to disdain.

Mr. Benecke's book addresses itself exclusively to scholars, but it is the brilliant and unfinished work of a remarkable young man who ought to have lived longer for the sake of the world of letters. It is replete with an engaging and vigorous personality; it charms at the same time by its natural wit, the nobility and freshness of its sentiments, by the knowledge and the ignorance of the world which it displays. The reader feels, "Here is a man whose acquaintance would have been worth making." Mr. Perry's volume belongs to another class. It is handsomely printed, not so well illustrated, and is dedicated by permission to Queen Victoria. It is written, with good taste, in a discursive and not uninteresting style. We were going to add that it is strictly popular in its manner and treatment, but this description is not quite correct, for it errs in introducing Greek words and quotations which are misprinted half the time. This, however, will not trouble its readers, who will derive from it generally correct views and sentiments, and will become acquainted with many well-chosen passages from the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey.'

CHINA OF TO-DAY AND TO-MORROW.

Through China with a Camera. By John Thomson. Dodd, Mead & Co.

China in Transformation. By A. R. Colquhoun. Harper & Bros.

There is an undoubted benefit, especially in descriptive geography, of uniting the work of the pencil and the camera. It is often difficult to express in the terms of a foreign vocabulary either the ideas or the actual facts of a civilization. The limitations which beset the traveller-author, because of his poverty of moulds of thought and forms of language, are very real. It is truly difficult to translate, say, the thoughts of Buddhism into languages saturated with the Christian conception of the universe. Even the most honest traveller fails to convey to his hearers the images of what he has actually seen. Lowell's poetry about the flowers of language shedding their petals in speech is an every-day matter of the prose of experience. Mr. John Thomson, who has already written of the antiquities of Cambodia and looked at China and the Chinese through a camera, aptly remarks that had "Marco Polo been able to confirm by a series of photographs his story of the wonders of Cathay, his fair fame would have escaped the discredit cast upon it for centuries." In our day, photography has cooperated with research to confirm Polo's story.

In his portly and handsome volume, Mr. Thomson gives a readable picture in words of static China. He shows what the country is and how the Chinese live. His text suggests the long perspective of Chinese history, the tenacity of China's unique civilization, and the unyielding strength of her social system. While such things as an army and navy, honest administrators, and public virtue exist chiefly on paper, the realities of poverty and ignorance are ever present. He does not, however, believe in the necessity of poverty or the absolute hopefulness of the Chinese, but he does maintain that reform is to begin not in wild schemes for arming the empire in defence of the very institutions which are the cause of her impotency; any reform worthy of the name must begin with the Government itself. Criticism or analysis, however, does not form the main burden of his book, but rather description. The Chinaman at home and abroad is portrayed with pen and picture. Although Mr. Thomson's literary style is not particularly brilliant, the information he conveys is thorough and accurate. Canton and the cities of southern China near the coast, Foochow and the River Min, Shanghai, and the line of cities along the Great River, Peking, and the group of northern cities, all come under his notice. He is particularly full and especially interesting in his chapter on Formosa. The reproductions of his photographs are numerous and of a high order of merit. There is no index.

Mr. Colquhoun is an accomplished explorer, a pioneer of trade, a marker out of railways, an engineer of the first class, and—we say it after having reviewed several of his books—a luminous and attractive writer. He has made the whole empire his special study. His list of books consulted shows that he knows what is best in the literature of the subject, and librarians can take a good hint in the business of finding out what is wheat and what chaff in the heap of books on China. His work is not one for the critical or special scholar. He writes in order to be immediately helpful to the general reader and to men of business, politics, and travel, who wish to know the China that is and also that which is to be. The subjects which he discusses are those of geography, communications, economics and foreign relations. The matter of communications is with him of the first importance. He is a railroad missionary, and an apostle holding the faith that isolation is the breeder of all manner of evils, and that the intercourse of nations is a blessing to the whole race. He describes with subtle analysis China's government and administration, her actual and potential commercial development, diplomatic intercourse, the native press, and the people.

Mr. Colquhoun has a chapter on Chinese democracy. He finds in filial piety the secret of China's marvellous longevity. It is in her genuine local democracy that he discovers the roots of the "sacred right of rebellion," which has so often asserted itself in China. The political organization consists of a patriarchal system, at the head of which is the Emperor, "the father of the people," who alone worships and represents Heaven or God, superimposed upon a vast democracy. Between Emperor and people is a hoary method of administration carried on by mandarins and petty officers who reach their position through the civil service or literary examinations. The poorest boy in the land can rise to be Prime Minister, while in the Emperor's family the nobility descends one grade lower with every generation, until in the ninth from the son of Heaven, the descendants of those who were imperial nobles rejoin and become level with the common people. In this curious duarchy, there is no middle term of individuality, no great middle class of people as in the Western nations. Nor is there anything corresponding to that great body of the Japanese Samurai who constitute one-tenth of the whole population, and who have been able to swing the nation out of the old grooves into the new path of modern progress. While Japan boasts one unbroken dynasty of twenty-five alleged centuries, China changes hers every two or three hundred years, and counts over thirty dynasties.

Most interesting and valuable are the illustrations and maps of Mr. Colquhoun's work, which powerfully reinforce the text, showing the distribution of religions, the density of population, the extent of the various rebellions and devastations. Other diagrams show comparisons of categories and statistics, so that few books, if indeed any, can compare with this as one immediately helpful to the student of contemporaneous politics. As to the burden and animus of the work, there can be no mistake whatever. The author uses the English language in such a way that the reader not only may but must understand him. He believes that the only salvation for China rests in opening the country fully to foreign enterprise; that the building of railroads, the improvement of communications of every sort, and the opening of mines by means of foreign capital and native coöperation will insure a continuance of their political organism and of happy life to the Chinese. He believes that England is the best friend of China, and can help her most. As a Russophobist, he feels sure that Russia is boundless in her ambition, and, if left unchecked by Great Britain, will unscrupulously carry out a scheme of universal empire. With more solid territorial foundation than any empire, ancient or modern, Russia is constantly enlarging her compact mass, and her people have the tremendous advantage of fighting with their back to the north wind. "To parley with such a force is like parleying with the tidal wave. Only a sea wall of solid construction can set bounds to its inflow." The one power that can set those bounds is Great Britain. Mr. Colquhoun believes in facing Russia now on Chinese soil. Otherwise, he thinks that the British will be first replaced in China, and then themselves be engulfed. He takes hope from history. "For three hundred years we fought France, and built up our empire in the process." Now, cries this apostle of trade, railways, and war (if necessary), "If Britain be but true to herself, and draw the Anglo-Teutonic races to her side, she has still the means of averting this danger which threatens the whole of those races through the domination of the world by the Slav power."

Canadian Folk-Life and Folk-Lore. By William Parker Greenough. With illustrations by Walter C. Greenough. New York: George H. Richmond. 1897. [1898.]

Without speculating on the cause of the

circumstance, we may state the plain fact that little has yet been written in English about the French Canadians and their ways of life. Mr. Greenough has found a capital subject, his opportunities of examining it have been unusually good, and his manner of treatment is delightful. Any one can compile an historical or statistical account of the *habitants* from Garneau and the latest census tables, but it is only through the personal knowledge which comes of long residence that such materials as appear in this book can be brought together. Each chapter is a compound of anecdote, of observation, and of shrewd or amusing reflection.

Although not so stated in any single passage, we infer from scattered references that Mr. Greenough is an American lumber merchant whose familiarity with the Laurentian district springs from business relations. By a gradual process, it would seem, he has become closely associated with the people whom he describes, until, after repeated visits, he has established a home among them. Thus, as a critic of character, he enjoys two important advantages: he is unaffected by racial prejudices which might vitiate the writings of an English Canadian, and in the course of commercial dealings he must have gone far below the surface. We shall mention but one other general feature of the volume which is attractive—its absence of literary consciousness or of deeper purpose than appears at first glance. The manuscript was handed about for some time among the author's friends, and not until it had been "worn almost to fragments, and after many people had said, 'I wish you would get this printed and send me a copy,'" did it reach the printer.

In his title, Mr. Greenough uses "Canadian" just as an English native of Montreal or Quebec would employ that term: that is, he confines it to persons of French origin. Taken in its widest extension, the word comprises dwellers in cities or country towns, but here its application is limited to the rural *habitant*. "The *habitant* is simply the farmer. The name was given to those early settlers who remained to *inhabit* the country, to distinguish them from officials, traders, and others who were not expected to reside in it permanently." The descendants of these early colonists still occupy the lower shores of the St. Lawrence. Moreover, the pressure of population has driven them back into the sterile region north of the stream and southward into the fertile counties called "Eastern Townships," which were originally settled by emigrants from New England. Mr. Greenough has probably seen less of those who live on the south shore and in mixed communities than he has of the pure Canadian stock as it flourishes along the river bank between Three Rivers and Quebec. The distinctive type is nowhere better articulated than in the region which he has traversed over and over again and where he has built his own *cabane*.

A sketch which was originally prepared to gratify the curiosity of intimate friends could not very well regard the niceties of systematic arrangement, and topics are considered in a somewhat haphazard sequence. Or, rather, the chapters are separate essays, printed without attention to a fixed scheme, since the proof of particular points is beyond the author's design. All is elastic, spontaneous, and unreserved. Among the chief subjects detailed in the table of contents are "My Friends, the Habitants of Canada"; "Animal Life and Fish," "Occupations," "Amusements," "The Church," "Marriages and Festivities," "Chansons Canadiennes," "Language and Education," "Some National Characteristics." The folk-lore element indicated in the title is slight, and really does not touch comparative legend at all. Under the head of "Amusements—Contes and Raconteurs," several good instances of the tales told around camp-fires are given, but if the word *loup-garou* occurs anywhere we have failed to see it. Mr. Greenough's object is by swift and telling strokes to depict the French Canadian as he lives and occupies himself in modern days.

The Roman Catholic peasant—whether French, German, Italian, or Spanish—is always an interesting object of inquiry to educated Englishmen; and the French Canadian rustics, in spite of their citizenship, still constitute a peasantry. Their occupations and ideas, until they emigrate from their Laurentian homes, are far more primitive than those of the other nationalities on this continent. Their virtues strike the imagination (in cases like that of Mr. Greenough's Nazaire, who resembles the best Swiss guides); and even where extraordinary merit does not shine forth among them, they preach a certain gospel by showing that poverty and contentment are not incompatible. We do not extol their torpor, but their cheerfulness and patience are standard qualities which a restless generation should mark and profit by. However, this is a work of amusement rather than of moralizing, and we must quote a single short passage which illustrates its easy and practical strain. "At our fishing-camp we used many baked beans. Now the French for beans is *fèves*, but baked beans are called simply 'beans.' Our cook will frequently ask me if he is to '*mettre tremper des fèves pour faire de beans*,' that is, put some beans in soak to make some *beans*. So baked beans will be *beans* in French, while the unbaked article will continue to be *fèves*."

Mr. Greenough's study will henceforth be indispensable to thoughtful travellers in the Lower St. Lawrence valley, and should also be widely circulated in Canada itself. At only one point have we found ourselves differing from the author over a question of fact. On p. 78 he minimizes somewhat unduly the efforts which are made within the Province of Quebec to catch religious proselytes.

The Goede Vrouw of Mana-ha-ta. By Mrs. John King Van Rensselaer. 8vo. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

While the seventeenth century was young, the trading nations of Europe had already occupied most of the points of vantage on the western Atlantic coast. The line of English and Spanish settlements was broken by one unoccupied place, where the Hudson River, the future highway of a nation, penetrating a vast and rich interior region, poured into the sea at Manhattan Island. English settlers, sailing either for this point or for the Delaware capes, but neglecting the variation of the compass, and ignorant of the Gulf Stream drift, had been forced to a less hospitable coast. The Dutch, already owners of the islands of spices on the other side of the globe, cast their eyes on this western region of furs and fisheries, and planted their race upon this spot so firmly and wisely that one who looks below the surface traces their steps, not effaced, but deepened by the lapse of time.

Mercury, god of traders, was not the only patron saint of New Amsterdam. Lucina too was invoked, and with the first shipload of settlers was sent a midwife, Mary Jans, or Jonas, from whom Anekje Jans, fruitful of much litigation, descended. With Mary's help the colonists rapidly increased and replenished the earth, seeming even eager for her services, as is witnessed by the shortness of periods of widowhood, and the readiness shown by relicts "convoler en secondes noces," and often "en troisièmes."

Healthful conditions of life and peaceful surroundings favored the making of happy homes, under the rule of Dutch thrift and hereditary housewifely virtues. A generation grew up before the English imposed their alien dominion, which controlled politics, but could make no impression on a closely allied and self-respecting social system. Into this the conservative matrons would allow no foreigner to penetrate. The successive English Governors (with the bright exceptions of Hunter and Burnet), dissolute creatures of a court, or bankrupt dependants on the ruling powers, were avoided and execrated by the people for excesses and rapacities which would have turned into cruelties, had they dared to follow the tempting example of Spanish proconsuls. With these officials the men of the colony held necessary relations, sometimes intimate and interested, while the good wives of Manhattan kept themselves strictly aloof from social communion with them. This story relates many instances in which the women used their influence over their husbands to mitigate severities, resist abuses, and defy encroachments on the part of their Governors. It is related how this influence gave strength to the severe rebuke administered by the States-General at a very early date to Governor Stuyvesant for his persecution of the Quakers. This salutary effect of wise and intimate feminine counsel upon public affairs is well traced in the vivid sketches of the cruel usurpation of Leisler, the corrupt rule of Cosby, and the stirring episode of Zenger's trial.

Inviting passages for quotation abound in this volume—picturesque description, quaint revival of old customs and manners, and curious tradition and anecdote. Access to family archives from which these are drawn permits Mrs. Van Rensselaer to promise a fuller account of the leading families of Manhattan in the last century. Such annals will form a valuable contribution to the domestic history of this city, and will bring out strongly the truth that while many of the Dutch names have ceased to exist through marriages, the mother-blood of the mother-stock still subsists in full vigor. They will show that though Irish seize the offices, and Germans usurp the shops, and Hebrews swarm on the Exchange, the ancient element still holds in New York the churches, the charities, the colleges.

The volume is beautifully printed, with a clear and copious index. Two or three amusing typographical errors need to be corrected in another edition, which will no doubt be called for by a reading public of which descendants of the people commemorated make a large part. If there were an American Academy, entitled to decree

prizes for literary excellence, this work would richly deserve the crown of its approval, as one of the most novel and agreeable books of the year.

A Hero of Ticonderoga. By Rowland E. Robinson. Burlington, Vt.: Hobart J. Shanley & Co. 1898.

Those who are familiar with Mr. Robinson's other writings do not need to be told that this book will be read with a very pure pleasure. The controversy over the "New Hampshire Grants" was not a very important episode in itself, although it nearly resulted in allying Vermont with Canada. Nor was the capture of the fifty soldiers occupying Fort Ticonderoga by a force five times as large a very prodigious achievement. But these things have become a part of our national mythology, and are as dear to the popular heart as the tales of Romulus and Remus and the expulsion of the Tarquins were to the Romans. Mr. Robinson tells his story well, and manages to make it sufficiently thrilling without dabbling it in blood. In fact, the only slaughter that takes place is that of game; and yet little people read the book with delight. May it not be that their blood-thirstiness is exaggerated, and that if authors did not, as Artemus Ward said, delight to wade in gore, children would yet take pleasure in reading?

But in the best sense this tale is genuine history. The author knows the region that he describes, he knows the speech and the manner of life of the early settlers, and, more than all, he knows nature. We take upon faith his account of the features of the country, knowing that he is familiar with them, and his description of the conduct and speech and belongings of the pioneers, feeling sure that it is based upon authentic traditions, obtained almost at first hand. But no one that has ever gone into the great woods of a winter's day, or, indeed, that has ever entered them with open eyes and ears, requires to exercise faith in order to appreciate Mr. Robinson's descriptions. To read them is almost as good as camping out, and is, indeed, not a bad introduction to woodcraft. The delicate touches which create the scenes are not the result of imagination, but of observation, and we cannot but think that if our children are to be taught the meagre annals of the early backwoodsmen, they should be taught by books possessing such verisimilitude as Mr. Robinson knows how to impart.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. Clear Skies and Cloudy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Alexander, Mrs. The Cost of Her Pride. Philadelphia. J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Bailey, L. H. Sketch of the Evolution of our Native Fruits. Macmillan. $2.
Barr, Robert. Tekla. A Romance of Love and War. F. A. Stokes Co.
Besant, Sir Walter. The Changeling. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Bigelow, John. Life of Benjamin Franklin. 3 vols. 4th ed., revised. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.50.
Blanchard, Amy E. An Independent Daughter. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Blass, Prof. Friedrich. Grammar of New Testament Greek. Macmillan. $4.50.
Brunetière, F. Manual of the History of French Literature. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Burney, Frances. Evelina. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Pilot of the Mayflower. Appletons.
Cary, Elisabeth L. Tennyson, his Homes, his Friends, and his Work. Putnams. $3.75.
Cone, Rev. Orello. Paul, the Man, the Missionary, and the Teacher. Macmillan. $2.
Davies, M. W. The Marie Corelli Birthday Book. London: Hutchinson & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Defoe, Daniel. Robinson Crusoe. London: Service & Paton; New York: Putnams. $1.
Dickens, Charles, jr., and Collins, Wilkie. John Jasper's Secret. Sequel to Edwin Drood. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Earle, Mary T. The Man Who Worked for Collister. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Eggert, Prof. C. A. Goethe's Iphigenie auf Tauris. Macmillan. 60c.
Escott-Inman, H. The Owl King, and Other Fairy Stories. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Everett-Green, E. French and English. A Story of the Struggle in America. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Fleming, May Agnes. The Sisters of Torwood. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Ford, H. J. The Rise and Growth of American Politics. Macmillan. $1.50.
Gee, Henry. The Elizabethan Clergy and the Settlement of Religion, 1558-1564. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Grand, Sarah. The Modern Man and Maid. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Hamblen, H. E. Tom Benton's Luck. Macmillan. $1.50.
Harris, Miriam C. A Corner of Spain. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Herford, Oliver. The Bashful Earthquake, and Other Fables and Verses. Scribners. $1.25.
Hewins, Prof. W. A. S. The Whitefoord Papers. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Hogg, James. The Confessions of a Justified Sinner. London: J. Shiells & Co.
Howe, Mrs. Julia Ward. From Sunset Ridge. Poems Old and New. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Humphreys, Prof. W. Schiller's Jungfrau von Orleans. Macmillan. 60c.
Hurll, Estelle M. The Life of Our Lord in Art. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Jewett, Clark. Life's Passionate Guest. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Johnstone, D. L. The White Princess of the Hidden City. London: Chambers; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Jordell, D. Répertoire Bibliographique des Principales Revues Françaises pour l'Année 1897. Paris: Librairie Nilsson; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Keats, John. Isabella; or, The Pot of Basil. Illustrated and Decorated by W. B. Macdougall. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Keats, John. Ode on the Grecian Urn, and Other Poems. [Riverside Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
King, Capt. Charles. From School to Battle-Field. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 10, 1898.

The Week.

It is not yet possible to state how the next Congress will stand, but it is certain that the Republicans have lost heavily at the polls in the choice of Representatives, and the indications are that the so-called Democrats of various brands, the Populists, and the odds and ends, will together outnumber the Administration party. Whether or not the Republicans prove in the end to have a bare majority in the House, the Senate will be Republican by a safe majority after the 4th of March next, so that no opposition measure can carry. The Democratic members in New York, and in the East generally, however, are not silver men. Although some of them refused to be interrogated on this question, they are at heart in favor of sound money. They know that if they should lend themselves to any scheme for a depreciated currency, they would be cast out at the next election. Moreover, the gains made by the Republicans in Nebraska, Colorado, Utah, and California are exceedingly cheering to the friends of sound money. They add remarkable force to the other indications that have been observed since Congress adjourned and the war has come to a close, that the silver craze is on the wane in those parts of the country where it took its rise, and where it has hitherto been strongest. We can scarcely believe the report that Congressman Bland has been defeated for reëlection in Missouri, but the heavy reduction of his majority, which was nearly 6,000 in 1896, is an event full of promise. There is a fair chance that Champ Clark, a greater blatherskite than Bland, is defeated in Missouri. Enough is known to show that the trans-Missouri States are no longer solid for silver, while the Pacific States now show a handsome majority for sound money.

If the people of New York had meant to give the smallest endorsement to the war, the one hero, Col. Roosevelt, would have carried the State by at least as many votes as defeated Maynard, namely, 100,000. His little majority has saved us from a great calamity. The brief statement which Col. Roosevelt gave out on Tuesday evening, after his election was assured, shows that he has the true conception of the influences which carried him to success. He was elected, not on national issues, but on State issues, and he owes his success to the support of independents and Democrats, who, as he says, "put the welfare of the State first." There is no "expansion," or "empire," or "Jingoism" in his victory. He has been chosen by the people of the State because they have faith in his personal character and courage, and believe that he will keep his promises to administer the government of the State in the interest of the whole people. Nothing is more reassuring, or more commendable, in his post-election statement than this declaration: "I am a good Republican, and I believe I can best serve the Republican party by doing everything I can to help it serve the State."

Quay's victory in Pennsylvania is the worst result of Tuesday's elections. It shows him again the shrewdest political manager in the country. There was a majority of voters against him last summer; he knew it as well as anybody else. It was essential to his success that this majority should be divided. A Democratic candidate for Governor who would have solidified the opposition to Quay was the peril of the situation. Quay surmounted this obstacle by using his influence with the Democratic machine to prevent the nomination of the man who would have attracted independent support, and to force the choice of a candidate who would repel it. The heart was thus taken out of the fight against the boss. Anti-Quay men divided their votes between the Democratic nominee and Dr. Swallow, and the Quay candidate for Governor won. It is the greatest victory in Quay's career, for not only has he got a Legislature which will return him to the Senate and do his will in all other things, but he has also realized his long-cherished ambition to "have a Governor whom I own." Pennsylvania thus touches the lowest depth of political degradation ever reached by a State in the Union.

Next to the result in Pennsylvania the most deplorable is the success of Tanner in Illinois. He was not running for reëlection, but the Republican State ticket for minor officials and the Republican canvass for the Legislature represented Tannerism, and the result is a victory for Tannerism, even though the Republican majorities are reduced. Tanner "stood by his guns" as a nullifier of the Federal Constitution to the end. In the last speech of the campaign, delivered at the State capital, he defended his course in driving black citizens of Alabama out of Illinois for the crime of coming there to work, and declared that he would treat any other body of American citizens from any other State of the Union who should come for the same purpose, in the same way. Tanner is therefore entitled to hold to-day that his rebellion against the federal Government has been approved by the people of his State, as it has been condoned by the President of the United States.

Nothing is doing more to sober the public mind and arrest the craze for empire which the speculators have been cultivating than the reflection that an imperial policy means a large standing army—"hundreds of thousands in number," Senator Hoar estimates—and the conviction that either compulsory military service or a vast increase in the running cost of our military establishment will be necessary to secure and maintain such an army. We pointed out some weeks ago that, although Congress last spring authorized an increase in the regular force to 61,000 men, the total number secured did not come within 10,000 of that limit, and that the inevitable effect of the revelations as to the way our troops had been treated, not only abroad, but at home—forty-two deaths, for example, in a Maine regiment, which was in the service less than four months, chiefly at Chickamauga—must discourage enlistments. This has happened, the number of new men having fallen from 6,586 in July to 2,838 in the last full month reported; while the applications for discharge are numerous, ninety having been granted in one day recently. This means, as Mr. Carnegie says, that Congress "must raise the pay of regular troops, for men will not enlist as before when they know the miserable task for which they are sought and that they will be sent beyond our shores." This fact has already been admitted by Gen. Greely, who states that "enlistments are rapidly falling off, and something will have to be done to check it," specifying that "we shall have to do one of two things, either increase the pay of privates, or lower the standard, both as to physical, mental, and moral attainments." In other words, if we take the Philippines, we must not only keep a great body of troops there, constantly recruited to make up for the losses by disease, but we must tax our people an immense sum to pay these troops the $25 or $30 or $40 a month (instead of $13) which they will demand for risking their lives in that part of the world.

Senator Hoar is, by nature and lifelong habit, the most bitter of partisans, as loath to criticise a Republican President as to admit that there could be virtue in a Democrat, and yet he does not hesitate to declare that the policy which Mr. McKinley is seeking to impose upon the nation, involves "a greater danger than we have encountered since the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth—the danger that we are to be trans-

formed from a republic, founded on the Declaration of Independence, guided by the counsels of Washington, into a vulgar, commonplace empire, founded upon physical force." Senator Hoar reminds the public of a fact which most people seem to overlook when they talk about "our new possessions," that "there is no authority under the Constitution of the United States to acquire any foreign territory save by a treaty approved by the Senate by a two-thirds vote, or by an act of legislation in which the President, the House of Representatives, and the Senate must unite"; and he makes it clear that the acquisition of the Philippines will not be carried through without the most earnest protest from those who still believe in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution.

It is impossible to deny a certain force to the arguments of those who say that having, without the slightest necessity, destroyed or greatly weakened the power of Spain in the Philippines, we are under a moral obligation to supply something to take the place of the government we have virtually overthrown. This is the best excuse put forward for annexation, but a sufficient answer to it is the effect of annexation on our own polity and political manners. The safety, honor, and welfare of the people of the United States are, for an American legislator, the first consideration; every other is comparatively insignificant. But Senator Hoar suggests a plan for fulfilling this obligation which will enable us to discharge our whole duty towards the Philippines without any damage to ourselves; nay, with much glory to ourselves, and we need a little glory just now, for the Peace Commissioners have been diffusing through Europe the notion that we are essentially a nation of "drummers," whose chief aim in negotiation is to drive a hard bargain. That plan is to call other "civilized and Christian nations into our counsel and invite their coöperation" in setting the Philippines on their feet, "and supporting them in the exercise of self-government." "We will not treat them as booty, and we will not govern them as serfs," he says. Doubtless, there are instances on the other side, such as the interference of the Russians in Hungary in 1849, and that of the French in Rome the same year; but there are three capital precedents for Senator Hoar's plan in the deliverance of Greece from the Turks by the Allies in 1827, the deliverance of Bosnia from the Turks in 1878, and the deliverance of Syria from disorder by the French in 1860, with the joint consent of England and Russia. France made peace in a month. The Powers then agreed on a Christian Governor, an Armenian, who was given full power, with the aid of a small council, and the different races have ever since, for thirty years, lived together in comparative peace and amity.

All accounts, even those from American correspondents in Paris, agree that the Spanish Commissioners have displayed a high order of ability. In debating power and dialectic resource, as well as in legal equipment, they are said to have shown themselves the superiors of the Americans. But what does it all amount to? The Spanish have always been forensic sons of thunder. Somebody told Lord Melbourne, when he was Prime Minister, that the Spaniards spoke marvellously well in the Cortes. "That is one of the worst things I know about them," remarked he. Ability to argue victoriously on given premises is not so fruitful an intellectual power as ability to get the premises right to start with. The Spanish at Paris seem to have gone hopelessly wrong in supposing that our Commissioners were there to discuss instead of dictating terms. Cut off from anything but an ineffective moral sympathy from Europe, Spain has no alternative but to submit to whatever demands our Government makes. This she appears to be slowly realizing. We note that German newspapers gravely advise our Commissioners to be content with the territorial cession of Porto Rico, and not to ask an indemnity, or the Philippines in lieu thereof.

A memorial addressed to the President of the United States was laid before the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday, by Charles Henry Butler and others, urging the call of an international conference to consider the question of making private property on the sea free from capture during war. This ought to be one of the burning questions of the day. Nothing in the course of the late war with Spain was more humiliating or more distasteful to all right-thinking persons than the capture of private merchant ships bearing the errands of peaceful commerce — ships whose captains and crews were not even aware of the existence of war—and their practical incarceration for months, while waiting for the action of a prize court. Granted that these proceedings were justified under the present state of international law, the fact remains that the law is barbarous. It is only less so than the law, once universal, that all captives in war could be sold into slavery, as they generally were. The capture of private property on land during war is now forbidden. Such seizure cannot always be prevented, but it falls under the denomination of robbery and is liable to punishment as such. In a moral point of view there is no difference between property afloat and property ashore. It is to be hoped that when the bellicose nations of the world, including the United States of America, become quiet, and send their delegates to the Czar's disarmament congress, this will be one of the subjects brought before it, and certainly we might properly charge ourselves with that mission, seeing that the exemption of private property from capture by sea has been one of our contentions from the beginning of our history as a nation.

It is with a keen sense of loss, both public and private, that we record the death of David Ames Wells. That he was the victim of an incurable disease had been known to himself and his friends for fully fifteen years. It speaks volumes for his equanimity and buoyancy of spirits that he never betrayed the slightest uneasiness on that subject, and never allowed it to interfere with the rational enjoyment of life or with the work which he felt moved to do. His medical adviser was the late Dr. Fordyce Barker, who was also his close connection by marriage, and knew him to be "charged with the demon of industry." At the time when Mr. Wells was writing his work entitled 'Recent Economic Changes,' Dr. Barker sought to lay commands upon him to cease work, or at all events to do less of it. Mr. Wells said then that he preferred death to idleness, that he must follow the mental impulses within him, whatever the consequences might be. Nevertheless he passed the age of seventy, and had a happy as well as a useful life, and earned the garland of good service to his country and to mankind earnestly and unselfishly performed. The leading events of Mr. Wells's career and a list of his contributions to political science are given on another page.

Lord Rosebery's resumption of the leadership of the Liberal party in England seems now to be generally acknowledged, and it is also generally acknowledged that his consistent "record" as an Imperialist is what has done most to restore him to his old position. Yet he is not for unlimited imperialism. His imperialistic exhortations are as often warnings of the dangers of the policy as praises of its glory. He said very justly the other day that "land hunger is apt to become land fever, is apt to breed land indigestion." The stoutest national stomach cannot go on for ever ingesting strange tropical foods in the shape of distant islands and spheres of influence without finding that digestive power has its limits. A "sphere of influence" may turn out to be a region which influences you (and badly) more than you influence it. Yet we believe it is true that the parts of our country where the land hunger rages most violently are the parts where the amount of unoccupied land is greatest. It is not the crowded East which tells Mr. McKinley that he must take the Philippines in order to give us room and verge enough, but the sparsely settled West.

Perhaps they think out there that their experience in having more land than they know what to do with precisely, fits them for annexing still more.

Lord Rosebery made an address before the Associated Societies of Edinburgh University the other evening, in which he put in a very effective way the appeal which the Empire, and the ideas which in Great Britain go with it, make to educated young men. As government becomes more complex and far-reaching, it calls more imperatively for trained and intelligent servants. The English Civil Service, which Lord Rosebery said was the admiration of all foreigners who saw it—and even more, he added, the admiration of Ministers who witnessed its workings from the inside—was one standing invitation and opportunity to young men asking, "What can I do to serve my country?" Never before was there such a demand in the British Empire for young men of skill and training to mould that Empire into shape, and the Civil Service guaranteed to every man entering it an opportunity commensurate with his ability. It was for university men, Lord Rosebery said, to hold to the ideal of the Empire, not simply "as a means of painting so much of the world red, or as an emporium for trade," but as "the noblest example yet known to mankind of a free, adaptable, just government."

There is very little doubt that the thing against which England is now preparing her armaments is an alliance, of more or less closeness, with the dear old Sultan through which France and Germany are to bring up the whole Egyptian question, and call England to account for being so prosperous, peaceful, and useful to civilization. There seems every likelihood that this is the trouble that is still hanging over European diplomacy, and that leaves some questions between England and France still unsettled. England cannot be permitted to go on any longer "grabbing" territory and establishing colonies. What is carrying England along, as we have more than once pointed out, is her institutions, not her fleet or her arrogance or her mean tricks. She is great and powerful and a successful grabber and ruler, because she is free and well administered, because her laws are executed, because her justice is well administered, because her offices are filled by competent men, because an Englishman may speak the thing he wills, because there is no *lèse-majesté* in England, because no man can strut about the country and give himself airs, the law being the only ruler. These are the things which make a nation great, not fleets or armies or Rough Riders or flags or noisy "patriotism."

The island of Cyprus is just now an object-lesson of the kind of government England can give. It has been for twenty years an English possession. An American observer, Dr. George E. Post of the college at Beirut, who knew Cyprus well under Turkish rule, has lately been writing in enthusiastic terms of the astounding transformation wrought by English occupation. The government has but a small personnel—only about a hundred officials all told—but it has simply revolutionized the island for the better. Taxation has been lightened and made a fixed and rational system, instead of a means of rapacious extortion, agriculture has been improved, and trading put on a surer basis, while a complete system of public schools is in operation. Dr. Post saw on all sides, in a recent visit, contentment and prosperity where thirty years ago only terror and wretchedness were visible. No wonder that every oppressed people in the world, dimly awakening to the possibility of better government, prays for English intervention and English rule. If our island possessions are to become anything but dens of corruption, their government must be undertaken, as Prof. Norton said at Cambridge last week, in the English spirit, with the English model before our eyes.

Dr. Welldon, the Master of Harrow, who brought the matter up in the Church Congress in England, and Cardinal Vaughan, have both appeared in the field, Dr. Welldon for the second time, touching the failure of the Catholic nations to prosper. It is Cardinal Vaughan's letter, however, which is most important, as he gives what may be called the official view of the Catholic want of political success, but we must confess that it does not throw much light on the subject. The fact that it was Catholics who built up the French monarchy and the empire of Charles V., and started England on its career of glory, is, of course, obvious, but there is not much in it as a Catholic argument for this particular purpose. The Spanish Catholics began to run down hill almost as soon as they attained the pinnacle of their power, through a series of follies. The French suffered terrible defeats from the English Catholics almost as soon as the monarchy came into existence, and France began religious persecution on a scale previously unknown, and in this way got rid of her best citizens, just as the English were making their first step towards religious liberty; while Italy, after starting the Renaissance, flopped back again into degrading slavery, and had to be set up in business by outside help.

The Cardinal, however, does not rely wholly, or even principally, on the ancient glories of the Church. He denies the correctness of the Protestant definition of prosperity. He says it is probably that of Dives when Lazarus was making application to him for relief, and not the true prosperity which the Church secures to its children, and which makes Protestant prosperity seem a mere chromo. But we presume the Protestant conquerors and expansionists and speculators and syndicates, who are dividing the world among themselves, would freely admit, if they saw "any money in it," that the Cardinal was right in claiming the next world for the Catholics, and would freely cede their liens and claims in that region for a good slice of territory, or a large "sphere of influence," in this. So we fear the Cardinal's rhetoric is wasted on the likes of Hanna or Griggs or the revered McKinley. They will let him have the spiritual world if he will assure them of 10 per cent. on their common stock in this.

The London *Economist* reports a fresh agitation in Germany on the subject of American meats. The Agrarian party, *i. e.*, the land-owners, are determined to close the markets to American pork products if possible, but they are met by considerable opposition from the consumers. The inspection of meats at the frontier has been hitherto under the charge of the separate state authorities. Accordingly there were different degrees of severity on the part of inspectors. The *Economist* learns that the imperial Government is taking steps to place the entire inspection under its own officials, and it is expected that the exclusion of American meats will be much more rigid when that measure is passed by the Reichstag. The intention was, when the bill was prepared, to make it so severe that no American meats could enter Germany—on the ground of unhealthfulness, of course; but a society at Cologne took up the matter and offered a reward of $250 for trustworthy evidence that anybody in Germany had ever been injured by eating American meats. Nobody has come forward to claim the reward. This has caused some modification of the proposed bill, but even under the modified measure it is stated that American canned meats will be almost excluded from Germany. Of course this will be followed by retaliation on the part of our Government. Why cannot Germany follow our example, and exclude our meats by tariff duties sufficiently high to keep them out? She might do this under some kind of reciprocity dodge like that which we resorted to for imposing discriminating duties on Venezuelan coffee under the Harrison Administration. Another fact disturbing to German industry and evidently requiring measures of protection is the importation of American iron and steel. This has reached such proportions as to affect the market values of shares of German companies engaged in this industry.

COME AND LET US REASON TOGETHER.

In what we are about to say we have no intention of "arraigning" or "supporting" anybody. We simply wish to call attention to the fact that we are on the eve of a great crisis in the history of America—nothing less than a proposal to make a revolutionary change in our Constitution, without preceding it by any discussion whatever. This fact alone, whether we annex or conquer or not, is a tremendous one among a people as mercurial as we are. It covers our sky with clouds. That we should do anything at all, good or bad, right or wrong, without any deliberation, would be a very serious matter in a democracy. This would be true even if it were a trifling thing. Deliberation is the salt of democracy; it is what keeps it democratic. A democracy which does not deliberate must have passed, or must speedily pass, into the power of one man or into that of a junta.

The first bad sign we had in this direction was the action of Congress in the Venezuela matter. In spite of the constitutional obligation to deliberate on the President's proposal to threaten a foreign nation with war, it acted, says Mr. Boutelle, like "a cavalry charge," "riding down his feeble protest against such an assault on a great and powerful government without a word of debate or consideration." And the "newspaper press of this country flamed out from one end of the nation to the other, along the line of what I call spread-eagleism and what they call patriotism." He evidently feared that this might prove a bad precedent. So did we. We predicted at the time that it would probably be done again before long; and it was. The attack on Spain, equally without deliberation, came in three years. Aside from the general policy of the war, we did not even deliberate enough to get an army ready, and if we had attacked a great Power, we should probably have had a frightful disaster. We were saved from the worst consequences of our conduct by Spain's weakness, as we were saved in the Venezuela case by the forbearance of Great Britain.

When we come to consider the probable cause of this curious change in the American people from being one of the most deliberative in the world to one of the most volatile—so volatile that they are furious with a man who proposes procrastination about anything on which they have set their hearts—we cannot help setting down the caucus and the boss system as the most prominent. One of the lessons chiefly learnt from its practice is to despise and suppress discussion. The ideal politician to the young men of this generation is the man who "votes, but does not talk," which accounts in a measure for the power and prominence of men like Quay and Platt and Murphy. It accounts, too, we cannot help thinking, for the growing disposition of the party in power, whichever it may be, not to reply to its opponents. If it has the power to carry a thing through, it carries it, and lets the other side say whatever it pleases. It scorns to justify its action. We are having a very striking illustration of all this in the case of this expansion scheme. A plan of a war with Spain was suddenly sprung upon the country last spring. Granted that the object was good, a civilized and peaceful people were bound to give the necessity of the war, and, if necessary, our readiness to carry it on, prolonged debate. These points received no debate at all. The only explanation vouchsafed by its advocates was that it would be a good thing for the Republican party, and would help a certain unknown people to establish a republic.

The war was fought out with the results we all know. It then appeared that the account given of its objects by the Executive was not true, and that the real object was to change the government of the United States, so as to make it conform to the pattern of European monarchies, give it subject colonies and peoples, reverse or repudiate the famous Monroe Doctrine, and make us an Asiatic Power. This scheme was never submitted to Congress, or to the public, any more than the German scheme of the annexation of Alsace was submitted to the Germans. The President is now carrying it out of his own motion, just as if he had been elected for that purpose, or had been specially directed or authorized to execute it by Congress. What is most remarkable, as illustrating the decline of the old American spirit, is that he evidently considers that the applause of crowds at railroad stations gives him all he needs in the way of constitutional authority, and large numbers of people all over the country treat the matter as none of their business, and proclaim with pride that they are quite willing "to leave it all in the hands of the President."

A mere description of what is proposed shows that nothing so important has been laid before the American people since the adoption of the Constitution. It is a more radical change in the political framework of American society than the union of the States. Even if the federation had not been created, the political habits of the people would have remained. The original American idea of the proper constitution of society and of the character of office-holders and the nature of citizenship would have remained unchanged. Yet the original Constitution was debated and framed after four months' deliberation, by a body of men chosen for their eminent fitness for their task, before it was submitted to the people of the several States, and it was nine months before the last of the nine necessary States ratified it!

We, as we have said, are threatened with a still greater change in American laws and political manners on the sudden production of a man who has been in our politics for many years, and has attained mature age without reaching any eminence or making any mark except by fanatical devotion to a protective tariff, who was elected to the Presidency by mere accident under pretence of reforming the currency, and who never, by his warmest admirers, has been thought versed in currency, or in war, or foreign affairs, or colonies, or the government of dependencies. But he is at this moment, on his own motion, negotiating a treaty to make us an Asiatic Power, and has already added an immense conquered population to the number of our citizens. When all this comes before the Senate, should it receive its approval, it will be a departure from constitutional powers which, if acquiesced in by the country, will prove beyond question that the original American ideals have utterly perished. If the slightest reverence for them remains, the supporters of the scheme will at least give the people a chance to vote on it, either through the State legislatures or by a popular vote, as each State may decide.

OUR NEW CITIZENS.

Not one man in fifty of those who are calling for the annexation of the Spanish islands in the East and West Indies has given thought to the question what is to be the political status of the inhabitants of those islands in the future—what relationship they are to maintain towards us, or what share they are to have in our system of government. Mr. John G. Carlisle, in the article which he contributed to *Harper's Magazine* for October, considered this question from the lawyer's standpoint, and from no other. The Constitution of the United States applies to all persons brought under our flag, by our own action, whether by conquest or by peaceful admission into the Union. "All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof are citizens of the United States," says the Constitution (article xiv., sec. 1). "The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States" (article iv., sec. 2). "Every nation acquiring territory, by treaty or otherwise, must hold it subject to the Constitution and laws of its own government, and not according to those of the government ceding it," said the Supreme Court in a case quoted by Mr. Carlisle in the article just referred to.

It does not follow that all persons who are brought into the Union by our action shall be allowed to vote, say some of the annexationists. Well, why should they not be allowed to vote? Is it because they are ignorant? They cannot be

more so than the Southern plantation hands upon whom we forced the right of suffrage directly after the civil war. They are probably the equals in intelligence of many of the immigrants who come to our shores unable to speak our language and who acquire the right of suffrage, or rather have it thrust upon them by politicians who want to secure their votes as soon as they are naturalized, or perhaps before. But, omitting for the moment the right of suffrage, and leaving it out of view, those new citizens will certainly have the right to travel within the limits of the country of which they are citizens. They cannot be kept away from any part of the nation of which they are an integral part. No anti-Chinese laws, no anti-immigration laws will apply to them. Even if we can imagine Congress passing laws to prevent Filipinos and Porto Ricans from coming here to compete in the labor market with our own people, such laws could not be sustained without subverting our Constitution and the principles upon which our whole system rests.

It has been a marvel to us from the beginning of this controversy what the wage-workers of the United States are dreaming about that they do not rise up and forbid the banns of this unholy and most unwholesome marriage. If it were proposed to allow ten millions of Chinamen to come into the United States by law there would be a din and clamor of protestation from Portland, Oregon, to Portland, Maine. No administration, no party, could stand up against it. Yet nothing has been heard in the way of opposition from workingmen to a greater admission of Malays, except a brief speech from Samuel Gompers and a set of resolutions from a San Francisco meeting. Here is a menace to labor ten times as threatening as the Chinese problem, yet the Knights of Labor have nothing to say about it. They are voluble enough against the Banks and the Gold Bugs, who are doing them no harm, but against an incoming deluge of real "pauper labor" they are absolutely dumb and indifferent. They will discover their mistake when it is too late. They may then seek to put down the Malay-Americans by mob violence, but they will find out the difference between Malays and Chinese when they learn that the Malay is a fighting animal and generally goes armed.

We have to deal not merely with these people whom it is proposed to annex, but with their posterity. Every one born after annexation is a citizen as soon as he arrives at mature years, and this rule applies also to the Kanakas, the Chinese in the Hawaiian Islands, the negroes of Porto Rico, as well as to the mixed tribes of the Philippines. All these will have votes sooner or later. Our whole theory of government contemplates that they shall become voters. Political parties will by and by tumble over each other in their haste to confer the suffrage upon them, so as to gain their votes thereafter. If one party should say that they ought to have the suffrage after they have become citizens, would any other party dare to say no? It is impossible to imagine such a state of things as ten millions, or one million, of American citizens grouped together and deprived of the suffrage, or of any other right of citizenship. To quote once more from Mr. Carlisle: "The Philippine Islands, with eight or ten millions, must, unless we are to violate the organic law of the land, and hold and govern them perpetually as conquered provinces, be erected, within a reasonable time, into several States, each with two Senators, and all together having thirty or forty Representatives, while Cuba, with a population of a million and a half, must also become a State, with two Senators and at least five Representatives, according to the present ratio." Then the question, as Bishop Potter puts it, will be, not, What shall we do with the Philippines? but, What will they do with us?

SOMETHING TO BE REMEMBERED

There is something which ought to form part and parcel of the Spanish-American negotiations now going on in Paris, which ought to be, but has not yet been, dealt with, has not yet been even mentioned. We mean the Monroe Doctrine. There is no doctrine or idea to which we have so firmly adhered for over half a century, which we have so frequently reaffirmed on the stump, in Congress, and in our state papers and in the newspapers. Nothing except the Constitution has been held by our American publicists to be so firmly settled. It is true that it has never been formally accepted by those of Europe, but we have always said that it made no difference whether they accepted it or not, that we would resolutely enforce it whenever the occasion came. It has even in our time received on paper many extensions. Of late our Jingoes and expansionists have made strenuous exertions to extend its purview much beyond its early interpretation. When it first made its appearance, it was, we believe, held merely to forbid any new settlement or colony by any European Power on this continent. It was later made to cover any addition that any European Power might attempt to make to any colony or settlement already existing at the time of the appearance of the doctrine. But even so late as 1895 a further addition was made which very nearly brought on a war with Great Britain. Mr. Olney, our Secretary of State, then took the ground that we had such sovereignty or control over the whole continent, north and south, that even in any dispute between an American state and a European Power holding a colony lawfully established, we were supreme and compulsory arbiters, and could, in case of necessity, trace their frontier line to our own satisfaction. The distinction between this and complete sovereignty was very fine, and, indeed, almost imperceptible.

The doctrine has since then grown in importance. Until the outbreak of the Spanish war it had been simply what European Powers chose to regard as a sort of American "pious opinion," held by enthusiastic or demagogic American orators or politicians, of which no European Power need take any notice until some attempt was made, as in the Venezuela case, to put it into practice. But we have shown by the late war that we are really a formidable naval Power, and can enforce even extravagant demands against any foreign nation. We have destroyed two good-sized fleets and seized two islands as conquest, which is not a bad beginning for a peaceful, evangelical republic. We have, moreover, given notice to the world that we have on hand a large line of rulers of subject races and administrators of the estates of conquered peoples, who are now ready for business. A notice of this sort, emanating from such a source, necessarily commands attention and excites anxiety among all weak Powers. Not one of them knows how many people we may think it necessary to kill, before any election.

For these reasons we hold that "a decent respect for the opinions of mankind" calls on us, just as much as when we issued the Declaration of Independence, to say what our whole attitude is now before the foreign world, not only as regards Cuba and the Philippines, but as regards this continent. We say, as regards this continent, because, if we are not mistaken, every statement we have put forth of the Monroe Doctrine, from Monroe's down to Olney's, has made our determination never to acquire any possessions in the Old World a condition, express or implied, of our exclusion of European Powers from this continent. The one we always dwelt on as balancing the other, or, so to speak, making it reasonable: "You keep away from us, and we will keep away from you," was always the Monroe Doctrine in a nutshell.

Now, it does not seem to us becoming for a Power of our standing and pretensions, and such High Commissioners as ours, to abandon a Doctrine so long and sacredly held, by mere implication. It will hardly do to have other nations merely guess or suppose that we have abandoned it, any more than to guess or suppose that we had determined to assert our political independence. There is no country in Europe which does not now understand, and is not now proclaiming through its newspapers or its state papers, that we have abandoned the Monroe Doctrine, and that this con-

tinent is now open to European settlement. Is it? We have nothing as yet from any official quarter, nothing from Lodge or Roosevelt or any other leading Jingo, or from any leading party organ. The European Powers, we see, are generally assuming that we are, by our Eastern conquests, removing the prohibition which the Monroe Doctrine has hitherto placed on them. We do not as yet see any sign of their *acting* on this view, but, with the eagerness which now seems to prevail all over Europe for new territory, we cannot tell how long this modesty will last, how soon we may have to tell William, for instance, that North and South America are still under our protection, and that we have the "elevation" of all the Spanish American republics still on our hands.

The controversy which will then follow will be very interesting, and we shall follow it with close attention. But we must beg the Jingoes not to lose their temper or begin to threaten too soon. It will not be nearly as easy to "elevate" the Germans or the English, we must remember, as the Spaniards, and they are not nearly so addicted to superstitious practices. We should anticipate them by a frank statement of the Monroe Doctrine as left by our military triumphs, drawn by some leading member of the Republican party, if not by a member of the High Commission.

INSTITUTIONAL CHRISTIANITY.

A recent book on pastoral theology has a chapter on "The Institutional Church." This is the first recognition we recall having met, in a formal treatise, of the great change silently wrought in the life and activities of churches of all denominations within the past twenty years. We refer to the wide extension of what may be called the church's sphere of business. We may swiftest explain the sort of revolution which has transformed the old church into the new one by quoting the programme carried out by the Berkeley Temple of Boston:

> "The building itself was made an open-door church, with daily ministrations; a business-house, in spiritual business. The attention of non-church-going people was attracted at once by popular lectures and concerts. Three hundred young women were gathered, for whom reading-rooms were opened and twenty evening classes. Young men's reading-rooms, gymnasium, lyceum work, and evening classes were opened; a boys' brigade was organized; a sewing-school and a kindergarten provided; and thirty-seven gatherings, comprising from 8,000 to 12,000 people every week, have utilized the Berkeley Temple building. There are a relief department for the poor, rescue work for fallen women, and a temperance guild of 200 reformed men."

Similar or more extensive undertakings could be recorded of many New York churches. They have their departments, their organizations, their schools and lectures and guilds and associations and meetings almost without end. And the movement has spread all over the country. Every city in the land has its Tabernacle, or Temple, or People's Church, or plain, every-day Trinity Church, or First Presbyterian, which are immense business establishments. The church buildings have lost their old awfulness and shut-up seclusion, and swarm every day in the week with busy teachers and organizers and entertainers and managers. A divine of the austerer type of Puritan days would be as much at a loss in one of these modern hives of industry that are known as institutional churches as he would be in Vanity Fair itself.

Good or bad, the sweeping change we speak of has come. Wise and good men differ on the question whether it is on the whole a desirable change or not. We think it is. The actual human good done by a church that thus holds itself steadily in contact with actual human need must be much greater than that within the reach of one living in the old sacred aloofness. The motives leading to the change of attitude may be mixed; there may have been in it a feeling that "something must be done" to attract people to church; people who have yielded to the new attractions may often be lovers of amusement rather than lovers of godliness. That does not greatly matter. If the net result is a benefit, both to the community and the church, we need inquire no further. But the transformed church certainly has had, and will yet have more strikingly, a profound influence upon the habits and mental attitude of those within her pale —especially the clergy—and upon some aspects of it we wish to remark.

It has brought to prominence the business type of clergyman. He has always existed, here and there, in a more or less developed form, but the institutional church has made him indispensable. The superintendent of a factory, or the manager of a department-store, can have hardly severer demands made upon his executive ability than has the head of a modern church with all its multiplied philanthropic activities. He must be able to thread his way through a maze of affairs, and keep each clear. His tact and energy are constantly appealed to, and the planning of his week's campaign is like the marshalling of an army corps. We have all seen him—this modern typical clerical administrator of an immense ecclesiastical business. His alert precision of manner and impatience of all dawdling devastators of his day would well become the manager of a railway.

Now, the clerical character cannot be thrown into this business crucible and come out unaltered. It must lose on the reflective side. Speculative theology has little chance with a man who has six committee-meetings in the afternoon and three night-schools to visit. We need look for no Thomas Aquinases to be developed in the stir of the institutional church. Theological "giants" will become more exceptional than ever, if the People's Tabernacles grind on with their thousand wheels. Then, too, the distinctive note of the true preacher will tend to be lost, we should say, in the rattle of machinery. The old bishop who was asked by a young clergyman how many sermons a week he ought to be able to preach replied, "One certainly; two, if you have plenty of time; but any fool can preach three." The sermons of a man whose time throughout the week is devoured by the complex business of an institutional church, are too apt to be of the kind which any fool can preach.

The ultimate remedy, we imagine, will be found in a further specialization of the work of the clergy. Some must give their time to "serving tables," others, with the gift for it, must be the writers, the theologians, the preachers. Undoubtedly the first effect of the business church has been to produce a rather large number of bustling clergy of no great weight of character and of meagre intellectual development. These are of the type of the shallow impertinent who undertook to rebuke Edward FitzGerald for his heterodoxy, and who got for his pains the answer, "Sir, I have given much more thought to these subjects than you ever did, and I will thank you not to call upon me again." But, we say, these matters may be expected to adjust themselves in time. The fully developed institutional church will be no less active than we now see it on the practical side, and will have as many keen business men who are so-called preachers; but it will also make room for the meditative student and for the prophet who shall come into the pulpit from hours of brooding thought to speak flaming words.

DAVID AMES WELLS.

Mr. Wells, who died at his home in Norwich, Conn., on Saturday last, was born in Springfield, Mass., on June 17, 1828. He was a descendant on his father's side of Thomas Welles, one of the first Governors of Connecticut, and on his mother's side of David Ames, who directed the construction of the United States armory at Springfield, from which stock comes also the well-known manufacturing and railroad-building family of Massachusetts. In 1847 Mr. Wells was graduated from Williams College, and at once proceeded to repay his obligations to his Alma Mater by joining in the preparation of a work entitled 'History and Sketches of Williams College,' which was published the same year at Springfield. In 1848 he was employed on the editorial staff of the Springfield *Republican*, and while thus engaged gave the first conspicuous proof of the practical bent of his mind by suggesting and participating in the invention of a machine for folding newspapers and booksheets in connection with the power printing-press. The first machine ever successfully constructed and operated was made at his expense, and worked under his direction in the office of the Springfield *Republican*.

The sale of his interest in this invention

put him in a position to continue his studies, and, leaving journalism, he entered the Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard College, where he became a special pupil of Agassiz, and graduated in 1852 with the first class that completed the course in that school. He remained at Harvard as assistant professor, and was also lecturer on physics and chemistry at the Lawrence Academy in Groton, Mass. While in Cambridge in 1849 he began with George Bliss (the late well-known lawyer of this city) the publication of the *Annual of Scientific Discovery*, which he continued until 1866. In 1866 he invented an improved process for the preparation of textile fabrics. During the years 1867-8 he was a member of the New York publishing firm of G. P. Putnam & Co., and in this period brought out a number of scientific text-books, which were extensively circulated. His 'Science of Common Things' will be remembered by many persons now of middle age as containing just those facts in natural science a knowledge of which is indispensable in ordinary life. Other works in this series were upon natural philosophy, chemistry, and geology; two of which enjoyed the distinction of being translated into Chinese, while that upon chemistry was adopted as the text-book in the United States Military Academy.

The excellent reputation obtained by Mr. Wells as a scientific writer was very soon dimmed by the brilliancy of his achievements in another field. While residing at Troy, N. Y., in 1864, he read before a literary club there an essay which was immediately published under the title 'Our Burden and Our Strength.' It was reprinted by the Loyal Publication Society of New York, republished also in England, translated into French and German, and had a sale estimated at 200,000 copies. At that time the enormous increase of our debt, and the inadequacy of our complicated and oppressive system of taxation to produce a sufficient revenue, alarmed the nation and impaired the credit of the Government. This essay is generally believed to have had a most powerful influence in restoring public confidence and improving our financial position. Upon reading it, President Lincoln formed such an opinion of Mr. Wells's abilities that he invited him to come to Washington and confer with him and Mr. Fessenden, then Secretary of the Treasury, upon the best methods of dealing comprehensively with the financial necessities of the Government. As the result of this conference the Revenue Commission was established in 1865, Mr. Wells being appointed chairman by Hugh McCulloch, then Secretary of the Treasury. This commission reported the result of its labors in 1866, reducing to some order for the first time the chaotic mass of laws enacted during the stress of the war for the purpose of raising money, from which the only principle deducible was expressed in the maxim, "Whenever you find an article, a product, a trade, a profession a source of income, tax it." In its endeavor to establish a scientific basis for estimating the revenue of the Government, the commission made the first systematic attempt to collect and apply statistics for national purposes, and not long afterwards, under the direction of Mr. Wells, the Bureau of Statistics was established; Gen. Francis A. Walker, the first chief, being called from the office of the Springfield *Republican*, where he was then assistant editor.

The term of office of the Revenue Commission having expired in 1866, Mr. Wells was at once appointed "Special Commissioner of the Revenue" for four years, a position created for the purpose of giving his abilities a more extended scope. The great work of reconstructing, repealing, and modifying the laws relating to the internal revenue was now substantially committed to his charge, and it was performed in a manner that entitled him to the permanent gratitude of his country. He may be said to have originated all the important reforms in the revenue system that were adopted by Congress down to 1870, and to have carried many of them through against strong opposition by the convincing power of his reasoning. Among these reforms were the redrafting of the whole system of internal-revenue laws, the reduction and final abolition of the cotton tax and the taxes on manufactures and crude petroleum, the creation of supervisory districts, and the application of stamps for the collection of taxes on tobacco, fermented liquors, and distilled spirits. Corruption was then at its height in Washington, and the very absurdities and iniquities of taxation had reared powerful forces interested in their maintenance. In Mr. Wells's book entitled 'Practical Economics,' published in 1885, a most instructive collection of essays suggested by the experience of this period is preserved. It there appears how the whiskey distillers had more than once prevailed upon Congress to raise the tax upon their product, exempting that already in bond, with the result of obtaining profits amounting to more than one hundred millions of dollars.

Fiscal legislation of this kind Mr. Wells exerted all his energies to check. In one of his earliest reports he demonstrated the folly of attempting to collect a tax of $2 a gallon on distilled liquors, perhaps 7,000 per cent. of the first cost, and argued that half a dollar a gallon was the rate of tax which would be most productive of revenue. Congress was persuaded eventually to adopt his conclusion, with results which permanently established his reputation as a master of finance. Under the reduced tax the revenue from this source at once rose to nearly three times the amount previously collected—from $18,655,000 in 1868 to $55,606,000 in 1870.

In 1867 the Secretary of the Treasury was instructed by Congress to present at its next session the draft of a new tariff which should embody a proper reduction of the high duties imposed during the war. Mr. Wells was selected to prepare this draft, and for the purpose of qualifying himself for the work he visited Europe in his official capacity, and thoroughly investigated the conditions and processes of all the leading manufactures, both in England and on the Continent, which could be regarded as competing with those of our own country. Up to this time Mr. Wells, who was identified through his family connections with the manufactures of New England, had been a firm and even fanatical believer in the policy of protective tariffs. His investigations in foreign countries convinced him that this belief must be surrendered. He became satisfied that other countries, in adopting the policy of stimulating their manufactures by laying duties upon imports, had not carried this policy to the stultifying extreme of taxing raw materials or partly manufactured substances which were to be subjected to further processes of manufacture; and he saw that while such a policy might enrich a few interests, it was necessarily detrimental to almost all industries of high grade, and tended to reduce the wages of skilled laborers. What was of even more importance, he observed that such countries as Austria and Russia, whose manufacturers were most clamorous for protective duties, were precisely the countries where the lowest wages were paid, and he was forced to the conclusion that the payment of high wages in connection with the use of the most improved machinery was a proof, not of industrial weakness, but of industrial strength. In this way, Mr. Wells found himself logically committed to the fundamental position in the theory of free trade, that general high wages are the result of a low cost of production, and cannot possibly be produced by Government interference.

Mr. Wells's proposed revision of the tariff, together with an elaborate report upon the revenue resources of the country, was submitted to Congress, with the hearty endorsement of Secretary McCulloch, in December, 1867. It was embodied in a bill, and, strange as it seems in these days, came very near becoming a law. It passed the Senate by a vote of 27 to 10. In the House it failed by a few votes in the closing hours of the session. It was impossible to get it before the House, except by a motion to suspend the rules, for which 106 votes were cast against 64 in the negative, not the required two-thirds. In the matter of protective tariffs, however, the motto of the faithful has always been *Nulla vestigia retrorsum*, and the dominant influences in the Republican party at that time were extremely hostile to the changed views which Mr. Wells expressed. Upon the publication of his report for 1869, Horace Greeley publicly asserted that Mr. Wells had been corrupted by British gold through the agency of A. T. Stewart. Mr. Stewart was extremely angry at the charge, and wished Mr. Wells to bring an action for libel, several leading New York lawyers volunteering to conduct the proceedings, but Mr. Wells declined to seek a vindication of this character. His retirement from office at the expiration of his term became a foregone conclusion, President Grant assigning the personal dislike of Secretary Boutwell to Mr. Wells as his reason for refusing to reappoint him, in case the office should be continued; but his services had been so plainly advantageous to the country that the leading members of both houses of Congress, without distinction of party, united in offering him a public testimonial. The four volumes of the reports of the Special Commissioner of Revenue, published in 1866-'69, are among the standard works of statistical science, and although, of course, not popularly known, are probably the most enduring monument to Mr. Wells's capacity as a financier. They have given him a distinction in other countries that has, perhaps, been attained by no other American who has labored in this department of statesmanship.

Mr. Wells, however, was not allowed to retire to private life. As soon as it was known that he was no longer to be employed by the national Government, the State of New York sought his counsel in the examination of the laws relating to local taxation, and he was made chairman of the commission appointed for this purpose. The investigation was the most thorough that had ever been made of the various questions relating to local taxation. The distinguish-

ing feature of the report was the abolition of all taxation of personal property (except that of moneyed corporations), and the substitution of a tax on the rental value of dwellings, to be assessed against the occupier, whether he be owner or tenant. The theory of this recommendation was that since personal property in its modern forms cannot, as a general rule, be found by the assessor, the best available index of wealth of an individual is the house that he lives in. The report was not adopted, however, by the Legislature.

Mr. Wells's abilities as an economist were early recognized in foreign countries. He was elected a member of the Cobden Club in 1870, and was invited to deliver the annual address before that club in 1873; became an honorary member of the Statistical Society of England in 1871; was elected foreign associate of the French Academy of Political Science in 1874, to fill the chair made vacant by the death of John Stuart Mill, and of the Regia Accademia dei Lincei in Italy in 1877, receiving its medal of honor from the latter society in 1873. The Berkshire Medical College honored him with the degree of M.D. in 1863, Williams College with that of LL.D. in 1871, and he received the degree of D.C.L. from Oxford in 1874, and that of LL.D. from Harvard in 1890. He was President of the American Social Science Association from 1875-9, of the New London County (Conn.) Historical Society in 1880, and of the American Free Trade League in 1881.

In addition to the works already mentioned, Mr. Wells published, in 1875, 'The Creed of the Free Trader' and 'The Production and Distribution of Wealth'; in 1876, 'Robinson Crusoe's Money'; in 1878, 'Why We Trade, and How We Trade' and 'The Silver Question; or, the Dollar of the Fathers vs. the Dollar of the Sons'; in 1882, 'Our Mercantile Marine: How It Rose, Increased, Became Great, Declined, and Decayed'; in 1884, 'The Primer of Tariff Reform'; in 1886, 'Principles of Taxation'; in 1887, 'A Study of Mexico'; in 1888, 'A Short and Simple Catechism' and 'The Relation of the Tariff to Wages.' In 1887 he visited Newfoundland for the purpose of ascertaining on the spot the facts of the fisheries question, giving the results of his investigation in a speech before the Reform Club in New York. This speech contains all the information that is required for the speedy settlement of the dispute, and whenever the national Government shall cease to consider it necessary to keep the sore running, Mr. Wells's suggestions will be put in practice.

Mr. Wells's last, and in some respects most important, book appeared in 1889, under the title 'Recent Economic Changes.' The substance of this book had been published as a series of articles in the *Popular Science Monthly*, the title there being, "Economic Disturbances since 1873." No recent work in economics has aroused more general interest than this, and it is peculiarly instructive at the present crisis. With a mastery of detail possessed by few practical men, Mr. Wells combined, in this treatise, an almost equally remarkable knowledge of economic tendencies, with the result of throwing a flood of light upon the causes of the so-called "depression of trade" which has so long perplexed men of business. He demonstrated that the enormous improvements in production and in transportation had necessarily displaced great amounts of capital by rendering former appliances obsolete, so that every new enterprise, it might almost be said, was able to produce its results more cheaply than those previously in operation, the general result being a rapidity of change in business conditions that disconcerted all the calculations of the adherents of conservative methods. Nor was the light that it threw upon the past the only merit of this book, for the bewildering possibilities of the future were considered with a calm and rational forecast that furnished a substantial basis for the most sanguine expectations.

Mr. Wells married twice; first in May, 1860, Mary Sanford Dwight, and in June, 1879, Ellen Augusta Dwight, both daughters of James S. Dwight of Springfield, Mass., and Elizabeth Lee of Norwich, Conn. He had one son by his first wife, David Dwight Wells, who survives him. Physically, Mr. Wells was of slight build and medium height, and of a highly nervous temperament. During recent years the precarious condition of his health had caused him to live a retired life, but scarcely checked his intellectual activity, which was facilitated by the possession of one of the best economic libraries in the world. Whatever the attainments of our surviving statisticians may be, they lack the prestige which Mr. Wells derived from his distinguished services at a critical period in our history. There may be men living who possess his familiarity with fiscal legislation and economic theory, with the laws of trade and the conditions of industry, but if so they are not known to the public and their knowledge is unavailable. In practical affairs, especially in the affairs of government, the great difficulty is not the lack of capable men, but the fact that they are unknown. Between proved and unproved capacity the difference is infinite.

It is impossible to avoid the painful reflection that this statesman was excluded from the office of legislator. If he had been an Englishman, it would not have been possible that he should not have been a member of Parliament, and a member of the cabinet if his party were in power. As it was, his opportunities for public service of an official character came by appointment and not by election. Doubtless the peculiar environment of his residence had something to do with this, but it is to be apprehended that his ostracism was mainly due to the same cause as that of Aristides—to his glaring superiority, which the narrow mind of ordinary men meanly resented as disagreeably emphasizing their own inferiority. But it is probable that the slavery of a party name, when he became a candidate for Congress, influenced many to oppose him who would have been glad to bestow their suffrages upon him had his ticket borne a different heading. His influence, however, was not of a kind to be dependent upon official position. He was an admirable example of the best kind of self-made man—the man who has by his own exertions accumulated not wealth, but knowledge. His acquaintance with economics was derived not from schools, but from actual contact with affairs, and he could, therefore, appeal to men of affairs with peculiar success. He proved his capacity to them upon their own ground, and, having thus overcome the stock objection of business men to "mere theorists," he was able to secure attention to the principles of economic science. While much good is to be expected from the study of these principles in our institutions of learning, it is probable that legislation in this country will be mainly directed—so far as it is directed wisely—by men possessing the combined knowledge of theory and practice for which Mr. Wells was distinguished, and on this account the lesson of his life is of peculiar value to young men whom the spirit of patriotism does not permit to be indifferent to the cause of good government.

LITERATURE AND ART "ON THE CHEAP."

LONDON, October, 1898.

For many years past, Sir Walter Besant and the Society of Authors have been preaching and prophesying the spread of literature, and the beneficent effects that must follow upon universal education, the cheapening of paper, and the improvement of the printing-press. Utopia seemed to open before them; they were on the eve of the Golden Age, the millennium for authors and journalists; an era of unbelievably increased royalties. It was a pretty dream, but, like so many pretty dreams, it had no foundation in fact. It did not occur to Sir Walter Besant and his friends that universal education might not excite a universal appetite for their books. They overlooked the inevitable law of demand and supply, and failed to foresee that, with a new class of readers, there might arise a new demand which would, as always happens, create a new class of manufacturers or producers ready to supply it. Of course the bringing of art and literature to the people is no new thing—it is as old as the invention of printing; the only discovery is that the newly educated people know nothing of what has been hitherto regarded as art and literature. Neither is there novelty in the endeavor to provide for them as cheaply as possible. From the time of Dürer with his prints (or I might go back further to the block-book) down to the days of Charles Knight and his *Penny Magazine*, the people have always been catered for, and consequently cheapness has always been sought. But until now the caterers, foolishly no doubt, have set themselves a certain standard of excellence. Their object never was disinterested; it was to put money in their own pockets, but, in return, they gave the best that was in them to give. Dürer did not lower his art to the popular level because he adapted his price to it. The old-fashioned editor of the cheap magazine never boasted that he could fill his journal with the greatest possible quantity of rubbish at the lowest possible rate. To go no further back, even in England, than thirty or forty years ago, you find the cheap magazines, *Once a Week*, *Good Words*, the *Cornhill*, that sold for sixpence or a shilling, publishing the stories of Thackeray and George Eliot and Trollope and George Meredith, the drawings of Whistler and the Pre-Raphaelites and Keene and Sandys and Houghton and Pinwell and Fred. Walker, and many others only less distinguished. Much that was best in the literature and the black-and-white art of the day appeared in these magazines. The price might appeal to the multitude, but the quality of the material offered appealed as well to the few who really knew good work and cared for it. The self-respecting editor would have been ashamed to stoop to the multitude, and, besides, it was supposed that, once the multitude could read, they might be

made to appreciate the best by accustoming them to it. Indeed, some optimists have gone still further, and, with Tolstoi, have expected to find in the opinion of the people the criterion of taste. Probably there are still Americans who believe in Mr. Hay's London, where every navvy—was it not?—carried a copy of Omar Khayyám along with his beer-can, or who think that, because Lord Houghton and a few others were admirers of Motley and Lowell and Holmes, therefore the British public took our men of letters to his bosom; that, because 'Hans Breitmann' and the 'Biglow Papers' sold well—in pirated editions—therefore the whole nation was the patron of literature. I need not point out that there could be no greater mistake. If you were to look into the matter, and take, for instance, the most popular book in the language, 'Pickwick,' the chances are you would find that, of the many millions who comprise the population of the British Islands, not one man in fifty has ever read it.

Now, to-day there are certain enterprising business men who frankly recognize the real state of affairs. They know that universal education is making of every man, woman, and child a possible reader, and they believe that the large majority of these readers will always prefer the bad, when they can get it, especially when it is cheap. To the good they are cynics in their way. Undisturbed by the fashionable desire to elevate the people, they have proceeded to work the people's vulgarity as a more profitable investment than any South African gold mine. The observant man must have seen this sort of thing growing for some time back, though at first there was an effort to ignore or disguise it. For years, on the English railway bookstall there has been an appalling array of penny *Tit-Bits* and *Short-Cuts* and similar productions. But, for a while, you seldom saw them anywhere else; you never heard of them, no one of intelligence was found reading them. The truth is, I doubt if anybody really did read them, for their success, as a rule, depended less upon their contents than upon the insurance policies and the lottery schemes and prize competitions which most of them offered. This lottery business was carried to such an extent that one specially ingenious weekly had to be suppressed, virtually for gambling, and the postal delivery in the district where it was published was disorganized for months because of the mass of correspondence it attracted. I remember once meeting a commercial traveller in a little provincial hotel, and seeing him produce from his pockets ten penny periodicals, signing his name solemnly in the appointed place in each, and then declaring triumphantly that with these on his person he was worth £10,000, or he would be if he could only get killed in a railway smash; so that I realized there were men to whom the penny weekly meant not something to be read but the chance to gamble with their lives. In England the State may not countenance the lottery, as in Italy, but the individual who has any rubbish to get rid of need only devise some gambling scheme to meet with immediate success. Even now that the daily papers are full of the rumors of war, now that naval reserves are being called out and militia summoned to be in readiness, the one cry you hear, afternoon and evening, at every street corner, is, "All the winners! All the winners!" And not Kitchener, but Teddy Sloan, the American jockey, is the greatest man in England. Not even the weekly supposed to be purely literary can escape. I notice that the *Academy* has just instituted a series of "Literary Competitions," as a bid for subscribers who surely might be thought to have sufficient interest in literature to dispense with such a bribe.

Millions, and in one case a baronetcy, have been won by the cheap periodical. Naturally the output has increased enormously. Sir George Newnes, who may be called the inventor of the *Tit-Bits* class of journal, has had no more enterprising and successful rivals than the Harmsworth and Pearson companies. We have Mr. Harmsworth's word that his house alone controls four dailies and thirty weekly periodicals, though, if I except two of the dailies, I should find it difficult to mention a single one by name. The Pearsons, I have no doubt, could furnish quite as formidable and insignificant a list. But they have not been content to stop here. Sir George Newnes started, some few years since, a sixpenny illustrated monthly magazine, the *Strand;* they must each have a threepenny illustrated monthly magazine, and so eclipse him altogether, and these two ventures have been the town talk during the last six months. For, not only have the Harmsworths and Pearsons been the most successful in the manufacture of this kind of literature, but they are the first who have forced it into prominence, and gained for it the attention of readers who consider themselves critical, as well as readers for whom it is especially designed, thus marking another step downward in the gradual degradation of literature and journalism. If we have long had the "cheap and nasty" with us, at least it had so far been kept decently in the background. Now, however, we are asked to glory in it.

The two new magazines are much what might be expected. Their proprietors make no attempt to conceal their aims. Mr. Harmsworth said bluntly in the *Excuse* for the first number of his monthly, which appeared in July last, that he stands in no need of the attraction of mere "names." He and "my brother Cecil" understand the public appetite for "something new," and for the sake of the public and "for our own profit" well-known artists and writers are to be carefully avoided. The editor of the *Royal Magazine* (Pearson's), in a preliminary interview, announced cheerfully that his periodical would not "aim at being literature, but at being just what the average person wants to read." There have been before now editors in London who did not hesitate to tell you, in confidence, that they were publishing what they knew was bad, because they also knew it was what their readers liked. But, to my knowledge, this is the first time an editor has had the courage to make public confession of so discreditable a policy. It was also explained that there were to be illustrations in the *Royal*, since "the picture is as essential as the advertisement." Under these conditions, of course, the advertisement did not present the usual inducement of popular authors and distinguished artists. But Mr. Harmsworth held a trump-card that hitherto no one had dreamed of playing. He filled an entire page in the morning papers to announce "341 Tons" of *Harmsworth's Magazine*. The Pearsons, once the hint was given, did still better; they announced "300 Tons" of *Royal Magazine*, of which you could make a column as high as Mount Everest, or a line extending from London almost to Sheffield, or a wall to enclose St. Paul's. After that, who could ask for such a mere detail as literature or art?

I have no intention to describe the magazines. Every one knows without being told the quality of articles and stories and illustrations supplied by the ton. The printing is too poor to be referred to. But it happened that when *Harmsworth's Magazine* came out in July, Smith, the autocrat of the railway book-stall, refused to sell it at the price, and a lament at once arose from all the booksellers in the provinces that for them Mr. Harmsworth's terms spelt ruin. The result was a long newspaper correspondence in one of the large London dailies supposed to be specially interested in literary matters, and *Harmsworth's Magazine*, if Smith would not have it, found itself, probably to the surprise of its proprietor, figuring as an important literary and artistic publication, and the advertisement probably made up for the extra halfpenny added to the price. *Pearson's*, which has only just been issued, has had the advantage of time, and its proprietors have managed (how, I do not pretend to say) to arrange matters with Smith, who sells their magazine at threepence, presumably at a profit, when it was impossible in the case of *Harmsworth's*. And, as no one in England would pay an extra halfpenny when he could save it, I fancy, without any question of merit—since there is none—that *Pearson's* will win the day in this new and rather sordid contest.

It may be thought I am attaching too much importance to magazines which the intelligent man would pitch into his waste-paper basket before he opened them; but this is exactly what the Englishman who passes as intelligent has not done. Every one, from the prince to the pauper, believes them to be all they ought to be, and already you may see that they are having their influence. The *Royal* had hardly appeared before Messrs. Cassell had come to the front with the *New Penny Magazine*. The Cassells are an old firm, and evidently cannot at once forget old traditions. It is their desire, it seems, that their journal "should be equally conspicuous so far as the excellence of its contents and the beauty and variety of its illustrations are concerned." And it is the easier for them to encourage this desire since, like the editors of the *Golden Penny* and the *Penny Illustrated*, published by the proprietors of the *Graphic* and the *London Illustrated News*, they have a store of old blocks and old material to draw upon—one reason why penny publications of the kind are so much better than the new threepenny magazines. But the Cassells cannot, on the other hand, ignore the new conditions, and so their very unpretending sheet is advertised in large letters, something in the style of Barnum, as "the biggest and cheapest in the world," and the first number contains the proud assertion that, with the publication of the *New Penny Magazine*, it may be claimed that "the high-water mark in cheap periodical literature has been touched."

But the preposterous part of it is that these magazines are not cheap. I do not mean merely that they would be dear at any price, which is quite true. But take *Harmsworth's*, made up of photographs and, with one exception, of drawings that are worse than photographs, and articles by writers of no reputation and less promise, and compare it with an old number of

Once a Week or *Good Words* or the *Cornhill*, there is simply no comparison. Or contrast it with the *Century*, that in England sells for five times its price. Why, the *Century*, well written, well illustrated, well engraved, well printed, is five times as cheap. Even the American ten-cent magazines, which cost three cents more, are immeasurably cheaper, for they do sometimes publish the work of a good author or a good artist. Many of their stories, I know, are syndicated, but the cheap English magazine, with no object but profit and cheapness, cannot afford the syndicate rates of popular authors when they can get writers to work for less. Why pay for the good when the bad sells every bit as well? In writing this I find I have already proved the harm the new periodical literature is doing. For, as can be seen, it is fast reducing everything to the one question of cheapness. I must confess that English authors have done little to counteract so deplorable a tendency. The *Author*, the official organ of their Society, always bristles with pounds, shillings, and pence, but the last thing thought of in their estimate of the cost of production is the excellence of the printing or the make-up of a volume. They are so engrossed with royalties that they should be the last to be surprised if publishers think only of profits. When all these various facts and factors are taken into consideration, I do not believe it will be found that I have exaggerated the gloominess of the outlook. In the face of the new acceptance of modern ideas of cheapness in literature and art, I fancy even Matthew Arnold would lose faith in the saving remnant. Indeed, I see but one chance, one ray of light in the future. The purveyors of cheap literature, in their furious race for cheapness and titles, may, in the end, cut their own throats. It is just possible that the time may come, as I heard it prettily put, when you will be given a pound of tea to carry the penny and threepenny magazine away. N. N.

Correspondence.

REMEMBER THE MAINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a proof that some at least of the Chicago public were not afraid to express themselves strongly against the war with Spain, I enclose a cutting taken from a Chicago newspaper:

KIPLINGS'S RECESSIONAL MISAPPLIED.

CHICAGO, May 17.—To the Editor:—

Looking on England's mighty power,
And fearing, in temptation's hour,
That, in her strength and in her pride,
She might put faith in God aside—
A poet wrote: "Be with us yet,
Lest we forget, lest we forget."

Our Jingoes borrow this refrain
In writing of the sunken *Maine;*
And, preaching from her unknown fate*
A doctrine of unreasoning hate,
Shriek, to their fetish made of mud,
"O give us blood! O give us blood!"

MAXWELL WILLIAMS.

Yours truly, A. B.

CHICAGO, October 30, 1898.

*Note.—The Board of Inquiry especially stated that the authors of the explosion were unknown. The explosion may have been caused by the insurgents. M. W.

SUGAR-BUSH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I hardly think we need make a mystery of "bush" in the above compound. Among the hills of central New York, where my boyhood was spent, a maple grove was commonly called a "sugar-bush" or a "sap-bush," and this, even in case the maple trees were interspersed with, perhaps outnumbered by, other trees. And very naturally, for *any* forest was called a "bush." "He took to the bush," "The cattle have gone into the bush," etc., were common expressions. And this again very naturally, for to a pedestrian the trees count for little; the bushes (generically, the "bush"), or the dense undergrowth of the ordinary forest, were the main thing in the case, whether as obstacle or lurking-place for game, etc. I used often to hear "sugar-orchard" also, instead of the above. Of the three, "sap-bush" was the most common. E. A. S.

YPSILANTI, MICH., October 28, 1898.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reply to "E. N." The use of the word "bush" is not necessarily associated with the sugar maple; there may be pine bush or oak bush, or any other sort of bush where some sort of trees predominate; the word bush being used in northern New England and Canada in the same sense that we use the word woods. The word bush is really better than the word woods, for the latter has quite a different meaning. A small area of trees and sprouts is better described as brush or bush than as woods. The word forest (seldom used, by the way, in this vicinity) has a similar meaning everywhere; so also have the words orchard and grove; but a piece of bush or brush in Canada would be called a piece of woods by a Long Islander. J. H. GRIFFITH.

EAST ROCKAWAY, L. I.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To the inquiry of "E. N." in the *Nation* of October 27, I beg leave to say that "sugar-bush" is one of the few phrases in our current American English, like *stoop*, *cole-slaw*, *boss*, for which we are indebted to our Dutch predecessors and ancestors. The Dutch word *bosch* means forest, wood, grove, and lingers in the territorial names Flatbush, Greenbush, Bushwick, Cripplebush, and in the family names Ter Bush (cut down to Bush), Van den Bosch, and perhaps Bushrod. It occurs also in the South African "Bushman." Etymologically, *bosch* is the same as the German *Busch*, the English bush, and the French *bois*.

I have never heard the term "sugar-bush" outside of New York and New Jersey, excepting in families of Dutch origin. I remember in my youth to have heard in such families the single word "bush" used as equivalent to "backwoods," "deestrict," the country of the "hayseeds."

I am, sir, very truly yours,

KNICKERBOCKER.

NEW YORK, November 1, 1898.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In my youth in western New York, the sugar-bush was generally a part of the forest in all its wildness, except some footpaths or woods-roads from which the fallen timbers and underbrush had been removed to make its trees more accessible. Outside of these, in most cases, the forest was there in its original condition; the beech, basswood, elm, and ash, which commonly grew with the maples, being left standing. So, too, the bushy undergrowth, especially prevalent in more open tracts or on hillsides, was left. One name for such a forest or piece of woods was "the bush." To live in the woods was to live in the "bush"; to go into the "bush" was the same as going into the woods. Hence the sugar-bush, or sap-bush, was that part of the forest, or "bush," that might be used for making sugar. This, I take it, is the derivation of the term. In corroboration of this, I may add, when later some of the original forest had been removed, and a maple grove was provided by planting trees in rows or in some way more orderly than the natural growth in the woods, the name sugar-orchard would be applied to it—rarely, except from habit, perhaps, sugar-bush.

It may be of interest, in this connection, to give another use of "bush" by the farmers of the same region which I do not find in the dictionaries in general use. It was employed as a verb. When, on a hot summer day, a man working in the field was so far overcome by the heat as to seek a shady place to rest, he was said to be "bushed." The place naturally sought would be any convenient shade of tree, bush, wood margin, or even fence-rows, which, crooked as they were, often had the corners full of shrubs. From this practice came a wider use of the word. Sometimes in the hay-field or harvest-field, where the scythe and the cradle were the instruments of cutting, a friendly contest would be entered into to see who could outdo his companions in work, or make one "quit" temporarily. When one stopped from fatigue, or dropped out of the line of mowers or reapers (or whatever the contest might be), thus acknowledging himself worsted, he was said to be "bushed." Such a one was apt to sit down to rest in a shady place, should one be near. Hence to "bush" a man was to overcome him by labor carried so far as to make him cease work from fatigue. I have even heard it applied in a general way to designate such conditions at any season of the year, when one gave out from overexertion, naturally sitting or lying down to rest; or to any contest, as of wood-chopping or the like. E. J. H.

CHICAGO, ILL.

FRANKLIN AND TORREY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the remarks of your subscriber which appeared in the *Nation* for October 20 (p. 297), I have no hesitation in saying that Franklin certainly did not establish a free library supported by taxation, either in Franklin, Mass., or elsewhere. Nor is there any ground for the inference that Dr. Torrey was merely advocating on paper something that others before his time had put into effective operation.

There is in my possession a copy of 'A Discourse Addressed to the Congregation in Franklin, upon the occasion of their receiving from Dr. Franklin, the mark of his respect, in a rich donation of books, appropriated to the use of a Parish-Library. By Nathaniel Emmons, Pastor of the Church in Franklin.' The dedication reads: "To His Excellency Benjamin Franklin, Esq., President of the State of Pennsylvania; the Ornament of Genius, the Patron of Science, and the Boast of Man; this Discourse is inscribed with the greatest Deference, Humility and Gratitude, by his most obliged, and most obedient Servant, the Author. Franklin, in Massachusetts, March 1, 1787." In

the course of his remarks Mr. Emmons refers (p. 34) to their Parish Library as having already been in existence for "more than Thirty years," from which it would appear that Franklin's books were a gift to a library already in existence rather than an epoch-making innovation. The books sent were of a character, according to the worthy pastor, calculated "to set the divine kindness in a high and engaging light."

Further particulars regarding the library are to be found in the Rev. Elam Smalley's 'Centennial Sermon Delivered in Franklin, Mass., February 25, 1838' (Boston, 1838, 8vo), and in the Boston *Traveller* for February 9, 1858. It may be added that the library received no further additions from Franklin. After the death of Mr. Emmons (who had been pastor in Franklin for fifty-four years), it was neglected, and at length, in 1859, was turned over to the Franklin Library Association, which has since been superseded by a Free Public Library.

Such establishments as that which received Franklin's gift have uniformly failed, because no adequate permanent provision could be made for their maintenance and regular increase. It is Torrey's honor that he discerned this, and formulated a scheme by which the object might have been attained; but he was a generation ahead of his time.

FREDERICK J. TEGGART.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL., October 29, 1898.

THE "PERVIGILIUM VENERIS" AND "LOCKSLEY HALL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The mention in 'Marius the Epicurean' of that remarkably modern line from an ancient poem—

"Cras amet qui nunquam amavit, quique amavit cras amet,"

has doubtless called the attention of many modern readers to the "Pervigilium Veneris," of which the line quoted is the refrain. It is a poem of unknown authorship and uncertain date—it was believed in the eighteenth century, when Parnell laced it into Popian couplets, to have been composed in the time of Julius Cæsar—and is remarkable not only for its modern tone, but for its metre, which is accentual, and identical with that of "Locksley Hall." Reading it not long since, I was struck with the fact that the opening lines of it sound remarkably like the well-known passage in "Locksley Hall" about "the young man's fancy." The first three lines of the Latin poem are:

"Cras amet qui nunquam amavit, quique amavit cras amet,
Ver novum, ver jam canorum; vere natus orbis est,
Vere concordant amores, vere nubent alites."

The lines in "Locksley Hall" are too well known to need quoting here, but I give them to show the parallelism of structure:

"In the Spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast;
In the Spring the wanton lapwing gets himself another crest:

"In the Spring a livelier iris burns upon the burnished dove;
In the Spring a young man's fancy lightly turns to thoughts of love."

I am aware that Tennyson objected to having the antecedents of his verses pointed out, and resented the notion that because some one else had said something that sounded like a line of his, it must follow that he had got his line from that some one else; the fact remains that Tennyson's poetry is full of reminiscences. It is true, indeed, that, in this case, he amplified and vivified his original with Shaksperian felicity; yet the repetends *ver, spring*, the identity of tone in the two passages, and the identical metre, make it hard not to associate the lines in "Locksley Hall" with the Latin given above.

"Sources" are not poetry, but it cannot detract from, and may add to, the interest of the modern poem to know that what many would think the most modern passage in it is as old, almost, as the Christian era.

HENRY MARVIN BELDEN.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

A STATUE OF THE YOUTHFUL GOETHE AT STRASSBURG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The approaching celebration of Goethe's 150th birthday has given rise to a plan which, conceived by members of the faculty of Strassburg University, should obtain the support and coöperation of all the friends of German literature. It was in Strassburg that Goethe first became fully himself. Here the greatness of mediæval art first dawned upon him. Here the love for Friederike brought out for the first time his lyric genius. Here he planned "Götz von Berlichingen" and "Faust." It is eminently fitting, then, that in Strassburg his memory should be honored by a statue representing him in the first glow and joyfulness of youth.

A large number of distinguished scholars, under the lead of the Grand Duke of Weimar, have taken the matter in hand, and it is hoped that by August 28, 1899, a sum will have been brought together sufficient to insure a worthy execution of this worthy plan. American admirers of Goethe who wish to take part in it are asked to send their contributions either to Prof. J. P. Hatfield, Evanston, Ill., or to Prof. Horatio S. White, Ithaca, N. Y., or to the undersigned.

KUNO FRANCKE.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, November 4, 1898.

Notes.

The Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, announce for early publication the 'Life of Oliver P. Morton,' by William Dudley Foulke; the 'Life of Susan B. Anthony,' by Mrs. Harper; and 'One Way Round the World,' by Delight Sweetzer.

Upon sufficient encouragement, Mr. Walter Rowlands, No. 26 Webster Avenue, Allston, Boston, Mass., will publish between fifty and sixty gelatine prints of 'Curious Gravestones in and around Boston.' These have been selected for their age, ornamentation, or historic significance, and embrace the monuments of Major Thomas Savage, commander-in-chief in King Philip's war; Nicholas Upsall, Benjamin Woodbridge; Nathaniel Hurd, engraver; Benjamin Thompson, poet; John Foster, Boston's first printer; Deane Winthrop, and some of the gentler sex, *e. g.*, Mrs. Elizabeth Phillips (1661), midwife. Descriptive notes will accompany the portfolio. The circular specimen plate promises well for the quality of Mr. Howland Shaw Chandler's photographs.

D. C. Heath & Co. have in press 'German Selections for Advanced Sight Translation,' by Miss Rose Chamberlain of Bryn Mawr.

'The Easiest German Reading for Learners, Young or Old,' by Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan, is nearly ready to be issued by Ginn & Co.

A new, complete, uniform edition of the Writings of the Rev. Edward Everett Hale has been undertaken by Little, Brown & Co.

Forthcoming from M. F. Mansfield & Co. are 'Spinifex and Sand,' five years' pioneering and exploring in Western Australia, by David W. Carnegie; 'With Ski and Sledge over Arctic Glaciers,' by Sir Martin Conway; 'The Story of Religions,' by the Rev. E. D. Price; and 'Mad Humanity, its Forms, Apparent and Obscure,' by L. Forbes Winslow.

R. H. Russell publishes at once a "Maude Adams Edition" of Barrie's 'Little Minister,' illustrated with more than thirty full-page crayon drawings by C. Allen Gilbert, and with photographs specially taken for this occasion. A miniature portrait of Miss Adams will set off the white-and-gold vellum cover.

Dr. Max Verworn's 'General Physiology; An Outline of the Science of Life,' has been translated by Prof. Frederic S. Lee of Columbia University, and will bear the imprint of Macmillan Co. It will contain 285 illustrations.

The Century Company are about to bring out 'Cuba and Porto Rico, with the Other Islands of the West Indies,' by Robert T. Hill, geologist and geographer in those parts, with many illustrations.

'Commercial Cuba,' by William J. Clark, is announced by Charles Scribner's Sons.

From Doubleday & McClure Co. we are to have 'The Fight for Santiago,' by Stephen Bonsal, and 'With Sampson through the War,' by W. A. M. Goode.

D. Appleton & Co. are about to publish 'Latitude 19°,' a Haytian novel by Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield, and 'Foot-Notes to Evolution,' by President Jordan of Leland Stanford Junior University.

J. B. Lippincott Co. promise 'Picturesque Mexico.'

Messrs. Scribner have given a very handsome exterior to a uniform reissue of Mr. Cable's fiction in five volumes, from 'Old Creole Days' and 'The Grandissimes' to 'John March, Southerner.' This product of twenty years has in it a certainty of revival—at least in part—a generation hence, or we mistake its enduring quality.

The late John Addington Symonds did not lack the author's pleasure in a call for new editions of his writings, and there is still a posthumous activity. The well-known scholar, Horatio F. Brown, his friend in Venice, has prepared a reissue of Symonds's 'Sketches in Italy and Greece,' 'Sketches and Studies in Italy,' and 'Italian Byways,' under the general title of "Sketches and Studies in Italy and Greece" (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The editor, with an eye to the tourist's convenience, has rearranged topographically the essays composing the series. The first volume, therefore, opens with "The Love of the Alps," and its appendix, "Winter Nights at Davos," which are succeeded by "Bacchus in Graubünden," "Old Towns of Provence," "The Cornice," "Ajaccio," etc., in geographical progression, halting for the moment at Venice with Goldoni (and Alfieri, by way of contrast). This method is to be praised, as is also the handsome appearance of the book. Mr. Symonds's qualities as a writer are too familiar to demand reappraisement here.

'The Ingoldsby Legends' have found a sympathetic illustrator for a very handsome new presentation of them by Dent & Co.

(New York: Macmillan). Mr. Arthur Rackham supplies pen-drawings and color-drawings, and for favorable examples of each style we could point to pages 73 and 74, only in the latter instance ("If Orpheus first produced the waltz") the artist's humor takes on a classic grace, revealing his capacity for decorative design. This is shown again in the little cut (as it purports to be), with a feeling of Cruikshank, on p. 537. A brief, plain account of Barham and his works is prefaced by Mr. F. J. Simmons, and completes the apparatus needful for the enjoyment of the comic medley of prose and verse so long approved of English readers.

A little volume of much elegance, published for the Columbia University Press by Macmillan Co., and entitled 'Bismarck and German Unity,' embodies Prof. Munroe Smith's notable obituary of that statesman which first appeared in the New York *Evening Post* and (in part) in the *Nation*. The type is large, the paper excellent; marginal entries serve as chronological finger-posts; and one of Lenbach's portraits of the Prince makes a frontispiece.

The grewsomeness of Keats's 'Isabella, or the Pot of Basil' might be appealed to in justification of the gloomy borders provided for the poem by W. B. Macdougall in half-a-dozen variations (Philadelphia: Lippincott). The occasional full-page illustrations are uneven in merit, and affect the antique even to naïveté. The letter-press is bold and black, and this hue is wanting only to the cover of the thin quarto volume, which is richly gilt in arabesque.

The revival of Frankliniana this season is noticeable. A new life of the philosopher for children is at one extreme; and in advance of Mr. Sydney George Fisher's 'The True Franklin' comes a reissue of Mr. John Bigelow's three-volume Life (Lippincott), the last to which, he feelingly gives notice, he can expect to put his hand. He has availed himself, for revision and correction, of the latest historical material concerning his subject, and what changes have been made appear to be in the plates. They are not specified.

The same Philadelphia publishers send us a number of volumes of the "Adventure Series," bearing Unwin's London imprint, all now put forth afresh at popular prices and with highly colored pictorial backs. Among these are Howard Pyle's 'Buccaneers and Marooners of America,' William Watson's 'Adventures of a Blockade-Runner,' together with earlier tales like 'The Log of a Jack Tar; or, The Life of James Choyce, Master Mariner,' newly published, and edited by Commander Cameron; 'Memoirs of the Extraordinary Military Career of John Shipp' (1829); 'Trelawny's Adventures of a Younger Son' (1831); 'Madagascar; or, Robert Drury's Journal during Fifteen Years' Captivity on that Island' (1729); and 'The Voyages and Adventures of Ferdinand Mendez Pinto' (1663). All these are illustrated.

Mr. Guy Wetmore Carryl's 'Fables for the Frivolous' (Harpers) are well-sustained humor in rhyme after La Fontaine, excellently helped out by Peter Newell's characteristic illustrations. The morals are ingenious, as that on "The Arrogant Frog and Superior Bull"—"Everybody knows How ill a wind it is that blows"; or that on "The Vainglorious Oak and the Modest Bulrush"—"Some storms come early and avoid the rush." The slang employed is of the day and not unworthy the attention of Dr. Murray. The "populistic bumpkin" on whom the acorn fell vicariously, "murmured, 'Where would I be at?'" when he bethought him of the alternative; and his kind are well hit off in the line expressing his conviction that "Whatever wasn't must be right." These Fables are luxuriously presented, in paper, press-work, and binding.

In the last four years so much new historical material has come to light that biographies must be rewritten to keep pace with it. Prof. Egleston has prepared a new edition of the 'Life of John Paterson' (Putnams), embodying in it such documents as have fallen under his notice since 1894, the date of the first edition. A large part of the new matter is derived from the correspondence of Generals Heath and Knox, and is of good quality. Knox's connection with the artillery and Heath's command of the Highlands of the Hudson, both responsible and active positions, make their orders of value in connection with local as well as military history. In a work of this character, where the history of the times is a more important element than the biography of the subject, some exaggeration of incident is permissible. Prof. Egleston has been very industrious in searching for mention of Gen. Paterson in orderly books, diaries, and newspapers; and this enables him to record much that is too trivial to find a place in a formal history, yet possessed of enough personal interest not to be entirely passed over. The value of the work has thus been greatly increased, and cannot be neglected by any historian of the Revolution. We note that two opinions of Paterson on military subjects, printed in Ford's 'Defences of Philadelphia,' have been overlooked. They are not very important, but more so than many records printed by Prof. Egleston. The name of Col. Webb suffers in the printing on pp. 138 and 140.

We find in the second volume of Mr. Wheelwright's 'Municipal Architecture in Boston' (Boston: Bates & Guild Co.) the excellences that we commended in our notice of the first. These more varied buildings show the same reserve in design, the same sense for proportion, the same adequate command of detail. Their publication ought to help spread the discovery, most important to American architecture, that the saving grace of even freely picturesque designing is just that control of proportion for which the study of the classic styles is the best schooling, and of which some of Mr. Wheelwright's smaller unclassic buildings are examples—the chapel at Austin Farm, for instance, and the Ashmont engine-house. But one feels a little as if he had met a princess riding an express-wagon when he sees the beautiful tower of the Palazzo Pubblico of Siena, belittled and punched full of holes, set up for a hose-tower against the headquarters of the Fire Department.

The object of 'Renaissance Masters,' by George B. Rose (Putnams), is "to give in a brief compass an insight into the essential characteristics of each of the masters treated," namely, Raphael, Michelangelo, Leonardo, Titian, Correggio, and Botticelli. There is, therefore, no biography, and no list of works, but a series of critical essays, sound enough in matter if somewhat vague and pompous in style. There is, so far as we can see, nothing original in the book, the best things in it being obvious dilutions of Berenson and others; but it may answer the purpose of a popularization of their opinions.

Mr. Andrew Lang condescends with difficulty to the infants whom he has annually entertained with parti-colored Fairy Books, in the preface and appendix and the rather pedantic divisions of 'The Nursery Rhyme Book' (Frederick Warne & Co.). However, his little public will take his total contents selectively, and will enjoy the most of Leslie Brooke's illustrations. Mr. Lang further presides this year over a selection from 'The Arabian Nights' Entertainments' (Longmans), made as unobjectionable as possible for the young. "The translations are by the writers of the tales in the Fairy Books, and the pictures are by Mr. Ford." Both these volumes are handsomely made.

No two children not of the same family or connection are likely to have been brought up on the same Nursery Rhymes or the same 'Arabian Nights' or the same 'Robinson Crusoe.' Still another version of the 'Nights' is published in London by Service & Paton (New York: Putnams), with clever illustrations by Fred. Pegram. Their 'Robinson Crusoe' appears to be the original unabridged, and is likewise, but less cleverly, illustrated by C. E. Brock. These books belong to a uniform series, cheap in price, yet very presentable.

The October Bulletin of the New York Public Library continues its calendar of the Emmet autographs. A letter from Benjamin Rush solves a question that has puzzled many skilled in Washingtoniana. The Corporation of Goldsmiths of Edinburgh gave to David Erskine, the Earl of Buchan, the freedom of the company, enclosed in a box made from the oak that sheltered William Wallace after the battle of Falkirk. The "respectable curiosity," as the Earl called it, was in 1791 by him sent to Washington, expressing the wish that it might be a relic of long endurance in the United States. The box was brought over by Alexander Robertson, the miniature painter, and duly delivered to the President. Buchan had requested Washington on his death to pass it to "the man in my country who should appear to merit it best," a request imposing such a difficulty of choice that Washington, in his will, directed that it should be returned to the Earl or his descendants. Here the history of the box has ended, for all efforts to trace its return to Scotland have been unavailing. Rush explains the disappearance of it. "The box made of the tree which sheltered Wallace was stolen on the road, and he has vainly tried to recover it; he deeply regrets the loss of the gift." The letter was written in 1806, or seven years after the death of Washington. With Rush's known dislike of, and at times open hostility to, Washington, it would be interesting to know why he had been selected as the agent of delivery. There were others in this country who corresponded with the Earl.

Antarctic exploration is the exclusive subject of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October. A report of the meeting of the Royal Society in the early part of the year is prefaced by a plea for a British Antarctic expedition by Sir John Murray. After a caustic arraignment of the Government for its refusal to aid in this enterprise, and references to the German and Belgian expeditions and the "splendid explorations" of Alexander Agassiz, he asks for half a million dollars "for the purpose of organizing an Antarctic expedition to coöperate with the other expeditions that are preparing to set out in the year 1900." Then follows a history of Antarctic discovery, by W. A.

Taylor, with detailed accounts of voyages from Cook in 1773 to Ross in 1841, and a summary of our scientific knowledge of these regions. J. G. Bartholomew contributes a useful bibliography of Antarctic literature and cartography, and an admirable map with insets of Victoria and Graham Lands, and wind, temperature, and current charts.

In the current winter semester forty women (fourteen as matriculates and twenty-six as hearers) have been registered as students in the philosophical faculty of the University of Vienna. Numerous applications made by women from Russia and other foreign countries were rejected, because the applicants were not Austrian subjects, which is strenuously insisted upon as an essential condition.

Hitherto women desiring to study in German universities have generally been treated with remarkable politeness and consideration by the professors. Even the students most opposed to the innovation have as a rule forgotten to be "burschikos" in the presence of the ladies, and have behaved like perfect gentlemen. Lately, however, at the University of Munich, an American young lady, pursuing a course of study in classical art and archæology, was using, with the consent of her instructors, the University Cabinet of Engravings in order to prepare her thesis. One day, when seated at a table absorbed in her work, she was accosted by Dr. Riehl, the director of the cabinet, who asked what she was doing there. She explained the reason of her presence, but nothing would appease the irate director, who declared that no woman should pursue her studies in any department under his control. One ground of his opposition was that theological students were studying in the same room and that her presence was offensive to them. These candidates for a celibate priesthood resented this imputation, declaring that Dr. Riehl was not authorized to make such a statement, and that they had never made and did not have the slightest objection to study in the same room or to attend lectures in the same auditory with a young lady, or any number of young ladies. The matter has been referred to the University Senate, and, if necessary, will be brought before the Minister of Public Instruction for adjudication. Heine, in his 'Harzreise,' speaks of two kinds of German professors—*ordentlich* (orderly) and *unordentlich* (disorderly); and Dr. Riehl's conduct in this affair would seem to justify the classification.

Prof. Baron has bequeathed to the city of Berlin the sum of 470,000 marks (about $177,500) to found an educational institution for children, in which they are to be reared on a strictly vegetarian diet. It is uncertain whether the Common Council will accept the bequest with this condition, as the members of the board are nearly equally divided in their views. Meanwhile, a vigorous discussion of the subject is being carried on between the vegetarians, who are very numerous and influential in Berlin, and their opponents, the former proposing to test the matter by a walking-match between vegetarian and meat-eating children.

A Philadelphia catalogue, whose compiler must have been more interested in current events than in his task, offers for sale "Intrigues of the Queen of Spain with McKinley, the Prince of Peace, Boston, 1809." How Godoy should become McKinley, or McKinley should become the Prince of Peace, is a problem for psychologists.

"G. P." writes us, of Goethe's definition of the self-educated man, that it is not as comprehensive as Heine's. Goethe, in his "Narr auf eigene Hand," however, merely intended to satirize the hankering after originality. Heine's verses run as follows:

> "Sie rühmten, dass er nie studiert
> Auf Universitäten,
> Und Bücher schrieb aus sich selbst heraus,
> Ganz ohne Fakultäten.
> Ja, seine ganze Ignoranz
> Hat er sich selbst erworben;
> Nicht fremde Bildung und Wissenschaft
> Hat je sein Gemüth verdorben."

—Apropos of the acorn of the Washington Oak at Peterhof, a correspondent writes:

"It was sent to the imperial palace, June 22, 1838, by George Sumner. No acorn ever shot up so soon into an oak. The originality of Sumner's act pleased Nicholas. The donor immediately received a note requesting his presence at the War Department, and was there informed of the Czar's gratification, and that the acorn 'had been planted near the Summer Palace, where it would be watched over with constant care.' He was further assured that every facility would be afforded him for visiting whatever he judged worth seeing, letters of introduction to all provincial governors, etc. An officer was sent to escort Mr. Sumner to the Palace, where he was received at a private interview by the Czar. The conversation was at first in French, but, English words being introduced, the Emperor said, 'Ah, you prefer English? I do not speak it well; I will call an interpreter'; and, leaving the room, he soon returned with the Empress and their two daughters, Marie and Olga. The ladies spoke English fluently, and a pleasant conversation followed. In 1866, officers of an American squadron encircled Sumner's oak, each plucking a leaf to carry home. Other leaves from it, brought to Boston in 1871 by the Grand Duke Alexis, were presented to the Massachusetts Historical Society, and are now among its jewels."

—Mrs. Caroline H. Dall, taking up the parable, supplies the following information:

"George Sumner did not return to America for fifteen years. The Czar recognized his exceptional ability, and, finding him anxious to see Russia, sent him to Moscow and the Black Sea, in a private equipage attended by an officer of the court. Everywhere he was received with interest and every door flew open. At Constantinople he parted with his Russian friend, but not till he had been presented to a group of Austrian noblemen then in the city. I dare not trust my memory to record all his marvellous adventures, but this was a happy introduction. George had already begun to support himself by contributions to magazines and newspapers. On reaching Vienna, he found the assistance of a young man attached to the court and of a Russian diplomat essential to his work. He was told that these two men were the most exclusive in Vienna, that it would be idle to seek an introduction. One day the two men were pointed out to him talking in the street. He immediately went up to them and presented a card to each. To the Russian, he said simply, 'At the Czar's request I have been a guest at your father's house'; then, turning to the Austrian, he added: 'I cannot be mistaken in you, sir. Your likeness to your father is too strong. I have just parted from him in Constantinople.' From this time his way was easy. He had dropped his sailor's garb and travelled as a gentleman of leisure. He will be long remembered by the antiquarians of this country for his researches at The Hague and at Leyden, where he finally established the burial-place of John Robinson. Paris became his headquarters. Thiers, De Tocqueville, and Humboldt were among his admirers. His extraordinary intelligence was directed to the study of languages, politics, and institutions—in short, towards all things of human interest. Not until 1852 did he yield to the entreaties of his brother Charles and return to the United States. Familiar with all the Eastern and North African states, he was at once offered by Mr. Marcy the position of Assistant Secretary of State. In 1847 he had distinguished himself at the meeting of the International Prison Association at Brussels. To a certain extent he was a philanthropist, but it needed the terrible assault of 1856 to make him an abolitionist, and he refused an appointment which would have brought him into opposition with his brother. Both were now distinguished the world over. In 1861 he was stricken with paralysis, and, after two years of great suffering, died on the 6th of October, 1863, at the Massachusetts General Hospital. His devotion to his brother during Charles's long illness probably interfered with his own career."

—We have received circulars offering a set of the 'Messages and Papers of the Presidents' in ten volumes, "printed from Government plates, and authorized by Congress." The price is $2.40 a volume in cloth, and the subscriptions are to be made to Ainsworth R. Spofford, General Secretary "Committee on Distribution," but the office of the Treasurer, whose name is not given, is in New York city. We are willing to mention these circulars because they have awakened some curiosity on our part. In August, 1894, Congress passed a resolution providing for 6,000 copies of a complete compilation of Presidential messages, proclamations, and inaugural addresses, to be prepared under the direction of the joint committee on printing. The committee requested Mr. James D. Richardson, then a member of the House of Representatives and of the committee, to prepare and edit the compilation, giving him "full power and discretion to do this work for and on behalf of this committee." The evident meaning was that it was a compilation, authorized by Congress, and, therefore, to be a public document. All expenses of preparing and printing were paid by Congress out of the public moneys, and the volumes were to be apportioned among the members of both houses, as is usual with public documents. A second edition of 15,000 copies was ordered in May, 1896, and, it is supposed, was also allotted to members.

—The appearance of the books as a private venture is, therefore, peculiar, and a slight examination reveals other odd features. The first three volumes were printed without any modification of the original plan; but with the fourth the work is copyrighted by James D. Richardson. This notice of copyright appears in the edition distributed by members of Congress, and even in the sheep-bound volumes that are sent to the libraries. How could Mr. Richardson obtain a copyright on a compilation, avowedly a public document, and prepared at the public expense? Could the report on the *Maine* have been copyrighted, or could Mr. McKinley copyright his annual message to Congress? If this is so, there is a bonanza to be worked in this line by members of the two houses, by the side of which gambling in Sugar stock grows pale. Of course, the profits of the sale would be nil unless the free distribution by Congress was restricted and the Superintendent of Documents not supplied with any copies for sale. As a matter of fact, the Superintendent, in his list of public documents for sale, does not mention this set of volumes, and we must conclude that it can be obtained only from this "Committee on Distribution." Nor has he advertised its sale in any of his monthly lists. This is remarkable, for he is supposed to list all issues of the Government whether for sale or not. We have made an estimate of the cost of printing and binding a volume in cloth, and find it is under ninety cents a volume. As the Government charges

10 per cent. profit, the cost at the highest would be one dollar a volume. Yet the public are asked to pay $2.40 a volume. Who pockets this money, and by what method has the public been deprived of a right to buy this public document through the ordinary channel? Who compose the "Committee on Distribution"?

—The *Atlantic* for November has a criticism of Carlyle, by Charles Townsend Copeland, intended to accompany the unpublished letters now appearing under his editorship in that magazine. It is called "Carlyle as a Letter-writer," and Mr. Copeland safely pronounces the author of 'Sartor' "one of the most remarkable of English letter-writers." But the article is in reality something more than a criticism of him as a correspondent, and is marked by unusual acuteness as well as delicacy of expression. The tradition of letter-writing, as Mr. Copeland points out, from Pliny down, is that correspondence should entertain. Assume cheerfulness, if you have it not, is the first command. The common opinion is that women write better letters than men, being trained from childhood, in a variety of ways unknown to men, to adapt themselves to the entertainment of others. However this may be, Carlyle "is in blackest contrast to the genial tradition of letter-writing"; his only idea in writing a letter is to express in some way the feelings of which he is possessed, and which are mainly gloomy feelings. It is only in his most intimate letters—especially in those to his mother—that we catch a glimpse of a non-egotistic attitude, and Mr. Copeland very cleverly implies that Carlyle, throughout his life, outside the narrow circle of his own native Scotch fireside, either hated or despised. When he is not lamenting he is denouncing or vituperating, but this more or less stops when his thoughts turn homeward; there is no mistaking the contrast between tenderness and affection in the one direction and rancor in the other. When he writes to members of his family he sometimes almost attempts to be entertaining. It is no answer to all this to say that he had a great deal of humor. "Grim" and "farcical" humor Mr. Copeland concedes, but no vestige of good spirits. That people who heard him talk received a different impression does not matter; in conversation he could not help being entertaining. Leaving out lamentation and denunciation, Mr. Copeland attempts a list of things which did and of things which did not interest Carlyle, but when he comes to analyze the latter's beliefs, he is evidently baffled. Perhaps Mr. Copeland does not sufficiently discriminate between the young Carlyle, whose voice sounded to Lowell like a "bugle-call," and the Cheyne Row Jeremiah of a later period; but the subject is a mine which will not be exhausted in a long time. "Colonial Lessons of Alaska" is the title of a paper by David Starr Jordan, a writer who cannot be accused of a want of "Americanism." It is a shocking exposure of misgovernment, waste, inhumanity, and confusion. Briefly summed up, the showing is that we have held Alaska for thirty years as a colony, without making any progress in governing it. There is no head, no responsibility, and no system. No single person or even bureau is answerable for it. Some things, including the prohibitory system which does not prohibit, are looked after by the Treasury; other things are in the hands of the Fish Commission; certain duties fall to the army; the law of the Territory is found in the Statutes of Oregon, while the land is under the control of the Interior Department. Jury trial flourishes, among a people who have not the least idea what it means, and the result of the whole is that the Territory is exploited by rich corporations and the laws are a dead letter.

—The *Century* opens with a novel literary venture—the first instalment of a Life of Alexander the Great, by Prof. Benjamin Ide Wheeler of Cornell University. It is profusely illustrated, not only from coins and medallions, but by two or three modern artists, one of whom, A. Castaigne, gives a most impressive snap-shot view of Alexander in the act of taming Bucephalus. It is hard to improve on Plutarch, but Mr. Wheeler's idea evidently is that he is unnecessarily antique and simple. The first sentence is a striking comparison of the work of Alexander with that of Christ; the letter of Alexander to Aristotle on the publication of the acroamatic doctrines is remarked upon as presenting the son of Philip to us "as one of the earliest opponents of university extension"; and of the murder of Philip we learn that the "strained political situation" had a good deal to do with the matter, "as was the case with the assassin of President Garfield." When Alexander, in reply to the question whether he would be willing to compete in the Olympian games, says, "Yes, certainly, if I can have kings as antagonists," Mr. Wheeler wisely guards his audience against an odious surmise by declaring emphatically that "we should do Alexander great injustice if we interpreted this remark as monarchical snobbishness." Paul Leicester Ford begins a series of illustrated papers on "The Many-Sided Franklin," which promise to provide a good deal of entertainment; and Capt. Sigsbee begins his "Personal Narrative of the *Maine*," also illustrated, bringing us within a measurable distance of the explosion. A real contribution to literature is "Lowell's Impressions of Spain," from hitherto unpublished official dispatches, furnished, with a prefatory note, by Mr. A. A. Adee of the State Department. A characteristic observation—both for matter and manner—is that "the *empleomania* which is the dry-rot of Spain, as it threatens to become of the United States, supplies every leader with a momentarily devoted band of adherents, ready to transfer themselves at any moment to a more promising chief, as a cloud of gnats shifts indifferently from the head of one passer-by to that of another."

—In *Harper's* the best illustrated articles are: "Our Seaboard Islands on the Pacific," by John E. Bennett, and Frederic Remington's "With the Fifth Corps," a half-farcical report of the writer's adventures as a war-correspondent. His account of the strategy of the early movement from Siboney agrees with that of Richard Harding Davis. The troops "started for Santiago, apparently by individual intention"; they were not led but stopped by their general, who, discovering what they were about, sent a personal aid forward with positive orders to halt them. But for this, they would have continued to advance until they got into Santiago. 'Archibald R. Colquhoun, author of 'China in Transformation,' contributes a staggering paper on "Eastward Expansion of the United States." Expansionists and imperialists are a curious race, and in nothing more curious than in the rapidity of their descent from the general to the particular. Here are some of Mr. Colquhoun's premises: "The world, as it now stands, is the result of human struggle, of racial competition carried on through countless ages." "The essential condition of international existence is rivalry—first in arms, then in arts, then in arms again." "One leading result of the secular struggle among the Western nations has been the gradual ascendancy of . . . as we may roughly call them, the blue-eyed races over the Celtic or Latin races." His conclusions are that the whole Anglo-Saxon world is in great danger from Russia, that the Pacific Ocean may, if we are not on our guard, become "a Russian lake," and the whole of Europe be "dominated," in which case "America and South Africa, in addition to Australasia, would, as a natural consequence, fall under the ascendancy of the Slav." The strangest part of it all is that maunderings like these get themselves published as if they were sober contributions to political discussion.

—In *Scribner's* Mr. C. D. Gibson's sketches (drawings without text) of New York life have been occupying lately a prominent place; we notice that in 1899 he is to give us the "Seven Ages of American Woman." Mr. Gibson's capacities as a draughtsman are so well known that it is unnecessary to draw attention to them; if we fail to find in these five night scenes of "a New York day" anything specially characteristic of New York, possibly it is because days all over the world are becoming more and more alike. Capt. F. E. Chadwick, commander of the *New York*, and chief of staff to Admiral Sampson, contributes a solid article on "The Navy in the War." His opinion is that our experience condemns the monitor class absolutely, except for harbor use. Their coal supply is limited, their speed is low, they are "hells of suffering to their crews," while the "rapid period of oscillation" makes accurate shooting from their gun platforms, unless the water is smooth, impossible. On the other hand, the large armored cruiser and the battle-ship increased their reputation. The *New York*, he thinks, "could easily keep the sea a month without coaling." With regard to the Spaniards, Capt. Chadwick, who has seen something of Spain, remarks two peculiarities: first, he thinks their lack of administrative capacity is due partly to their being more or less Moorish; secondly, he notices that they are more prone in war to run away than to attack. An illustrated article on "The Woman's Paris," by Ada Cone, gives some account of matters which interest all women. The fact is commented on that the fashions sought for by Americans come from the so-called demi-monde (though the word is not very accurately used), and the curious remark is made that "in principle the American sees in Paris the French women of her own moral life in such attire as to pass unobserved, while the novelty and the style she has come to seek are the appanage of women whose life she looks upon with horror." In other words, nice women dress so as not to be conspicuous; others dress themselves so as to look like women who are not nice. "American women overdress," is another way of putting it.

—The second volume of the *Journal of Germanic Philology* (Ginn & Co.) starts out auspiciously with an addition to its corps of editors in the person of Prof. Camillo von Klenze of the University of Chicago, who will hereafter have comparative literature as his particular subject. The *Journal*, which appears quarterly, is now well and

thoroughly manned by specialists in their own field of research: Profs. Cook of Yale, for English; White of Cornell, for German literature; Hench of Michigan, for the grammar of the Germanic dialects; with Prof. Gustav E. Karsten of the University of Indiana, as general editor. The first number of the new volume thoroughly answers to the high standard set by its predecessor in its original articles, book reviews, and reports of foreign journals. In the scope and value of its original material, gleaned from the whole field of Germanics, and its whole scientific tone, the *Journal* is no whit behind the German publications of its class, several of which have welcomed it as a worthy accession to their ranks. The book reviews, in their turn, are sober, outspoken, and exhaustive, and contain, as they should to mete the full measure of their usefulness, a vast amount of constructive criticism. All this is a most hopeful sign of the reality of this branch of study in America. The table of contents in the first volume shows plainly, also, the extent of the dispersion of such studies among us, for nearly every prominent institution of learning is represented straight across the continent from California to Massachusetts. It is only to be hoped that the *Journal's* clientèle is as widespread, for the project is distinctly worthy of success. New features of the second volume will be the devotion of additional space to bibliography, which has thus far been no more than a record of publications received. The editors recognize the need of recording in particular all American publications relating to Germanics, as many such titles do not find their way into the European bibliographies. In special cases publications in preparation are also to be announced; and last, but not least, there is to be a detailed index of the first volume. The subscription price is three dollars a year, and copies of the first volume may still be had of the general editor.

—Mr. Henry Bradley carries on the letter G of the Oxford Dictionary (New York: Henry Frowde) from Gaincope to Germanizing, in the October issue. The rather curious assortment of vocables embraces a diversity of foot and leg gear—gaiters, galligaskins (*alla grechesca*), galoshes, gamashes, and gambadoes. In the *sh* of galosh we are bid recognize the Greek-Latin word for foot; in the fore part, the Greek for wood—resulting in a clog. Gamash, on the other hand, derives from a certain leather called after its Tripolitan place of manufacture, like Gamboge from Cambodia. Gambado, finally, is from the Italian *gamba*, leg; like Gambit, in chess, as if "a tripping up the heels (in wrestling)," or, in our slang phrase, "getting the leg over one." Gallipot is plausibly identified with galley, and hence should be pottery imported from the Mediterranean in vessels of that description. Geneva, however (or Hollands Geneva, gin for short), is merely a corruption of juniper (Fr. *genièvre*). Caxton was the first to use Gallows in the singular, and Mr. Bradley thinks the plural (gallowses) under the ban and avoided as uncouth. Gas was proposed successfully by the Dutch scientist J. B. Van Helmont in 1652, in imitation of the Greek χάος, which makes Gasometer a good formation; its slang use for wind and nonsense is first recorded in 1847. To Dickens's character invention we owe Gamp (a nurse, and an umbrella), along with Gampish and Gampishness. Lewis Carroll introduced at one stroke both Chortle and Galumph. Garibaldi's costume lent his name to a blouse and to a hat, and British loyalty applied to a stuff the name (Galatea) of the Duke of Edinburgh's vessel in 1867. Gazette came, perhaps, from the Venetian coin (*gazetta*) paid for it or for the reading of it, and goes back to Venice and the middle of the sixteenth century, towards the end of which was evolved, by the Englishman L. Echard, Gazetteer, a "geographical index." The Italians, going afield, borrowed Garble from the Arabic, which, in turn, possibly quarried from the late Latin.

—Mr. Bradley's conspectus under Gender is interesting. Under Genius he collects some of the most famous definitions, from Blair (first and perhaps best), in 1783, "Genius always imports something inventive or creative," to Carlyle's sop to talent and industry, in 1858, "Genius . . . means transcendent capacity of taking trouble, first of all," and Froude's likening it in 1883 to an inexhaustible spring. This sense of the word was developed in the eighteenth century; Dr. Johnson did not recognize it. For the Germanic use of Genial to signify 'pertaining to genius,' Carlyle is first cited and in translation (1825), but Coleridge exhibits it already in 1817 in his 'Biographia Literaria'—near the beginning of chapter xi., advising "every scholar who feels the genial power working within him" to make a division, if possible, between his talents and his genius, for subsistence and for recreation respectively. Our lexicographer suggests that "in the later echoes of Milton's phrase *genial spirits*," cheery or kindly may be intended, and cites Coleridge, "My genial spirits fail," in his ode, "Dejection." This piece postdates the poet's sojourn in Germany, and, as if in reflex commentary on genial in the third stanza, in the sixth he says:

> "Nor care I that they rob me of my mirth,
> But oh! each visitation
> Suspends what nature gave me at my birth,
> My shaping spirit of Imagination,"

—that inventive and creative faculty which is allied to genius. The verb Gamble crops up only in 1775-'86, after Gambler and Gambling (ppl.) were in vogue as slang. Our slang attributive "common or garden" receives in this Dictionary 1892 as its approximate jocular date; but it is curious that "the common or garden nightshade" occurs in a work, 'Adam in Eden,' of 1657. We remark that Garden-party has here a rubric of its own; yet in all the citations is unhyphened except when the phrase is used attributively, and not always then. In closing, we are glad to produce our hearty Americanism, a Gale of laughter.

MIRABEAU.

Mirabeau. By P. F. Willert, M.A. Macmillan Co. 1898. Pp. xi and 230.

The series of lives of eminent foreign statesmen to which Mr. Willert's excellent biography of Mirabeau belongs, is "limited to a selection from those who have exercised a commanding influence on the general course of European affairs and impressed their memory deeply on the minds of men." These words accurately describe almost all the leaders of men whose achievements are recorded in the lives edited by Prof. Bury. They apply with appropriateness to Richelieu, to Philip Augustus, to Charles the Great, to Louis XI., to Louis XIV., and to Cavour; for who can doubt that each of these men vitally affected the course of European history? But does the description which covers well enough the heroes of the nations whose names have been just enumerated, fairly include Mirabeau? He "impressed his memory deeply on the minds of men." For a moment—if we measure periods by the standard of history, it was scarcely more than a moment—he was the foremost man of France. At a crisis which appeared to be a turning-point in the annals, not only of France, but of Europe, he came or was forced to the front. Whether, indeed, he has impressed himself on the memory of ordinary Frenchmen may be doubtful; not one peasant remembers Mirabeau for a hundred peasants who thrill with emotion at the name of Napoleon; but Mirabeau at any rate impressed himself on the imagination of Frenchmen of letters. He was himself no less a writer than an orator. The wildness of his character and the eccentricity of his genius, the very vices which hindered his achieving any lasting political triumph, have endeared him to biographers and historians. His death, too, was for his reputation the most fortunate circumstance in his career. His genius sank below the horizon just when it was possible to imagine that it might have supplied the light which should guide France through the dark and endless labyrinth of her revolutionary history.

But if Mirabeau has impressed his memory on the minds of men, can it be said that he exercised a commanding influence on the general course of European affairs? In plain truth, this is the problem raised by his whole career. Every reader of Mr. Willert's monograph seeks a reply to it. The problem resolves itself into two questions. The first is, Did Mirabeau exercise a commanding influence on the course of European affairs? The second is, Why was Mirabeau's influence in any case far below what might have been expected both from his talents and from his fame?

The more carefully a student weighs the results of Mr. Willert's elaborate and impartial estimate of his hero, the more certainly will he arrive at the conclusion that our first inquiry must receive a negative answer. Look at Mirabeau as a statesman; compare him with Louis XI., with William the Silent, or with Cavour, and you must without hesitation admit that he does not stand in the same line with the men who, by force whether of statecraft or of patriotism, have in fact guided or controlled the course of the world's history. Louis XI. practically laid the foundations of the French monarchy, for if he did not exactly found the monarchy, he certainly insured that it should be for centuries the predominant force in determining the development of France. William the Silent created the Dutch Republic; he dealt a fatal blow at the power of Spain; he established, for the first time in the history of Europe, a state which should maintain the practice of toleration; it is hardly too much to say that the labors of William the Silent revealed to the world the possibility of at once maintaining orderly government and allowing freedom of thought and freedom of discussion. We live too near the days of Cavour to know how long his work will stand the test of time. Thus much, however, is certain: the policy of Cavour has freed Italy from the rule of foreigners, and has given to Italians the opportunity of proving that a united Italy can take a leading part

in the development of European civilization.

But what has been the permanent result achieved by Mirabeau's genius? At a critical moment, which arrested the attention of the civilized world, he was the spokesman of France. His speeches and his writings show also that he did at times see more clearly than most men of his generation what were the real needs of his country. He was no doctrinaire such as Lafayette; he never for a moment forgot that, in carrying through a revolution, action was infinitely more important than the enunciation of high-sounding principles. He knew that France was surrounded by perils; he fully realized the fact, which has been constantly forgotten by constitutionalists and by Republicans, that Frenchmen need and like a strong government; he also perceived that the Revolution, which was really directed against the privileges of the aristocracy, might by wise statesmanship be turned to the advantage of the monarchy. He had not the remotest belief in a republic of all the virtues; he was not a fool or a fanatic who could dream that a Reign of Terror could be the prelude to the foundation of an enlightened commonwealth. We may safely conjecture that, if he had lived two or three years longer, he would have detested Robespierre and despised the virtuous Roland. Let all this be granted; let it be conceded (though this is not absolutely proved) that Mirabeau possessed all the insight or foresight ascribed to him by his admirers, the question still remains, What did he achieve?

One of the most noticeable points of his whole career is that, in spite of all his genius, he never in reality induced other men to follow his lead. He tried to enter into some kind of coalition with Necker and with Lafayette. The only result was that he offended both the Swiss banker and the popular general. Necker and Lafayette were, it may be said, prigs, and betrayed their supreme incompetence when they rejected the advances of Mirabeau. So be it. But a statesman should know how to manage prigs and bores; and in this elementary piece of statecraft Mirabeau was deficient. His extraordinary oratorical gifts ought to have made him the leader of the Assembly. Oratory far inferior to the eloquence of Mirabeau made Lamartine for a time, however short, the leading man in France; and the rhetorical persuasiveness of Thiers made him the most powerful of citizens, in spite of the suspicions of reactionists who saw that he was laying the foundations of the republic, and the hatred of revolutionists who never forgave the slaughter of the Communards. Mirabeau spoke, thundered, was applauded—and failed to persuade. When he proposed that Ministers should be allowed to sit in the National Assembly, he knew, and his friends and opponents knew, that his whole policy was at stake; he exerted all his powers; he was hopelessly defeated. He turned from the Assembly to the Court. That he was captivated by the charms of the Queen is the idlest of all fancies—there is no trace in his life of special admiration for Marie Antoinette. What is certain is, that he obtained no influence over her. She was, to speak plainly, a rather commonplace woman who could suffer with dignity, but who neither recognized greatness nor valued it. The result was exactly what might have been foretold. Mirabeau took the money of the Court, the Court did not take the advice of Mirabeau.

His life, fortunately for his fame, was cut suddenly short. All men felt that a power had passed from the earth, and what all men felt we may feel pretty sure was in a sense true; but there is no reason whatever, if you look either at Mirabeau's actual career or at the course of events after his death, to believe that, had he lived longer, constant failure would have been succeeded by statesmanlike success. It is, of course, just possible that the retirement of the Court from Paris might, under Mirabeau's advice, have been executed in a manner very different from the flight to Varennes. It is just conceivable, therefore, that the Revolution might have taken the form of civil war, and the King might have tried the chances of armed conflict. But even had this happened, the event would have depended upon the military skill of a general and not upon the statesmanship of Mirabeau. But the supposition that Mirabeau would have influenced the conduct of the Court is gratuitous; he never obtained the confidence which would have enabled him to guide the acts either of the King or the Queen. He was never trusted by the mob, he never was (except for moments) the real master of the Assembly. Whether any man whatever could, when under the necessity of overcoming the King's feebleness and the Queen's caprices, have stemmed or guided the revolutionary movement, is an open question. What is all but certain to any one who reflects on Mirabeau's career is, that he was not the man to achieve the task. Had he lived a year or two longer, his fate would have been the same as the fate of Danton. He would have been the victim of fanatics not endowed with any of his genius or with a single touch of his magnanimity.

What, then, were the causes which deprived Mirabeau of influence over his contemporaries? The answer is not hard to find if the inquirer will free himself from the glamour of Mirabeau's reputation. The first cause of his failure was patent to Mirabeau no less than to his critics. To say he lacked "character" is to state the matter far too mildly—his reputation was infamous. He had, before he came to the front, shocked all the moral principles or prejudices of a generation who certainly were not over-strict in their ethical requirements. He was known to be, or was supposed to be, a man who not only had outraged the decencies of private life, but was ready to carry his venal talents to the best market and sell them to the highest bidder. Nor is it easy, now that we know what were his relations with the Court, to maintain that the popular estimate of Mirabeau was erroneous. His apologists suggest that though he took bribes, he always advised the policy which in his heart he believed to be for the good of the country. His actual corruption is, however, certain; the integrity of his advice is nothing better than a dubious hypothesis. If, moreover, his counsels were patriotic, his readiness to take and spend the degrading subsidies offered him by the Court proves that he was willing to sacrifice, for the sake of immediate enjoyment, every chance of carrying his policy into effect. It was impossible that the King should respect or even fear the man whom he knew to be a hireling. Mirabeau has, in point of character, or want of character, been compared to Wilkes. The comparison does injustice to the English demagogue. Wilkes's private life was discreditable; he was a libertine and the associate of libertines; his public life showed that he was nothing better than the reckless mouthpiece of faction; and Wilkes, because of his vices, never exerted the authority due to his talents. But Wilkes, after all, was a man of sound sense. He never had the folly to suppose that he could remain a popular leader and at the same time take bribes from George III. Still less did he delude himself with the idea that George would accept as his trusted counsellor a man who, while playing the demagogue, kept the bailiffs from the door by means of bribes received from the Crown.

Here we come across the second and the most potent cause of Mirabeau's failure. He lacked all self-control. There have been statesmen as corrupt and as reckless as Mirabeau who have yet determined the destinies of nations. It would be easy for a moralist or an historian to maintain the thesis that Napoleon was, if judged by any ethical standard, open to severer condemnation than the great French orator. Napoleon was at no time troubled by scruples. We may feel pretty sure that, at any moment of his career, he would have joined the party or adopted the cause which promised most gratification to his ambition. There was about Napoleon, too, a touch of almost inhuman—his enemies would say devilish—indifference to human suffering. But Napoleon, from his earliest youth, displayed a kind of self-control which is essential to great statesmanship and is always found in men of great and lasting ambition. Towards the end of his career his head was turned by his success, and at all times he may have been more or less the victim of his imagination; but though he framed schemes too grandiose to be accomplished, he never sacrificed his policy to his immediate pleasures. His heart may have been bad, but his head always remained clear, and his will always retained its strength. With Mirabeau the immediate satisfaction of his passions overruled the dictates of his judgment.

Mr. Willert's work further suggests, though it does not prove, that Mirabeau's career was marred by certain defects of political judgment. It is impossible, indeed, to deny that in some points he showed remarkable insight into the needs of the day. He perceived that the King must either be the victim or the leader of the Revolution, and that a King differently constituted from Louis XVI. might easily have led the attack on the privileges of the nobility, and thereby have saved if not increased the authority of the Crown. He understood better than did most of his contemporaries the real working of popular government. His doctrine that a Ministry of Jacobins need not be a Jacobin Ministry did not find acceptance with any party in France, but it is a truth which ought never to be forgotten by any Parliamentary statesman. But when we turn our eyes away from Mirabeau's extraordinary flashes of insight, and inquire whether, at the time of his death, he had in his own mind worked out any consistent scheme of policy which ought to be adopted by the Court, it becomes extremely difficult to determine what should be our answer. In this point we take Mr. Willert as our guide, and he certainly implies that Mirabeau's views were wavering, undefined, and inconsistent. His plan, for example, for

creating a healthy public opinion by means of bribery and corruption was, to say the least, impracticable, and might almost be termed absurd. It must, indeed, be remembered that Mirabeau was hampered even in the counsels that he gave by the timidity and the stupidity of the Court. But, when this is allowed for, it must be conceded that the schemes he proposed were neither simple nor consistent. We may imagine that his one essential policy was the expediency of making Mirabeau for the time dictator, and this policy might possibly have achieved success. It is just conceivable that, if Louis XVI. had trusted Mirabeau as Victor Emanuel trusted Cavour, or as the first German Emperor trusted Bismarck, the whole course of French history might have been changed, and Louis might have left behind him the reputation of the greatest of French monarchs. This is, at any rate, conceivable, though it is difficult to believe that the excesses of the Paris mob could have been checked by any leader who was not a great soldier. The admirers of Mirabeau may please themselves with dreams of what he might have achieved. An impartial critic who turns his eyes away from fascinating speculations as to what might have been, and looks only at the actual course of events, will conclude that Mirabeau's genius in fact effected nothing, and that his failure to become the guide of his nation was due to the inherent defects of his character.

A HISTORY OF SPANISH LITERATURE.

A History of Spanish Literature. By James Fitzmaurice-Kelly, correspondiente de la real Academia española. D. Appleton & Co. 1898. 12mo, pp. vii., 423. [Short Histories of the Literatures of the World. Edited by Edmund Gosse.]

To an author on whom has been devolved the soul-trying task of compressing into a small manual the history of a great literature, every consideration of justice and humanity is unquestionably due. It is accordingly a satisfaction to begin the present notice at the end, by saying at the outset that, all things considered, this is a better and a wiser book than might be inferred from the first impression it is likely to produce, whether on the critic or the general reader. Perhaps no one but the responsible proofreader of a great publishing house is in a position fully to appreciate how much of the first fine effect of a work of scholarship must depend upon the keenly scrupulous, ultimate (and not merely penultimate) elimination from its make-up of the last lurking, elusive half-score of inaccuracies and inconsistencies of typography or infelicities of expression. In the book before us, it must be admitted that the sharp edge of the reader's enjoyment is not a little turned by a series of inadvertences, too trivial, perhaps, for enumeration, yet altogether worthy of disappearing from any subsequent edition of the work. Thus, for illustration, the assonantic *Inscriptionum Latinorum* of p. 8, and the slightly mystifying Latin verse of p. 188.

"El lingua perges alterna pangere versus,"

have not set the printer sufficiently on his guard against the double *Escándolo* of p. 381, nor the *Gonzolera* of p. 389. Other such casualties are the unsavory Tom of Carrión (for Tob, p. 16); *Maria* for *María* (p. 22); *aparscerán* (p. 57); and "he commits an acrostic *as* the word Maria" (p. 70). Yet pure mishaps are less conspicuous than is the author's own vacillation in regard to the forms of proper names. Thus, while Seville is always made to do duty for Sevilla, Saragossa has no *droit de cité* that Zaragoza is bound to respect, nor may Cordova stand surety for Córdoba, nor Andalusia for Andalucía. As for Andalusian, the unsophisticated reader is left to his own preference between the Andalucian of p. 23 and the Andalucían of p. 179. Names of persons fare even more unevenly. Of famous doctors that "disagree," the *Doctor illuminatus* who figures at p. 82 as Ramón Lull, has already made his bow to us on p. 72 as Raimond Lull, while the "Ecstatic Doctor," San Juan de la Cruz of p. 198, reappears only in the English garb of St. John of the Cross, and the familiar Bernardo del Carpio of p. 35 is everywhere else only plain Bernardo de Carpio. As far as the translating of proper names is concerned, Alfonso el Sabio is always Alfonso the Learned; then why should not Don Juan de Austria be Don John of Austria, and why should Charles I. of Spain, who was the German Emperor Charles V., be always designated, in an English book, as "Carlos Quinto"? Fortunately, *Don Quijote* (Heaven bless him!) is still left to us as *Quixote*.

As to the innumerable titles of Spanish works mentioned in the text, what may well have been a publisher's behest called for their translation (in parenthesis) into English. Hence we have *Arte de trobar* (Art of Poetry), *Lágrimas de Angélica* (Tears of Angelica), *Á Cristo Crucifijado* (To Christ Crucified), *Libros del Saber de Astronomía* (Books on the Science of Astronomy). Even under bonds and penalties, no self-respecting writer could go on indefinitely freighting his pages with such unnecessary baggage, so that the rule is soon relaxed, and presently we find some titles given only in Spanish, some only in English, while occasionally both methods occur in combination ("the *Revelation of a Hermit* and the *Danza de la Muerte*").

Passing from these mere accidents of bookmaking to consider the tone and spirit of the composition, we shall do well to recognize that the author has preferred to adopt, for the furtherance of his purpose, the familiar freedom of a succession of *causeries* on Spanish literature, rather than the measured and judicial impersonality of a standard treatise. The reader may even flatter himself, from time to time, that he is being admitted to that still closer intimacy and more jovial fellowship which is suggestive of visions of mahogany and aromas of Cathay. How else shall we interpret the spirit of a mentor who invites us into the sanctum of his personality by declaring, as of Juan de la Cruz's doctrine "By contemplation man may become incorporated with the Deity," that "this is a hard saying for some of us, not least to the present writer"? or who, in pure exuberance of irresponsibility for the sedateness of his style, rollickingly refers to various literary borrowings as cases of "lifting" (p. 85), "annexing" (pp. 40, 123), or "conveying" (p. 141). While conscious of his dignity for a moment, in the preface, our author explains to us, in becoming soberness, that "excessive patriotism leads men of all nations to magnify their literary history," but his more natural "table-talk" equivalent of this sentiment comes upon us later, in the body of the work, in the words: "Like the auctioneer in *Middlemarch*, patriots 'talk wild': as Amador de los Rios in his monumental fragment, and the Comte de Puymaigre in his essays." Two pages further on we are told that "Sordello is a mere bilk and blackmailer with the gift of song. Among French [*i. e.*, Provençal] minstrels traversing Spain are Père [curious blunder for Peire = Pierre] Vidal, . . . and Guirauld de Calanson, who lickspittles the name of Pedro II. of Aragón, . . . and later on there comes a crowd of singing-quacks and booth-spouters." On p. 77, the Archpriest of Hita is "a fellow of parts," as is also Montoro, not many pages after.

When occasion calls for answers to important literary questions, we must not look for guidance too explicit. Twice within a range of ten pages the relations of the 'Cid' to the 'Roland' are discussed, and it may be not uninteresting, for the purpose of comparison, to place the two passages in question side by side:

(P. 40.) "While we admit that the *Poema del Cid* and the *Chanson de Roland* belong to the same *genre*, we can go no further. It is not to be assumed that similarity of incident necessarily implies direct imitation; . . . and if we take account of the chances of coincidence, the debt of Castilian to French literature will appear in its true perspective."

(P. 49.) "In the *Poema*, the treatment is obviously modelled upon the *Chanson de Roland*. . . . The machinery in both cases is very similar. As the archangel Gabriel appears to Charlemagne, he appears likewise to the Cid Campeador. Bishop Turpin opens the battle in *Roland*, and Bishop Jerome heads the charge for Spain. Roland and Ruy Diaz are absolved and exhorted to the same effect, and the resemblance of the epithet *curunez* applied to the French Bishop is too close to the *coronado* of the Spaniard to be accidental."

Without attempting a general reconciliation of these views, it may be remarked that there is, perhaps, little significance in the fact of the two Bishops being *tonsured*.

It is time to give some intimation of the real merit of this history—its readability. If the one excuse-for-being of such a book is to get itself read, and if the one almost unfailing mark of most such books is that the best-intentioned human nature finds it impossible to read them, then it is a subject of no small congratulation to would-be students of Spanish literary history that they have here a handbook actually capable of being read with zest. It is accompanied, moreover, by a bibliography to the successive chapters which will be found sufficient for all ordinary needs. Considering how excellent and how easy of access are the standard works on Spain's golden age, and how welcome would have been an adequate treatment of contemporary Spanish literature, especially in the domain of fiction, it is to be regretted that the editor of the series and the author of the present study could not have agreed to fling to the winds, for the nonce, all abstract notions of proportion, and so have utilized this opportunity to tell the English-speaking world all it would so much like, at the present moment, to know of the Spanish literature of yesterday and of to-day.

The Art of Taxidermy. By John Rowley. D. Appleton & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. xii, 244, pll. 20, figs. 59.

Though this work well represents the advance made in the art of taxidermy, it is not likely to supersede all others relating to the

same subject. Some of these, like Hornaday's, are too good to be easily displaced, even by a better one; and taxidermists, as a rule, are very conservative, each preferring his own methods, besides being extremely jealous of one another. The latter trait is a relic of the times (not very long ago, for we remember them well) when the "bird-stuffer" was an odd fish who guarded the tricks of his trade like a patent-medicine man, and made people pay to see his hocus-pocus. Taxidermy, as one of the liberal, if not also of the fine arts, may be said to have begun in this country about twenty years ago at the natural-history establishment of Henry A. Ward in Rochester, N. Y. There were graduated in this school of experience the best workmen—or, shall we say, artists?—such as Mr. W. T. Hornaday, to whose work we have just referred, the late Jenness Richardson of the American Museum in Central Park, and our author himself. Such men readily secured positions where commercial considerations were not hampering; they could take their time to study and experiment, and consequently reached a degree of skill before unattainable. The advance is probably less marked in the mounting of birds than of large mammals, the processes for which latter may almost be said to have had their origin within the period we have mentioned, so different are they from what they once were.

We have seen an old-fashioned taxidermist mount a deer on a piece of board chopped out for a centre piece, with four iron rods for legs, throwing the skin over this rude frame, stuffing it out with loose tow, and sewing along the seams as he advanced. Great progress was made when this rude framework was replaced by a more or less elaborate mannikin made of excelsior with clay surface moulding, as was done by Hornaday and many of his school. To great industry Mr. Rowley seems to have added originality, and the results of his methods have never been surpassed, at least in so far as large mammals are concerned. He uses a wire model covered with a plastic composition which can be moulded to the utmost nicety of contour, and then sets like stone. Over this is fitted the skin like a glove, with no danger of subsequent shrinkage, distortion, and seam-splitting. The skin itself is suited to this end by being tanned rather than pickled, and very carefully fleshed, with various good results, among which are the freshness of the pelage, unaltered by immersion in any preservative fluid.

In such hands as Mr. Rowley's, taxidermy may be said to approach the art of the sculptor, and we do not know that we should not add that of the painter also. All its processes are very fully yet concisely set forth in the present volume. The author sticks to his text, writes plainly, and avoids all extraneous matter. His book opens with instructions for collecting specimens of natural history; passes on to the tools and materials used in taxidermy; has a chapter on moulding, chapters respectively upon the specialties concerned in mounting birds, mammals, reptiles, fishes, and certain invertebrates, one on skeletonizing, and an extremely good one on those finishing touches of all good work, namely, the grouping of the objects artistically in their natural surroundings, modelling of flowers, foliage, and like accessories—in fine, the framing what one need not hesitate to call a work of art. An appendix gives a list of reliable dealers in taxidermists' supplies, and the book is indexed. The numerous illustrations are in part from original photographs by the author, in part the work of Mr. Charles R. Knight and Mr. Ernest W. Smith. It is a first-rate text-book, to be commended and recommended without reserve.

A Century of French Fiction. By Benjamin W. Wells. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. 396.

Nothing could indicate more distinctly the important place occupied in our days by the writing and reading of fiction than the appearance of such a volume as this—by a Ph.D. That a professor should have found it worth while to read 688 novels by 115 authors, and those not of all time, but of only the last hundred years, and not of all countries, but of France alone, seems at first surprising; but one soon recognizes that it was in the line not merely of his professional work, but of his philosophical thought, such as it is.

How many of these works he would advise others to read is another story; but, broadly stated, the purpose of his book is to show the point of view from which each of the novels he considers should be read, if read at all. He seeks, he says, not to retell stories, but to convey impressions; yet it may be feared that sometimes his *description* of stories may induce those to read them who had better not. If he had been content not to pass judgment on the specific value of the works he notes, but to set forth their mutual relations and their affiliations, to show the course of development in France of this kind of literature, and in so doing to show the connection between the successive political conditions of France and the successive groups of her novelists, his book would have had more value than it now possesses.

We personify the centuries, and are foolish enough to talk of "le fin de siècle" as if it were the old age of a period; and consequently there seems a certain felicity when fate assigns the appearance of what we are pleased to call an "epoch-making" work to a sharply defined date. The manifesto of the classical school in France was issued in the very middle of the sixteenth century, and our own romantic age opens with the publication of Chateaubriand's 'Le Génie du Christianisme' and his novels and those of Mme. de Staël in the first and second years of the nineteenth century. It would, of course, have been outside the *cadre* Prof. Wells assigned to his work, to have dwelt on Rousseau's influence upon Chateaubriand and Mme. de Staël, but, in his necessary references to Jean Jacques and to Bernardin de St. Pierre, it may be questioned whether he even implies the essential connection between all these great writers.

After we are started in our own century, we go smoothly on from one to another of our 115 authors, receiving some excellent though too hurried impressions, and we are not very often inclined to question the reliableness of our guide. If one likes to be a "Cook's tourist" in the world of literature, we commend to him this volume. The contrast its method and style offer to the solid and invaluable 'Manuel' just published by M. Brunetière, is perhaps suggestive. The one assists the student in avoiding study; the other assists him in pursuing it.

Horace: Odes and Epodes. Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by Paul Shorey, Ph.D. Boston: B. H. Sanborn & Co.

There must assuredly be, among teachers of the classics in America, a growing conviction that some special effort must be made if Greek and Latin are to retain the place worthy of them in the college course. Perhaps the simplest and most direct way of maintaining the classics would be to make them attractive in the first stages, and there is no surer method of making Greek and Latin literature interesting than by bringing it in touch, in the student's mind, with the best that has been written in other languages. It is because they imply the "humaner letters" (to use the Oxford phrase)—the humanities—that Greek and Latin should claim an unassailable place and dignity. They have inspired the best literature of all nations, and, without their aid, the greater part of those literary masterpieces that have done most to widen the sphere of human sensibilities remain a fountain sealed. Unhappily, the day is past when Dr. Johnson could say of Greek that "every man gets as much of it as he can"; the modern aim being, rather, to do with as little of it as may be. This is a fact which it is useless to ignore. The only hope for the classics, in these hurrying days, lies in one's insistence on their attractiveness, their supreme importance for the appreciation of literature. There will always be a few—*quos aequus amavit Jupiter*—who will push on to the heights of complete scholarship; but the crying need to-day is what will meet the wants of those who, without being classical specialists, feel vaguely that their college course ought to give them something of the point of view of the English type of literary man, with his easy use of classical ornament and allusion. This is a type which the American system of education does not foster. Moreover, there is no royal road to the point of view of the men who quoted Horace and Virgil in the House of Commons, or solaced their evenings, like Matthew Arnold, with the 'Odyssey,' or enriched every page with the perfume of antiquity, like Sainte-Beuve. But there is no reason why the approaches to classical study should be made forbidding. In these degenerate days, if the student is not interested, he does not, like Byron, pass through the mill as a matter of course; if he "hates Horace" he can, with facetious and rejoicing ignorance, elect history. Let classical teachers look to it.

We cannot recall an edition of Horace that so successfully meets the need we have indicated as that of Prof. Shorey. In most previous English or American editions of Horace, editors contented themselves with illustrations from other classical authors, and practically ignored the whole body of English and French literature. A good instance is the Clarendon Press edition of Wickham, whose commentary, of about the same length as that before us, is excellent, is scholarly, and has no literary interest whatever. The quoting of parallel passages can, of course, be overdone; here and there the young scholar may feel embarrassed by the riches amassed in Prof. Shorey's wide reading. But neither he nor his teacher can fail to be stimulated as he looks through the apt quotations, which range from Spenser to Swinburne, Rossetti, and Kipling, or to feel that Horace is no musty classic, but a poet whom English poets have delighted to echo.

To take a single example. To illustrate

the seventh and eighth lines of the famous Eleventh Ode in the First Book—the immortal *carpe diem* passage—Wickham furnished three quotations, all from Latin poets. Prof. Shorey quotes, in addition, Cowley, Longfellow, Boileau, Milton, FitzGerald, Tennyson, Trevelyan, Euripides, Ecclesiasticus, and Lamartine. Moreover, he makes the beautiful choriambic metre of the Ode intelligible at a glance by the help of Swinburne's choriambics, through which the student cannot fail to catch the correct swing of the rarely used metre.

The literary character of Prof. Shorey's treatment, and the small stress laid on variant readings, may seem frivolous to scholars of the old-fashioned school. They will be "amazed at what he means." They may fairly be challenged to make Horace as attractive by their own methods. The book suffers, naturally, from condensation. We should have liked a further discussion and a reasoned statement of the editor's preferences in some disputed passages; the introduction, with its analysis of Horace's style and illustrations of the poverty of the Latin tongue even when handled by Horace, might well have been expanded; but with these slight reservations we welcome this effort to rescue Horace for literary study in an illiterate age.

We have noted only two slips in the proof-reading: P. 143, for Epod. 2.*31* read 32; p. 146, for Od. 4, 2, *6*, read 7.

Points in Minor Tactics. By Charles Albert Smylie, Captain, 12th Infantry, N. G., N. Y. D. Appleton & Co. 1898.

This work has been compiled from the best American and foreign text-books for the use of the infantry of the National Guard, of which the author has been an active member for some years in one of the best New York regiments. It is intended, he says, as a sequel to the drill regulations and guard manual, and to explain to our citizen soldiery some of their duties when "soldiering in earnest." This soldiering was not in sight when the work was composed and put to press, for publication took place before the blowing up of the *Maine*, the *belli tæterrima causa*. The experience of the last six months has resulted in a pretty complete disorganization of the National Guard in many States; and to the lack of discipline and the ignorance and incapacity of men and officers alike must be laid much of the suffering and loss of the past summer.

We are told by those who would make this nation a great military power, that the State troops are to be put under the immediate control of the Federal Government—if the Constitution permits; and a bill for so reorganizing the naval militia lies, completed, upon the desk of Secretary Long, awaiting the opening of Congress. We are informed by those who, like Capt. Smylie, hold that the National Guard is "primarily intended to act against an external enemy," that the troops should now be equipped, drilled, manœuvred, and officered so that at the outbreak of the next war "for humanity" they may be nearly as skilled in killing as the regulars themselves. If such is to be the case, then books like Capt. Smylie's are sure of a wide circulation and constant use. If, on the other hand, we continue to regard our national and State troops as simply police forces to uphold the laws, advanced military text-books should have little or no place in our State armories and camps. With no heavier expenditure than in the past, the National Guard can be rendered vastly more effective by merely placing in positions of trust not political appointees, but trained and enthusiastic regular officers, and by holding them strictly responsible for the effectiveness of their commands. Under wise leaders the time at present frittered away by the National Guard would be devoted to mastering the a, b, c of the military art, all-sufficient for the needs of State troops. Officers and men should learn nothing that they cannot perfect themselves in, undertake no evolution that they cannot completely master, and carry out no order without a high sense of the importance of obeying it with spirit and exactness. This, with the knowledge how to keep one's self and one's comrades clean, needs no imperialism to stimulate it and no advanced text-books of any kind.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Evelyn. Hellenica. A Collection of Essays on Greek Poetry, Philosophy, History, and Religion. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Atherton, Gertrude. The Valiant Runaways. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bailey, Prof. M. A. American Elementary Arithmetic. American Book Co.
Banks, Rev. L. A. Immortal Songs of Camp and Field. Illustrated. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co. $3.
Chase, Jessie A. Three Freshmen—Ruth, Fran and Nathalie. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Clark, Rev. F. E. The Everlasting Arms. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Davis, Minnie S. Ideal Motherhood. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
De Kay, Charles. Bird Gods. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Emma Willard and her Pupils; or, Fifty Years of Troy Female Seminary. American Tract Society. $3.50.
Finley, Martha. Elsie on the Hudson and Elsewhere. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Fuller, G. W. Water Purification at Louisville. D. Van Nostrand Co. $10.
Godfrey, Elizabeth. Poor Human Nature. A Musical Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Green, Prof. W. H. General Introduction to the Old Testament. The Canon. Scribners. $1.50.
Harland, Marion. Where Ghosts Walk. The Haunts of Familiar Characters in History and Literature. Putnams. $2.50.
Hornbrook, A. R. A Primary Arithmetic. American Book Co.
Kelley, J. G. The Boy Mineral Collectors. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Kinkead, Eleanor T. Florida Alexander, a Kentucky Girl. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Labree, Ben. Camp Fires of the Confederacy. Louisville, Ky.: Courier-Journal Co. $2.75.
Longfellow, H. W. Hiawatha. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Meyer, Annie N. My Park Book. New York: E. W. Dayton.
Miller, Rev. J. R. By the Still Waters. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 60c.
Miller, Rev. J. R. The Marriage Altar. The Secret of Gladness. T. Y. Crowell & Co. Each 35c.
Nordau, Max. Doktor Kohn. Berlin: Ernst Hofmann & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Payne, F. O. Geographical Nature Studies. American Book Co.
Plympton, A. G. Gerald and Geraldine, and Other Stories. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Ranck, G. W. The Bivouac of the Dead, and its Author. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.
Richard, Prof. J. W. Philip Melanchthon. [Heroes of the Reformation.] Putnams. $1.50.
Ripley, F. H., and Tapper, Thomas. A Short Course in Music. American Book Co.
Russell, Prof. Israel C. Rivers of North America. Putnams. $2.
Sage, Agnes C. A Little Colonial Dame. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Satterthwait, Mrs. Elizabeth C. A Son of the Carolinas. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Schwob, Marcel. The Children's Crusade. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.
Shirley, Penn. Boys in Clover. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.25.
Stevens, Prof. G. B. The Epistles of Paul in Modern English. Scribners. $1.25.
Stryker, W. S. The Battles of Trenton and Princeton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Sullivan, Christine G. Elements of Perspective. American Book Co.
Sweet, Henry. A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical. Part II.—Syntax. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Swete, Prof. H. B. The Gospel according to St. Mark. Greek Text with Notes, etc. Macmillan. $3.75.
Sykes, Ella C. Through Persia on a Side-Saddle. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
The Arabian Nights' Entertainments. London: Service & Paton; New York: Putnams. $1.
"The Day of Vengeance," Allegheny, Pa.: Tower Publishing Co.
The Ingoldsby Legends. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
The Log of a Jack Tar; or, The Life of James Choyce, Master Mariner. Popular ed. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Trelawny, E. J. Adventures of a Younger Son. New illustrated ed. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Trine, R. W. The Greatest Thing Ever Known. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Vaile, Charlotte M. The M. M. C. A Story of the Great Rockies. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co.
Valentine, Rev. Milton. Christian Truth and Life. Sermons. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.50.
Van Dyke, Rev. Henry. The Poetry of Tennyson. 10th ed., revised and enlarged. Scribners. $2.
Wallace, E. S. Jerusalem the Holy. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Warman, Cy. The Story of the Railroad. Appletons.
Watts-Dunton, Theodore. Aylwin. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Wesselhoeft, Lily F. Old Sultan's Thanksgiving, and Other Stories. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 17, 1898.

The Week.

There was an upward rush of stocks and bonds when it became known that the silverites had lost control of several Western States, that the Republicans had carried the national House and secured the Senate for several years. This speculative movement may be carried too fast and too far, but it is founded upon a fact of great and far-reaching import. For the first time in twenty years the silver menace is cleared away from the financial horizon. We say cleared away, for although mutterings of 16 to 1 may still be heard here and there in party conventions, everybody feels that the blow dealt to that faction in the trans-Missouri region last week is a stunning one. No number, no size of victories for sound money on the Atlantic seaboard could have counted for very much so long as the column of far Western States remained unbroken. The South would never have taken up the silver craze if the West had not led the way. The South had no interest in silver, but it believed that it had found an alliance in the West which would carry the country in 1896. It adopted the platform of 16 to 1 for the sake of the political power which it believed would be secured thereby. Now the alliance is broken. The silver lining no longer adorns the Western sky. The principal motive for making silver the leading issue in politics is therefore removed so far as the South is concerned, and if it ceases to exist there it will exist nowhere. Lonely Colorado will abandon it when she perceives the hopelessness of her cause. Even supposing the next House and the Presidency itself to be carried by a free-silver party, they would break their teeth on a hostile Senate. But this very fact is the surest guarantee that a free-silver canvass could not be successful in 1900. With what face could Bryan, or any supplanting demagogue, promise debtors instant relief through free silver when the patent fact would be before all eyes that such relief could not possibly be obtained?

It turns out that Gov. Tanner suffered something of a rebuke in the Illinois election. The Republican candidate for State Treasurer, a respectable man, was a protégé of Tanner, and he was elected by only about 25,000 plurality in a State which gave McKinley more than 140,000 two years ago. Chicago, which went Republican in 1896 by 56,000, gave 3,000 for the Democratic State ticket on November 8, and the most effective argument in bringing about the change was the lithograph of Gov. Tanner, put out by the Democrats, and plastered over the dead walls and garbage-boxes of the city, bearing the legend, "Vote for me and endorse my administration." Republican candidates for the Legislature, whose nomination Tanner had forced, were also defeated, despite their support by "Tanner Democrats," in enough cases to lose the Republicans the lower branch of that body, in which they got nineteen majority two years ago. The fact that his man was elected State Treasurer, of course enables Tanner to claim that a majority of the people of Illinois have really endorsed his administration. But, on the naked issue, has he them behind him when he nullifies the Constitution of the nation, and denies citizens of other States the right to enter Illinois and accept work which has been offered them?

Ex-Judge Van Wyck declines to comment upon the result of the election, and we should think he would. His feelings must be quite too deep for utterance for some time at least. He was, when the nomination for Governor was thrust upon him without his consent or knowledge, a Justice of the Supreme Court whose term was about to expire, but whose record on the bench had been so creditable that he was virtually certain of renomination and reëlection for a term of fourteen years at a salary of $13,200 a year. This was a position which was in complete accord with his tastes, and which he, doubtless, would have preferred above all others. Croker, without the slightest regard for the Judge's wishes or feelings in the matter, ordered the Democratic convention to nominate him for Governor, and virtually compelled his acceptance of the nomination, for if he had declined it he would have offended the boss and thus cut himself off from all hope of renomination for the bench. So he accepted, resigned his judgeship, underwent the trials and burdens of an arduous campaign, only to be defeated in the end by the stupid conduct of the very boss who had forced him to become a candidate. If anybody in the State has especial reason to curse Croker, surely ex-Judge Van Wyck is the man.

What is the meaning of the extraordinary business which went on on Thursday between our two bosses, with Mr. Depew as the intermediary? First, Croker called upon Mr. Depew at his office in the Grand Central Station, and they held a long conference. Later Mr. Depew called upon Platt, and the two, with Mr. Odell, Chairman of the Republican State Committee, were in close consultation for two hours. Croker's visit naturally excited curiosity, and when Mr. Depew was asked about its object, he replied: "Mr. Croker wanted to find out about a train, and instead of sending somebody he came himself as usual." An ordinary person would have sent to the Intelligence Bureau at the station for a time-table, and would not have treated Mr. Depew as the transportation agent or train-dispatcher of the road, but you see it is different with a great man like Croker. Plausible as this explanation was, it seems to have been received with quite general incredulity. It does not help to explain why Dr. Depew should have felt moved to spend two hours with Platt and Odell, telling them that Croker had called "to find out about a train." And why should Platt and Odell care to know what Croker's travelling plans are?

Can it be that an inkling of the real truth in the matter is to be found in Mr. Depew's further remark: "Mr. Croker and I have been friends for years, and I frequently go to see him"? Why have they been friends, and why does Mr. Depew have occasion frequently to go to see him? Can it be that the errand which took him there was similar to that which took him to see Platt later? Can it be that the election of Col. Roosevelt to the governorship has so disturbed relations between our bosses and corporation contributors that some concerted plan of action must be decided upon for mutual protection? Far be it from us to say that this is the case, but if it were the case, could a better medium for communication between the two bosses be found than the man who, on his own proud admission, is on such friendly terms with both? That Col. Roosevelt's election to the chair of Governor has caused trepidation in more than one quarter, is evident in many ways. One proof of it is the elaborate charge in Platt's personal organ on Friday, that there was a "deal" between Croker and Republican leaders for the defeat of Roosevelt and the election of a Republican Legislature. That would have created an ideal business situation for both bosses. Col. Roosevelt's election, by putting a man of pugnacious honesty into the Governor's chair, has upset this situation. Maybe that is why Croker wants to "find out about a train." If it is, then it must be a "special" with unusual privileges.

Gen. Miles's annual report, covering the military operations of the war, sets forth facts which were pretty well known before, but which had not been brought together in this formal and official way. The net impression they

make is that the President and Secretary of War steadily overruled and snubbed the General Commanding, and then, when their blundering had got the army at Santiago into a horrid mess, had to appeal to Miles to get them out of it. The recommendations which Gen. Miles made, and which were ignored, looked to the enlistment of a smaller volunteer army than was actually called for, to better equipment and supplies and training, and to the use of the troops in Cuba only after the rainy season. He has now only to print his correspondence with the Department, and leave it for the reader to see what came of overriding his plans. He distinctly asked to be put at the head of the Santiago expedition, but it was given to Shafter. When that doughty warrior called for help and proposed to retreat "about five miles" (these words were edited out of his despatch), Gen. Miles was sent to the rescue and conducted the final operations leading up to surrender, but the Department suppressed and denied these facts. The President and Secretary Alger, in truth, seemed to consider the General Commanding as a mere impertinent understrapper, to whose opinions they were not bound to give the slightest attention. Gen. R. E. Lee used to complain of civilian interference, and to say that if he had only been an editor or a member of the Legislature, he might have had a chance to become a great general; but that having had experience and being in actual command was a fatal handicap. Evidently Gen. Miles knew too much about war to make his advice worth Alger's while even to read.

We fail to see the appropriateness of a glowing eulogy on Mr. McKinley by way of starting a dinner to Gen. Miles, such as Mr. Choate indulged in on Friday night. Almost every item in the "splendid career" attributed to him by Mr. Choate is the subject of more or less acrimonious dispute, and it was, therefore, hardly fair to his enemies to work an itemized eulogy on him into a dinner to Gen. Miles. Praise too high can hardly be bestowed on Gen. Miles. We know by events that, had his advice been taken, nearly every drawback on the war, all or most of its horrors and abuses, would have been avoided. Who was it prevented his advice being taken? Why, William McKinley. Who displaced him from his proper place at the head of the army in the field both as general-in-chief and as our foremost soldier? Why, William McKinley. Who sent to Cuba, where the active operations were to take place, a cursing military "duffer," whose own career had been a failure and whom Miles had finally to rescue from disaster? Why, William McKinley. Who appointed and kept in office, in spite of popular clamor, one of the most corrupt and incompetent Secretaries of War we have ever had, as part of a political bargain? Why, William McKinley. There is nothing a democratic people should handle so carefully as its praise and blame; and flinging praise about on Tom, Dick, and Harry, giving to a man like Mr. McKinley what should be reserved for men like Abraham Lincoln, is barbarous waste of the national patrimony. And we must not be told that this is merely academic criticism. Judgments on public men uttered by people like Mr. Choate do something toward forming the judgments of tens of thousands of young men all over the country, and make the career of charlatans and humbugs easy or difficult.

Of all the material variously designated as "tommyrot" and "poppycock," we think the most nauseous and most injurious to the public health is that about "the American people rising to the height of whatever responsibilities they assume," and about "Duty getting hold of Destiny" and making it do its work. Since the war of 1860 the American people have succeeded to two at least of the most onerous responsibilities which have ever fallen to the lot of any nation. One is the reform of our currency, and the other is the elevation of the Indian and negro races. We have hardly done a thing about either. The currency problem is very much where it was thirty years ago. To the negroes we made the necessary gift of the suffrage, but not another thing. Not the slightest organized effort has been made by the white community, as a whole, to lift this huge negro population out of degradation, though we know well that their ignorance and barbarism threaten our future. The sole thing we do with alacrity for the negro is to burn him alive when he does very wrong. But it will not be so easy to burn the Tagals and other races. We shall not have men enough to lynch decently in 1,200 islands, if that be our national mode of reclaiming the erring.

The rapid "going over" that we see every day of leading public men to opinions the exact opposite of those they held a week or two ago, satisfies us that the number of men in the United States who form convictions by ratiocination, is small. Many people form a notion of their own in the beginning, but they hold it only until they hear how the majority are thinking. If the majority are drifting the other way, they go over along with it, without hesitation. The disappearance of all pride of opinion in America is one of the curious signs of the times. Holding convictions on any subject different from those of the majority has come to have almost as much terror for large numbers as being formally outlawed. Nothing in our political life is funnier than to see a statesman running when he first perceives clearly that if he does not change his opinions quickly, he will be left in a minority. The reasons are that the opinions are merely impressions, for which he could not give any good account, so that if he has cause for fear that some one will ask him for reasons, he wards off possible trouble by promptly throwing the opinions away. He dreads being found in possession of unpopular views, almost as much as being found in possession of stolen goods. He is particularly ashamed of having opposed something that was "sure to pass." Great statesmen who opposed the annexation of the Philippines a week ago, for reasons which we all foolishly thought good, are today throwing them away on the roads and around their back-yards because they have found out that those profound thinkers, the Peace Commission, are going to have the Philippines, no matter what they say. The last fugitive is said to be Mr. Gage. He is off; the reason is, "Where is the use?" "It is sure to pass," as the boss says. We must have the Philippines for commercial reasons, he says. Had we told him so last March, he would have been kind to us, and warned our families about our condition.

Senator Hanna's views on tariff revision, as telegraphed from Cleveland, seem to indicate that the election went to his head. He boldly says that he is now in favor of "putting a duty on tea." Has he so soon forgotten that he helped put a duty on tea no longer ago than last May? He also comes out strongly for taxes which "people do not realize that they are paying." He means, of course, tariff taxes, but he has in another sentence a lucid interval on that subject, in which he says that "under the old tariff law we are not getting very much revenue." Imagine Dingley's face when he reads that! It seems, then, that the people not only do not realize that they are paying protective taxes, but actually do not pay them. The proof of this is that they produce no revenue. We speak under correction, but we hazard the assertion that taxes not paid are not burdensome to those who do not pay them.

It would appear that Senator Hanna is fumbling round to see if some of the direct war taxes cannot be removed. Those taxes, he says, are "on the people," which is a very bad place for them to be, "according to my idea." Still, "in some instances," it is a proper method of taxation, and it will be necessary, says Hanna, to "retain some of the features of the war-revenue measure." All this is as vague as a preëlection oracle. We look for more definite language when the returns are all in. If Senator Hanna means that the beer-tax

must come off, why does he not say so? It is a perfectly proper and highly productive tax, one which economists have for years pointed to as a source of revenue scandalously neglected by the American Government. Nothing but the throes of war made it possible to lay the tax at all. Senator Hoar publicly asserted in the Senate, when the Dingley bill was pending and when the managers were at their wits' end for revenue, that neither party would dare put a tax on beer. But in the rush and excitement of war the tax went on, greatly to the amazement and indignation of the brewers; other rational taxes, long disused, were clapped on in that irrational time, and, by a kind of miracle, illustrating the floundering good luck of the United States, we got an efficient system of taxation. If Senator Hanna supposes that those taxes can or will be lightly remitted, he is imagining a vain thing. Glory comes high, and we are likely to see new taxes laid as a result of the war rather than old ones taken off.

The Central Passenger Association met at Chicago on Thursday, and, instead of disbanding, voted to change its constitution and eliminate such parts of it as were believed to be contrary to the decision of the Supreme Court. The old agreement of the Association provided for the establishment and maintenance of rates. This clause was entirely cut out, and in its stead was inserted one setting forth that the objects of the organization are to interchange authentic information regarding tariffs and unreasonable rates, and to coöperate with the Interstate Commerce Commission in preventing and investigating illegal cuts. This is the proper course, indeed the only one that can be pursued at present. It is possible that the next Congress, being less under the fear of Populism than any other that we have had in recent years, may be disposed to authorize pooling under the supervision of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Until then the railroads must conform to the decision of the court, and this they may do safely in the method adopted by the Central Passenger Association.

The people of Rhode Island had an opportunity on Tuesday week to adopt a modern constitution, but, by a large negative vote in the country towns, the old document is retained with all its manifest inconveniences and injustice. Annual elections and semi-annual sessions of the Legislature will continue, and the latter body, generally with a large partisan majority, will remain without the salutary check of an executive veto. The State will continue to have a dozen or so classes of voters, instead of one general class, as proposed in the rejected constitutional draft, and the city of Providence is denied that share in the work of legislation which would be commensurate with its population and its material interests. That city's representation in the House of Representatives, if the new Constitution had been adopted, would have been limited to twenty-five, or one-quarter of the whole membership. This was conceded by the commission which drafted the proposed Constitution to be less than the city's proportionate share, but even that was more than the rural voters were willing to grant. The little towns of Rhode Island, like the little towns of Connecticut, control the Legislature, and their control is likely to continue, as the obstacles to constitutional revision are many and difficult.

The refusal to go in with England and seize Egypt in 1882 has been a subject of bitter regret to the French, whom it has necessarily left, seeing the British success, in a very bad humor with everything English. And yet no one can deny that it was the fault of the French system of government. The British offered them an equal partnership in the enterprise, and the French had many times the larger interest in it, because the French holdings of Egyptian bonds are vastly larger than the English—in fact, there is no comparison between them. It was the French, in fact, who had the financial interest in it; the British interest came through the route to India. But Mr. Gladstone did promise that England would withdraw as soon as she had restored order. That France did not, under these circumstances, take a hand in the venture was doubtless due to the instability which marks every ministry under the Republic, and makes each shrink from heavy responsibility. They all know that any one who undertook any considerable military venture which proved unsuccessful, would not only be sure to fall, but be mobbed in the streets. This has, of course, cast a shadow of hesitation over every French politician who was asked to enter on a foreign venture. So they let the British go to Egypt and waited for them to evacuate according to promise. But as they did not evacuate as the years rolled by, they began to do what the British considered peculiarly French—to nag and annoy. The French papers, especially in Egypt, began to load the British administrators with abuse; the French members of the ministry did their best to foil British plans; money was refused for the war against the Dervishes, and so on. The French Foreign Office, too, kept constantly inquiring when the evacuation was going to take place. Every other dispute about any matter, however trifling, was made as troublesome as possible, in order to affect the Egyptian question. Unfortunately, this game was kept up against a rather weak minister, who did make what the British public considered unfortunate concessions about various minor matters, and this finally worked the English public into a warlike mood against France, and there it now is. Even the Non-conformists are said to be waving flags and singing "Rule Britannia."

It is but justice to the British to say that their refusal to evacuate is probably due to their wonderful success. Their administration has transformed Egypt. It has restored agriculture, spread security and order such as have not been seen in Egypt since the days of the Pharaohs. It has created an Egyptian army which far outdoes that with which Mehemet Ali beat the Turks; it has made the Egyptian debt a paying investment; and as it happens, no country profits by this so much as France, as the French are the principal Egyptian creditors. As the British withdrawal would probably be followed by the old disorder, the British determination to remain is not to be wondered at. Lord Salisbury's aim has, apparently, been to continue the occupation while provoking France as little as possible, and for this reason, in spite of the Jingo mood of the British public, he refused to declare a protectorate last week at the Lord Mayor's banquet. After what has happened, England probably never will evacuate except as the result of a crushing defeat in war—something which will hardly occur in our time. England is, in the matter of staying power, very like the United States—in that only an enemy which can land and ravage the country will ever bring her to her knees.

We do not generally attach great importance to the sayings of Mr. W. T. Stead, but we assume that the London *Daily News* would not publish a letter from him touching an interview with the Czar of Russia without reasonable assurance of its fidelity to truth. Mr. Stead says that such an interview was accorded to him at Livadia, and that he was strongly impressed with the Czar's earnestness in favor of disarmament. He does not repeat the Czar's words, since that would be an impropriety, but he thanks God that Russia has such a man at the head of her Government. The significance of the interview at this time is that it assures the public that Russia is not now stirring up strife in Asia, or giving England any cause for uneasiness. It may be fairly assumed, now that the Fashoda incident is dismissed, that the war clouds lately disturbing the European horizon are passing away, and that the poor people of the Old World may go about their daily task of earning a livelihood with some confidence in the permanence of peace.

ELECTION LESSONS.

Fuller returns of the elections on Tuesday week show that independence in voting was the most striking feature of the results. In the Worcester district of Massachusetts a Republican Congressman who had nearly 12,000 majority two years ago, loses his reëlection, while the Republicans gain members of Congress in States of the far West where the opposition had been most hopeful of success. A Republican is elected Governor of New York by the votes of men who at the same time voted by the thousands for the Democratic candidates for Congress, while the opposition nominee secures the governorship of Minnesota through the support of men who on the same ticket voted for the Republican candidates for Congress and for minor State officials. Even boss-ridden, protection-demoralized Pennsylvania shows the same tendency towards independent action if only it had been utilized. The opposition to Quayism was, through the machinations of the boss, so ingeniously divided between two candidates that everybody recognized the hopelessness of the fight for honesty and decency in government, and yet more votes were cast for the Democratic nominee and for Dr. Swallow together than for Quay's man. Quay owns both the Governor and the Legislature, and secures his own reelection to the Senate, but not because of a majority of ballots for his ticket.

The smallness of Col. Roosevelt's plurality for Governor of New York —less than 18,000 votes—shows the utter failure of the clap-trap appeals to support him as a means of endorsing the Administration at Washington, for the head of which this State gave more than 268,000 plurality two years ago. If he had really been running on that issue, as he might if United States Senators were elected by popular vote, and if he had been nominated for that office by his party, it is clear that he would have been badly beaten. He succeeded because the voters remembered that they were electing a State and not a Federal official for the head of the ticket, and a small plurality of them considered that Roosevelt would make a better Governor of New York than Van Wyck—much as many of those who thus cast their ballots detested his views on expansion, a large standing army, and other such things with which the executive of this State has nothing to do. Minnesota illustrates, even more clearly and encouragingly, the same conclusion on the part of the host of voters that State issues should decide the election of State officials, and the same capacity of distinguishing between parties on State and national issues when candidates for both sets of offices are on the same ticket. For forty years Minnesota has had Republican Governors without a single break. Last week it elected the candidate of the opposition, John Lind, while the Republican candidates for the House of Representatives received in the aggregate majorities reaching into the tens of thousands.

That the Republicans have secured the House of Representatives by a small but sure majority is due to a surprising series of victories in the far West, which have emptied the seats of more than a score of Democrats, Populists, and silverites, and filled them with Republicans who made their fight on the gold standard. In particular, Nebraska has turned against the silver "combine" and defeated Mr. Hitchcock, the chief bugle-blower of Col. William J. Bryan. It has also dismissed William V. Allen, the windiest silverite in the United States Senate. These successes have been achieved by the Republicans on a straight gold platform without any equivocation or apology, and they are all the more gratifying as happening in Mr. Bryan's State. Col. Bryan, although in the military service, and thus debarred from active campaigning, was present in Omaha on Election Day, showing the interest he took in the campaign of his friend and partner Hitchcock and in the general result. The vote in Nebraska will go far to unhorse Mr. Bryan in the next national Democratic convention eighteen months hence, and enable the Democratic party to find some other issue than the silver question for the next Presidential campaign.

What were the causes of this overthrow of the silver men in their own stronghold this year? According to all the testimony received they were threefold. First and foremost, the farmers are prosperous and forehanded. They have had good crops and good prices. They have seen wheat go up while silver was going down. The predictions of the Populist-Democratic-Silver-Republican combine have been completely falsified. They foretold ruin as a consequence of the gold standard, and prosperity has come instead. Moreover, the Populist State governments have made a very bad exhibition of themselves and have disgusted their own supporters, in much the same way that Gov. Waite of Colorado did a few years earlier. Another reason for the victory is that a preponderant number of the people in that part of the country sustain the war policy of the Administration. Probably a majority of the people of the trans-Missouri States and Territories are in favor of taking the Philippines. The third reason why the Republicans won was that they followed the fine example of Oregon and put themselves squarely on the gold standard. The only place where they paltered and dodged was in the State of Illinois, and there they have fared worse than anywhere else, having lost two members of Congress.

The greatest question in home politics now is whether the Democratic party will have learned sufficient wisdom by this election to abandon the silver issue. A powerful argument in favor of that policy is found in the vote of the State of New York. The Democrats here ignored the silver issue, and thus became once more united. Such leaders as Roswell P. Flower, Edward M. Shepard, John DeWitt Warner, Perry Belmont, and many others who openly supported McKinley two years ago, went back to their party allegiance. So it came to pass that the State which gave Gov. Black a plurality exceeding 260,000 in 1896, now elects his successor by less than one-tenth of that amount. Roosevelt's personal popularity, plus Croker's crime in punishing an honest Judge, were the two factors that saved the State to the Republicans. If Gov. Black had been renominated the Republicans would have lost the State, and probably the Legislature also. If Judge Daly had been renominated by Tammany probably even Col. Roosevelt would have failed of a majority. These facts show that the State of New York, with its thirty-six electoral votes, is not out of the reach of the Democratic party if it drops the silver issue. But if it goes into the next campaign on that issue it will lose the State by a larger majority than that cast against Bryan. We assume that this fact will have considerable influence on Democratic politicians in the South and West during the next two years.

CURRENCY LEGISLATION.

The complexion of the next Congress is now settled in the way that the advocates of currency reform have desired. The Republicans will be in possession of the House, the Senate, and the Executive. They will be able to pass such laws as they like after the 4th of March next. It is worth while to make a brief retrospect in order to see what has already been accomplished and what remains to be done.

The panic of 1893 was due chiefly to the passage of the Sherman act of 1890. This measure, which superseded the Bland-Allison silver law, more than doubled the silver purchases of the Government. It drained the Treasury of its gold twice as fast as the latter act did. It worked towards depreciation of the currency with twice the rapidity of that act. It multiplied the fears and apprehensions entertained by discerning men at home and abroad. It had been for a long period a maxim in the business world that a crash would come some time under the operation of the earlier silver law. It happened, however, that the national banks were retiring their circulation to a considerable extent at the same time that the silver dollars were coming from the mint, so that the latter simply filled a vacuum in the circulation. (This vacuum, we remark in passing, would have been filled with

gold if there had been no Bland act in operation.) It happened also that the Government had a large surplus revenue all this time. Difficulty was found in disbursing it as fast as it flowed into the Treasury. The public debt was bought in at the rate of $10,000,000 per month during the first Cleveland administration, simply to get rid of the surplus. In one way and another the mischiefs of the Bland act were masked and minimized, so that the public treated all predictions of disaster with derision and considered the authors of them false-alarmists and humbugs. Indeed, this opinion was shared by many men of intelligence and experience in practical affairs.

The Sherman bill, as we have said, merely accelerated the operation that was going on under the Bland bill. A crisis was sure to come under one or the other, since both were forcing fiat money into circulation by regular increments, regardless of the wants of trade. It came in 1893. It disclosed the rottenness underlying our financial system. It produced such misery and terror that a majority of the silver men in Congress (and there were such in both parties) joined in repealing the Sherman act. Then the usual consequences of a panic ensued. Confidence in the Government's ability to maintain gold payments was undermined. Bonds were required to be issued again and again to replenish the gold reserve. The interest-bearing debt of the Government was increased by no less than $262,000,000 for that purpose, and during the whole time private business was in a state of tremor and trouble from which it has not yet wholly recovered. This trouble was due to doubts respecting the standard of value and the Government's intention to maintain gold payments; in other words, to doubts as to the result of future elections.

Now there is a breathing spell. The elections of November 8 have placed in the hands of the Republican party the power to put the currency of the country on a basis where it cannot be disturbed by political changes, and this power ought to be exercised promptly. The question what ought to be done is no longer open to dispute inside the party. The convention of business men at Indianapolis, the Monetary Commission that grew out of it, the subsequent action of the House committee on banking and currency, have together formulated a measure which, while still amendable, contains the substance of a working plan to establish the gold standard, to divorce the Government from the banking business, to relieve the Treasury of the task of redeeming the greenbacks from day to day (although it remains still responsible for them), and to enable the national banks to issue a safe and elastic currency, equal at all times to the wants of trade. The taunt so often flung at the currency reformers, that they cannot frame a bill which any two of them will agree to support, has lost all its force. The banking committee's bill is their answer to all inquirers, whether such inquirers be friendly or otherwise.

It would probably be useless for the House to pass this bill at the coming session, because the Senate would at once reject it, and then the work must needs be done afresh. Yet it is of the greatest importance that it should be passed at an early day, so that its benefits may be generally felt before the next national election. If it is worth passing at all, it should be passed as soon as possible after the new Senators are sworn in; that is, as soon as possible after the 4th of March, 1899. If President McKinley will call an extra session to meet as early as April, and recommend currency reform as one of the measures needed by the country, the bill can be put in shape and passed within two months. Of course, the opposition will cry out that this is a scheme of bank villany, and a device to rob the people, and all that. But such objurgations have lost a great deal of their force of late. They have an old familiar sound, much like the talk about the "crime of 1873," which, after twenty years of hard service, has ceased to terrify the most timid politician in the land. It needs far less courage now to pass the McCleary bill than it did to put the word gold into the St. Louis platform. Yet in nearly all parts of the country in the recent campaign the Republicans planted themselves on the gold standard without any equivocation and without any squints towards international bimetallism; and where they made this issue clear and distinct, they made their most important gains. Now the advantage of an early passage of the bill will consist in proving, by actual experiment and test, before the next national election, that it is a wise and beneficial measure, and also in showing the business men of the country that ante-election pledges are made to be redeemed.

THINGS THAT LORD SALISBURY DOES NOT KNOW.

The expression at the Lord Mayor's dinner of Lord Salisbury's satisfaction, that we are going to annex the Philippines, has given some pleasure to that large body of people among us who have no opinions of their own about any question of foreign policy, but form their views as to what we ought or ought not to do by what some foreign Power wishes or recommends. We have generally a Power which we wish to spite, and another which we wish to oblige, by our home elections, and we vote accordingly, with very slender information about the matter in hand. This is much where we now stand. We are to annex the Philippines, not because we think it would do our own people any good to own them, or because we have ever had any longing for them in the past, but because England would like us to have them, or because Spain would not. According to some people, we voted last week to please Spain or to annoy her, not about the canal frauds. These same people are, of course, much pleased to have prominent Englishmen say they would like to have us annex the Philippines, and have big fleets in the Pacific alongside their own—so pleased that they cannot find time to answer Bishop Potter's troublesome question, "What will the Philippines do with us?" But there are certain reasons why Lord Salisbury's advice is not of the slightest value to us, and the same thing may be said of the advice of the bulk of Englishmen.

In the first place, there are but few Englishmen who have any comprehension of our system of government, still less of what we call our "politics"—that is, of the influences which keep our constitutional machinery in motion. This ignorance was almost amusingly brought out during the Home-Rule debates in Parliament, when Mr. Bryce had the knowledge of the American Constitution almost to himself. One thing in particular they cannot as a general rule understand, and that is, why there should be any limit to our annexing strange countries, as long as our strength permits, because there is no other restriction in their own case. They do not consider that their own Constitution has been steadily growing up for three hundred years as what we may call an "annexing constitution"—that is, a constitution with a distinct place in it for subject races to be ruled by the "Queen in council." From the time of Henry II., when the first conquest was made in Ireland, England has had a ruling and a subject race, and the empire has grown slowly up on that theory. Never has the slightest countenance been given by any political party in England to the doctrine that any but natives of the British Isles should have any share in the government of the Empire, or that any conquered people should be released from the government of England because they did not like it. It has for three hundred years been as natural to an Englishman that there should be in the Empire a vast body of people ruled by naked force, without the smallest disguise, as that there should be peers and commoners, superiors and inferiors. Owing to this fact, the English political manners and opinions have adapted themselves to an Empire of two classes of subjects, one with both the *jus suffragii* and the *jus honoris*, and the other with the right to nothing but security for life and property.

Englishmen are not an imaginative race, and they find difficulty in imagining the new state of things inaugurated by our Constitution on this continent.

We expressly, by that instrument, forbade the existence of two classes of citizens, agreed to admit to a share in our government everybody who chose to come and live here, and down to this year loaded with abuse everybody who thought the world should be arranged differently. The result has been that our political manners and ideas have grown up under the régime of equality. The ordinary American finds the greatest difficulty in thinking of any white man as an inferior in the European sense. On colored men he does look down, but he has never learned to govern them as the English have, who have always had so many of them to govern. We have had negroes and Indians and foreigners among us during nearly the whole period of our national existence, but we have never made even an attempt to apply to them the art of ruling subject races as the English practise it. Whenever a person whom we do not acknowledge to be our equal commits a serious offence, far from bringing organized authority to bear on him as the English did, for instance, on the Dacoits in India, we let loose mobs on him, and lynch him. Any one who has observed, as most travellers have, the treatment of hotel-waiters in Europe by plain Americans, will understand what we mean by the assimilation of our manners to political theories.

The American cannot think of any man as an inferior. Partly as a consequence of this, there is no modern man less skilled in the exercise of authority. He rarely gives an order even to a hireling. His formula is, "Won't you do so and so?" or, "If I were you, I would do so and so." In the West there is a constant grudge against the officers in the army for giving orders, and a slight contempt of the soldiers for obeying so readily. The English, by generations of practice, have learned to be just while despising—a very difficult art. It will take us another hundred years to learn it, and we fear we cannot learn it without the sacrifice of our old Constitution, the product of so many hopes and prayers and tears. All this is probably very new to Lord Salisbury.

There is something else, probably not quite so new, and that is the extreme volatility of our public, the rapidity with which it makes up its mind and changes its opinions. It hated England last year and loves her this year. It wanted to kill Admiral Cervera last May and kissed and hugged him last August. Twenty years ago it admired and pitied the negro, to-day it does not care what becomes of him, and so on; we might multiply these illustrations indefinitely. This Lord Salisbury probably knows well, but the trouble is, he does not care. No man in England has greater contempt for our politics, but he has great respect for our fleet, and would like the use of it now and then on a pinch; what would become of our politics is our affair. That our experiment should fail, is probably to him the most natural thing in the world. Why should any foreigner keep up his faith in it when so many of our own people have lost theirs? Who would have thought so many rulers of subject races, charged with the responsibility of "elevating" mankind, would arise in three months in America, of all countries in the world? Who would have thought that our treatment of these races during the last hundred years really argued a deep conscientious concern about them?

"ORIGINAL WORK."

Mr. Frederic Harrison, in his article in the *Nineteenth Century* on Freeman's "Historical Method," has some sharp but just things to say about the ravages of what is called "original work" in history. What is meant is terrific labor in accumulating a mass of minute details never before brought to light, but which prove to be either untrustworthy or without significance when the grave-clothes are torn off them. It is this system of "minute realism" in history which gives us so many monographs and studies dull as ditch-water, and leads so many investigators to wreak themselves in mighty volumes upon a "period." Under the triumphant name of "new material" and "unpublished manuscripts," the learned world is deluged with material which, whether new or old, is a weariness to the flesh, and with manuscripts which Heaven seemed specially to have designed never to be published. As Mr. Harrison says, it is this sort of research which is killing the art of historical narration, and rendering history, instead of a synthetic whole, instead of a life-like picture, a mass of dreary facsimiles of Queen's washing-lists and inventories of the number of swine kept on a baronial manor in the twelfth century. It is fun for the investigator, but it is death to the reader. The world, observes Mr. Harrison, is "not as fond of 'periods' as a school-teacher and a college tutor."

Mr. Harrison thinks that this blight of minute knowledge which has fallen upon historical composition is due to the system of examinations. Their very life-blood is in subtle points and out-of-the-way scraps of knowledge which form the basis of "marks." But the same tendencies are observable in this country, where examinations have not been developed with such rigor, nor made the sure means of a livelihood, as in England. Many of our historical monographs are as murderously petty and prolonged as anything Oxford can show. And the same methods are carried into other departments. Since literature, for example, came to be "scientifically" studied in our colleges, the fearful and wonderful results offered us in the name of "original work" have been enough to make a census report fascinating reading by comparison. Our original literary workers dive into a great poem or a masterpiece of prose and come up in triumph laden with statistics. They have counted the number of false rhymes in the 'Faery Queen,' they can tell you exactly how many times the word "nature" occurs in Burke. Who shall, after that, forbid them the degree of Litt. Doc.? Really "original" literary work seems now, in fact, to be largely an affair of counting. It is arithmetic applied to literature. Criticism is the art of turning out statistics. Thus we read of a devoted woman, painfully toiling after the higher education and the degree of M.A., who wrestled night after night with a thesis on Browning. But what was it all about? Why, the dear lady was counting and classifying the colors, and the animals, and the precious stones, and the flowers, and the figures of speech to be found in Browning's complete works! Of course, she was doing it on the advice of her professor. True monsters of learning, each of them!

It seems probable that all this is partly, at least, the result of the rush of so many to the schools. Out of them all, but here and there one has a mind of true insight, of native taste, of grasp on principles; and what easier disposition to make of the rest than to set them counting? Almost anybody can count so many hours a day. Give a student pigeon-holes enough, and he can in time analyze and classify all literature—and not know the first thing about it when he is done. Certain it is that the scientific organization of the departments of literature in many of our colleges and universities has led thousands to drench and drown their minds in these floods of trifling details, in which every spark of real literary taste is surely extinguished. The system distinctly tends to give us, in the professors' chairs, pottering statisticians instead of inspiring lecturers, and, on the students' benches, a generation that loses itself in verbal forms and weak endings, and remains dull and blank to literature itself.

Perhaps the phenomenon should be treated as one of the inevitable vices of specialization. The time of the wide-ranging intellect seems gone by, in science and economics as well as history and literature. In their room we get ten thousand men each cultivating his little garden-plot, all the while making it smaller and smaller, and bending over it with eyes ever more bleared and short-sighted. David A. Wells was almost an extinct type of economist, even before he died. Few survive with his vast power of coördination and assimilation. Instead of his wide outlook upon diverse phenomena, the typical worker in economics to-day is the man who will prove, after several years of exhausting labor, that Thorold Rogers was all wrong about the price of wheat in Bristol in the year

1521. In science, too, the men of eagle eye, like Darwin and Dana, are gone, and we know now only the intense specialists who are content to wear out their lives in "settling *hoti's* business." Darwin's son, endowed with a generous portion of his father's spirit as he is, confesses in his latest book the deadly effect of specialization and of the multiplied apparatus of modern laboratories upon native scientific genius.

All this is not saying that minute research is not necessary and may not, in the hands of masters, lead to most important results. As Mr. Harrison says of Freeman, "new material" and "unpublished manuscripts" were a powerful weapon when it was he that grasped it; but "it is a very dangerous tool in the hands of the lads and lassies who swagger about with it in public." It is little better than a modern superstition to suppose that history can be written by laboriously copying out and stringing together bits of paper dug up in Simancas; or that a man is fitted to discourse on sociology and propose plans for remodelling society simply by having averaged the annual outlay for beer of 237 selected families on Avenue A; or that a critic is qualified to lecture on Shakspere by having thumbed his works solely to discover exactly how many times the scenes end with a rhymed couplet and how many times with blank verse. Before we boast of "original work," we should decide whether it was worth doing, originally or subsequently, and whether it leads to something for the worker besides helplessly floundering in a morass of his own creating.

THE RELATIONS OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

BOSTON, November 11, 1898.

The Fashoda affair, thank Heaven, has ended without a war that would have been a shame and a scandal. Unfortunately it is not an isolated and accidental fact. It is one of the numerous incidents of the great Franco-English rivalry, and a symptom, as disquieting as it is instructive, of the reciprocal mental attitude of the two countries. The lamentable fact that it is only half ended, leaving on both sides feelings of bitterness and distrust, ought to trouble those who desire a sincere and cordial understanding between the two countries. Consequent French opinion respecting England is easily to be divined; but I would, on this occasion, analyze the preceding state of French opinion touching England first and then the relations proper to maintain with her. This will be to determine in a way, once for all, the respective strength in France of the elements called Anglophobe and Anglophile.

During the present century France and England have for the first time lived not only peaceably, but on a footing of friendship amounting at times to a veritable alliance. Under Louis Philippe, and subsequently under Napoleon III., the two countries put in practice the so-called *entente cordiale*. Under the July monarchy this understanding got on not without difficulty and opposition, and Guizot was vehemently accused of having humiliated France in the Pritchard affair, and of having preserved peace at the expense of honor. Napoleon III. went still further, and not only made commercial treaties with England, but entered into a genuine alliance, and our troops fought beside those of England under the walls of Sebastopol against the Russian army.

In spite of these two precedents, there has always been in France a numerous party which refused to believe in the possibility of an alliance with England, and which preserved the inherited distrust of "perfidious Albion." In vain did Bonaparte's nephew forget Waterloo and St. Helena: those who were cradled in recitals of the Napoleonic legend could never pardon England for having beaten and then humiliated the hero of Austerlitz. Moreover, the whole history of France is but a perpetual struggle against England. Some of the most dramatic and popular episodes of this history exhibit the English as the implacable enemies of France. Against them was waged the terrible Hundred Years' War. They burned Joan of Arc, the national heroine preëminently. If France with William of Normandy conquered England, it can be asserted that England well repaid her; down to 1453, a large part of France—all the southwest—was English territory, while Calais remained English till 1558. And again, the whole eighteenth century was filled with colonial wars with England. She took from us India and then Canada, those two inconsolable losses with which every child at school is taught to reproach the contemptible Louis XV. Every recital of the chroniclers, every souvenir of oral tradition, of which a people's history is composed, the entire French literature, and finally even the atmosphere of public education, have slowly created in the French spirit one of those secret and latent prejudices of which many are unaware, but which gain in strength by being instinctive and involuntary, unaffected by intelligence or reflection, and which the majority have imbibed with their mother's milk.

With the war of 1870 and the succession of the Republic, the situation changed. On the one hand, the wrath and hatred of a brutally dismembered country turned altogether against the vanquisher. That hatred of foreigners which enters into the patriotism of every country, found ample satisfaction in the direction of this new enemy. On the other hand, if France, in the hour of her distress, got little satisfaction from England, the Republic could but sympathize with a liberal and democratic government having, besides, no interest on the Continent opposed to ours. Thus, France and England resumed after 1870 the policy of amicable understanding which existed under Louis Philippe and Napoleon III.

At this moment there was in France, as there has been since the beginning of the century, a very strong Anglophile party. Not alone ministers like M. Waddington, M. Barthélémy St.-Hilaire, and Gambetta desired and sought the friendship of England, but the French liberal party possessed pronounced English sympathies. It considered the similarity of political ideals—viz., the triumph of liberty and democracy—a sufficient reason for coming together. The great political and literary writers had made England fashionable and its liberal institutions admired. Guizot's works on English history were beginning to be forgotten; but Taine's great 'History of English Literature' was in full vogue, and contributed to that infatuation for England of which the Anglophobes have accused many Frenchmen. At the same time, Herbert Spencer's writings, which speedily became popular, quickened the intellectual relations between France and England. The younger writers grew more and more curious about English affairs. Paul Bourget tarried at Oxford. Contemporary English poetry, painting, pedagogy were popularized by university professors or by literary men. An eminent historian, director of the Paris École des Sciences Politiques, M. Boutmy, owes the better part of his notoriety to a remarkable work on the political evolution of England in the eighteenth century. All this Anglophile literature, embracing the labors of critics like Augustin Filon, Max Leclerc, and especially André Chevrillon, the nephew of Taine, who wrote a notable biography of Sydney Smith, culminated in Demolins's 'Anglo-Saxon Superiority,' which has provoked much reflection and criticism and not a little protest. Everywhere, assisted by fashion and the taste for sport which introduced a wholly new vocabulary, the ravages of Anglomania carried to excess were complained of.

Now it was while the cordial understanding was being renewed in the domain of literature, philosophy, art, and athletics that in the political domain it appeared to be gradually dissolving. This process began with the Republic's first attempts at a colonial policy, and proceeded apace with each new expedition to Africa or Asia. Wherever the two countries came in contact, there was friction, reciprocal encroachment, complaints and negotiations, which, though amicably closed, still left something behind them. The starting-point in this rivalry was Egypt. However we may judge the parts played in this affair by France and England respectively, there is no mistaking the profound dissatisfaction caused in France by the English attitude. No doubt it is undeniable that in 1882 France, through the medium of M. de Freycinet, refused to intervene in Egypt in concert with England, and thereby appeared to be indifferent to the fate of that country. But, on the other hand, it is certain that she would not consent to be supplanted there by England, or that England should establish herself there after promising to get out. If Egypt was predestined to live under a European protectorate, it was assuredly under the French protectorate. On March 5, 1883, Gladstone said: "Other nations have interests and rights as well-defined and incontestable as our own in Egypt." France could lay claim to rights *better* defined and *more* incontestable than England's. Not only is Egypt an historic land, full of French souvenirs, where Damietta recalls Saint Louis, the Pyramids Bonaparte, and Heliopolis Kléber, but Egypt, thanks to the genius of De Lesseps, the creator of the Suez Canal, was bound to France by indestructible ties. Moreover, Mehemet Ali, the great reformer of Egypt, who died in 1849, renovated his country with the help of French engineers, savants, physicians, and contractors. A tourist wrote in 1862 that Cairo was a "real French city." On the other hand, the celebrated German Egyptologist Ebers said: "If European civilization has prevailed among the upper ranks of society on the banks of the Nile more vitally than in any country of the Orient, the French have the credit of it."

It suffices to say that when France saw the English, contrary to their engagements, establish themselves in the country which they, too, unquestionably, had set up, but which they had agreed to evacuate, she experienced a very legitimate vexation explainable by her previous and in some sort historic right to the hegemony. Consequently, after these events the French Anglophobes regained all their lost ground. They had a fine opportunity to harp on the "perfidy" and selfishness of England. Then came our difficulties in Madagascar, where, right or wrong, people saw the hand, if not of England, at least of her subjects interested in fettering French influence. In Siam, at the mouth of the Niger, around Lake Tchad, the two countries jostled against each other, yet arrived at a satisfactory solution. In 1896 the English evacuated Muong-Sing on the Mekong, as France in 1898 abandoned Boussa in the Niger valley. And that took place if not without a hitch, at least without an ultimatum. Why did not the same thing happen in the case of Fashoda? Because this time England, instead of negotiating, preferred to threaten, and, egged on by the Jingoes, rather than offer compensation, brutally announced an ultimatum. Not satisfied with a material triumph, she wanted to inflict on France a moral defeat; and this her best French admirers will not condone in her.

Instantly our lunatic Anglophobes, like Deputy de Mahy; our fanatical Anglophobes, like the directors of our yellow journals or of our clerical journals, such as the *Patrie* and the *Libre Parole*, began to triumph. There was in Parliament and in the press quite a group of men desirous of cultivating seriously the English alliance. The former Governor-General of French Indo-China, M. de Lanessan, Deputy from Lyons, ardently showed in the *Rappel* that the interest of France lay with the country that purchased most of its products—to wit, England, France's best market. M. Francis Charmes wrote in the *Revue des Deux Mondes:* "We have constantly sought the friendship of England, for we know the value of it; but the friendship of France has also its value and deserves to be treated with some consideration." M. Yves Guyot, again, pointed out the absurdity of a war which M. de Pressensé, writing both in the *Temps* and in the London *Daily Chronicle*, characterized as "a crime against civilization." The English Government, instead of recognizing the prudent temper of the sane portion of the French people, as well as the Government's disposition—instead of sparing the natural susceptibility of France which Marchand's heroism exalted—refused to make concessions which, leaving untouched the fundamental issue, would have modified only the form. It insisted on English Jingoism having its triumph at the same time that French chauvinism had its humiliation. This was a very grave error, because, instead of diminishing the causes of hostility between the nations, it adds fresh causes, and because it renders more difficult hereafter the necessary understanding between the two liberal countries of Western Europe.

The moral of it all is that the worst enemy of true patriotism is that intemperate and aggressive patriotism which the English call Jingoism and we chauvinism. It is out of compliance with Jingoes and chauvinists that the countries invite catastrophes and the fatherlands are put in peril. Perhaps it is time for every country to defend itself against its "patriots."

OTHON GUERLAC,
Editor of the Paris *Siècle*.

THE RENAISSANCE IN INDIA.

YALE COLLEGE, November 5, 1898.

The theory of a renaissance in Hindu literature has long been familiar to Sanskrit scholars. Briefly stated, this theory is as follows: Vedic works in their three successive stages of development—hymns to the gods, ritual and philosophic prose, and, third, prose manuals of instruction—came to an end by the beginning of the first century before our era. On the other hand, the modern "artistic" literature, the lyric, the drama, and the very artificial poetry written under the influence of certain pronounced stylists, is extant only after the third century A. D. In the interim there are four "blank centuries," from *circa* 100 B. C. to 300 A. D., during which there was a literary interregnum. The lacuna in literary activity is due to the horde of Scythian invaders, who suppressed the growth of all native literature during this very perturbed period. Stated in this crude form, the theory, however, is open to many criticisms. In the first place, it presupposes a later origin than can possibly be assumed for a large mass of native literature, the metrical law-book of Manu and the two great epic poems. Prof. Max Müller, to whom we are indebted for the suggestive hypothesis, disposed of these works by imagining that the law-book was later than the fourth century A. D., and that the two epics were not much earlier, being only "enormous masses of floating epic poetry," till, at the period of the renaissance, the diaskeuast took hold of this inchoate literature and made poems of it.

No theory ever received more acclamation or more quickly crumbled away. First it was proved that the great epic of the 'Mahâbhârata' was practically completed before the "renaissance" began, and that the law-book of Manu is at least as old as the epic. As for the other epic, the 'Râmâyana,' it was shown that it was in great part older than the 'Mahâbhârata.' Finally, Prof. Bühler, whose death early in this year has proved an irreparable loss to Sanskrit philology, showed conclusively that the period from the first century B. C. to the fourth century A. D. was imbued with the same spirit of artificial poetizing as that exhibited in later literature. Prof. Bühler was most outspoken in his refusal to accept any of Prof. Müller's conclusions in this regard. He took up the subject in detail, proving, first, that the invading Scythians made no attempt to check the progress of native literature; second, that, as barbarians, they rather bent before the intellectual superiority of their conquered hosts; and that, finally, their real conquest embraced only a small part of literary India. Not less decidedly, however, did he reject the conclusions based on the supposititious influence of these barbarians. The writers of the "blank" centuries reveal their acquaintance with rhetorical canons; they also wrote, as did the authors whose whole works have survived, "artificial" poetry. At the same time the simpler style of the epic was changing to one more rhetorical. All the further arguments of Prof. Müller were treated as decisively. Even the suggestion that there was any renewed literary activity in the sixth century, which Müller had assumed on the basis of a doubtful chronological reckoning, was discarded. The conclusion reached by Prof. Bühler was that Prof. Müller's theory of a renaissance was wrong in every particular.

To this conclusion there are few Sanskrit scholars who will take exception. It has become more evident, with the researches of every year, that the period called by Prof. Müller an interregnum and a literary blank was filled with the production and completion of great epic poems; that at this very period the continuous metrical verse was employed in works still extant; and that during this period the later "artificial" poetry began to be affected. Why these earlier attempts did not survive as complete works is evident enough. As the 'Iliad' and the great tragedians were to their predecessors, so were the great poets of the later "artificial" age in India to their earlier rivals, whose verses, *disiecta membra*, linger only in inscriptions.

All this has been so long and so generally recognized that a restatement of the original theory of an Indian renaissance would scarcely be attempted by another scholar. But to the first expounder some license may be permitted, and it was with considerable interest that Sanskritists took in hand Prof. Müller's Apologia, which he has neatly inserted in his recently published panegyric of Prof. Bühler. It is safe to say that, out of respect for the former, no third scholar would have introduced the subject when speaking in public on the theme of the latter's work. Prof. Bühler was so convincingly right that it would have seemed a pity to insist on Prof. Müller's errors. It was a brave hypothesis at the time it was invented; it has since been completely overthrown. Let us laud the dead man, but pass by his opponent's natural mistakes.

Prof. Müller, however, had no wish to be passed in silence, even by himself. He utilized the opportunity to restate his theory without overt modification, and to make the stupendous claim that Prof. Bühler, who had so emphatically rejected each particular argument, was, after all, substantially of the same opinion as himself. "It seemed to me," he says further, "that our two theories could stand so well side by side that it was my hope that I should be able to bring out with his coöperation a new and much improved edition of my chapter on the Renaissance of Sanskrit literature." And this in the face of the fact that Prof. Bühler had overthrown each argument advanced in the original theory!

The secret, however, of this extraordinary hope on Müller's part is revealed when one examines more carefully the preceding restatement of the famous theory. Apparently there is no change; there is certainly no acknowledgment of change. But insidious alterations at the master's own hand have in reality brought the theory nearer to the true historical view. Stress is now laid on the "absence or non-preservation of all *greater* literary composition"; the "blank" is now "an almost complete literary blank"; the literature absent is more particularly "artificial poetry." It is admitted, or rather stated, no admission being recognized, that "the ornate style was by no means unknown [in the "blank" centuries]," and that "the as yet undeveloped germs of that poetry may even go back much further; but their full development at the time of these Sanskrit inscriptions was clearly established by

Bühler's valuable remarks. So far we were agreed."

This way of putting it may not be unique in the history of controversy, but it is at least curious enough to merit public recognition. A starts a theory, B knocks it to pieces. A waits till B is dead, and then says: What a brilliant scholar he was. There were some points of detail on which I could have wished that he was more orthodox, but in the main he was in agreement with me. I only wish that he could have lived to bring out a new edition of my theory!

To the general literary reader, who is indifferent to the means of arriving at the truth, the chief fact of interest lies in the practical surrender of the position. There was no Indian renaissance. Even Prof. Müller has to confine himself to insistence on the absence of Kāvya, complete literary works of "artificial" style, while he avoids the crucial question of metrical poems, like the epics, which antedate the "artificial" poetry. As a matter of fact, Vedic literature glided as naturally as possible, and without any obvious break, from the prose manuals with which the Vedic age closes to the metrical manuals, and to the epic verse already foreshadowed in the Brahmanic age. Before the epics were completed, the "artificial," or, as we should say, more rhetorical style began to obtain, and its intricate metre soon got the upper hand of the simple verse in which the first epic ventures were made. Rhetorical rules, as well as greater metrical elaboration, followed. The style became more and more involved as the metre became more and more complex. The acme of this artificial poetry is what Prof. Müller calls the renaissance, which begins when the most gifted poets of the new style were about to appear on the stage. WASHBURN HOPKINS.

Correspondence.

THE RACE RIOTS IN NORTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When will the national conscience be sufficiently aroused to put an end to lynchings and race riots? These lawless outbreaks of anarchy are becoming so frequent in a large part of the Union as to endanger the stability of republican institutions. The lynchers are invariably white mobs, composed of the "best citizens," who commit, with impunity, acts of violence. These self-appointed committees of public safety burst open the doors of jails, overpower sheriffs and guards, seize negroes held for crime, and, having deprived them of their inalienable right to a fair, impartial trial, shoot, slaughter, and hang them without delay.

It is evident that, in many portions of our country, individual liberty does not exist. Of the numerous illustrations that might be given to prove the truth of this statement, none is more striking than the recent riots and bloodshed in Wilmington, N. C. A few days ago there was a bloody riot in its streets, and the office of a colored newspaper was wrecked and set on fire. According to the Associated Press dispatches, the offence of the proprietors of that paper was their refusal to comply with the demands of a committee of business men who notified them to suspend publication by a certain fixed time. The result was a riot and reign of terror, until cooler counsels prevailed and the semblance of order was restored. The following night a big lynching party was proposed to kill six negroes in jail, but, a new Mayor having been appointed who possessed some backbone, this scheme was nipped in the bud, and a fresh crime against freedom and the rights of humanity prevented by deporting the negro prisoners and some other characters, white and black, said to be dangerous.

Are the people of the United States prepared to tolerate for ever the pernicious actions of law-breakers, composed of the "best elements of society," who slaughter, without fear of punishment, their fellow-creatures, suppress the right of free speech and press, set fire to the homes of obnoxious colored officials, endanger the lives of innocent families, and trample under foot the laws and Constitution of their country?

We Americans have no right to call ourselves enlightened and civilized so long as we permit such outrages to occur. Even Mexico can deal effectively with lynchers, no matter from what rank of society they spring. The energetic Government of that country meted swift justice upon some miscreants who attempted to lynch the would-be assassins of President Porfirio Diaz, and, if the writer's memory is not at fault, executed some of them. What a magnificent illustration her rulers gave that they were determined, at all costs, to secure to criminals guilty of high treason the sacred guarantees of justice. F. M. NOA.

GENEVA, N. Y., November 12, 1898.

"THE SENTIMENT OF EXPANSION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. T. M. Carver, in the *Nation* of October 24, ascribes, I think, too much exercise of reason to the people of this country in support of the sentiment of expansion. I believe that 90 per cent. of those who favor expansion have never reasoned about the matter at all, but have merely adopted the *sentiment* put into their minds and mouths by the political leaders. The small percentage of expansion advocates who have "reasoned" on the subject, have done so only to find "reasons" by which to support the *sentiment*, already adopted as a convenient weapon to use in party politics.

The so-called political convictions of the masses of the people in this country consist simply and wholly of sentiment, engendered by the "watch cries" raised by the leaders. The political leaders are constantly on the lookout for some new and taking "watch cry" by which the sentiment of the unreasoning can be most easily fanned into flame, and so gain "popularity" for the measure advocated. The object of which is—the good of the country? No—the good of the leaders and those who support them most zealously. If time enough is given, however, before mischief is done, the sentiment may wear out, and a new one take its place, when reason may have a chance to dispose of the question.

This may appear to be a too narrow view of present-day American politics; but a somewhat attentive study of the subject, by one who has never entertained any political aspirations himself, leaves that as an apparently well-grounded impression. The remedy? Civil-service reform, that will deprive the political "hustler" of his motive for "hustling." T. G. DABNEY.

MISSISSIPPI, November 7, 1898.

AN EXAMPLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is proper that in your columns there should be reference to the death of one whose life has been a practical illustration of devotion to the public welfare and civil morality, along the lines of those principles which find so strong an advocate in the *Nation*.

Julius Dexter, a graduate of Harvard in 1860, whose university education was well supplemented by travel and the study and observation of a keen, active mind; Presirent of the Trustees of the Sinking Fund, and a trustee and director in many institutions devoted to the public welfare; recently a candidate for Governor of this State on the Gold Democratic ticket, died in this city on October 21 last. He was admitted to the bar in the sixties, but, having inherited an adequate fortune, for the last thirty years or more of his life devoted himself to the service of the public and of others, entirely without compensation, and often at posts requiring great sacrifices of time and strength, tact in the management of others, and patience through adverse criticism. For nineteen years he served as one of the Sinking Fund Trustees who are charged with the care of the city credit and its debt, and with the duty of repressing tendency to extravagance, and acting as a sort of balance-wheel in the machinery of municipal government.

Of the numerous tributes to his memory (and these tributes came from many of our boards, the Chamber of Commerce, and newspapers of different parties), none has impressed me more than this from the sermon of a minister of a church with which Mr. Dexter had no connection:

"Generally, then, he was with the political minority, for conscience' sake, and led many a forlorn hope. But, because of his upright spirit, his impenetrability to all appeals to low political motives, his readiness to serve causes which had little attraction to the masses of voters, but were of genuine and much-needed importance, it happened, as will generally be the case, that those who seldom acted with him upon public questions felt that he was one to be profoundly respected in his judgments, and thus he came to be a beacon of independence, courage, and disinterested patriotism."

One municipal board referred to him as "a noble man who sacrificed private interest to the public welfare, a cultivated and courtly gentleman, true and devoted to his friends and generous to his foes." Another, after reciting his faithfulness in the discharge of often unwelcome duties and referring to the implicit confidence of the city in him, and the important interests confided to him, asks, "Whence comes such another?"

The expressions of affection for the man, and sorrow for the loss caused by his death, coming as some of them do from unexpected sources, speak encouragement to other men of talent and courage to do likewise, and cannot be without potent result. T. M. H.

CINCINNATI, November 7, 1898.

Notes.

A memorial of the late John M. Forbes of Boston has been undertaken by his daughter, Mrs. Sarah Forbes Hughes, who desires the loan of any of his letters which may assist her in editing his voluminous Reminis-

cences. Mrs. Hughes's address is Milton, Mass.

'Cannon and Camera,' by J. C. Hemment, is the author-photographer's account of camp life and Cuban campaigning in the late war, to be published shortly by D. Appleton & Co.

Gen. Enrico della Rocca's 'Autobiography of a Veteran,' translated by Mrs. Janet Ross, will appear in a few weeks from the press of Macmillan Co.

Dodd, Mead & Co. announce that they will publish immediately in this country Mr. G. W. Steevens's 'With Kitchener to Khartum.'

Hadley & Matthews, New York, have purchased the American rights of 'Emin Pasha: His Life and Work.' They will also publish the Century edition of the 'Lyrical Ballads' of Wordsworth and Coleridge edited by Thomas Hutchinson.

'Mr. Dooley: In Peace and in War,' Chicago humor, is in the press of Small, Maynard & Co., Boston.

The forthcoming 'Twentieth Century New Testament' is an entirely new version of the Greek of Westcott & Hort's text by a company of scholars of various denominations, who remain anonymous. Mr. W. T. Stead has undertaken to publish "the first tentative edition" at his own risk. The Gospels and Acts of the Apostles are nearly ready to see the light.

Mr. William Blaikie's new edition of his 'How to Get Strong, and How to Stay So' (Harpers) is in a way a challenge to our end of the century. After twenty years, he promulgates afresh his gospel of the sound body with literally a single word of reference to the bicycle, and with only a page of extracts in praise of golf. This conservatism is naturally most marked in the chapter on exercise for women, whose lives have been revolutionized by the two recreations just named. Still, whether for want of means or of opportunity, to many persons a prescription of golf or of the wheel is a counsel of perfection, and Mr. Blaikie is justifiably loyal to the exercise of walking (laying great stress on carriage) and to home gymnastics specifically applied. In these respects his book remains stimulating and offers a real guidance, his earnestness finding vent in colloquial italics and in such rhetorical overwork of the semicolon as is seldom witnessed. The lively volume has been doubled in size by an addendum on "Great Men's Bodies," a series of emphatic biographies accompanied by numerous portraits. Mr. Blaikie even begins his first chapter with the introduction of Nathan Hale in the unwonted light of an athlete of his day, and shows him in Macmonnies's statue in the frontispiece.

John Harrison Mills, No. 18 East Twenty-third Street, has conceived "a monthly report of exhibitions and sales, and compend of art events," styled the *Art Kalendarium*. While the first number, for November, seems to be feeling its way, the magazine is likely to prove a convenience. It is not confined to this city. There is a department of art news apart from the account of schools, clubs, exhibitions, prizes, etc.

The portrait of Admiral Dewey thirty years ago will attract attention in the *New England Magazine* for November, where may also be found an illustrated historical paper on Montpelier, his birthplace. But Mr. Henry F. Bond's "Old Summer Street, Boston," carries off the palm in personal interest and in the reproductions of early views of the transformed street, and portraits of its distinguished residents, preachers, and so forth.

We have already called attention to the wholesome publicity given by the present municipal administration of Boston, in its *City Record*, to the working of the machinery in which every citizen should take a deep and constant interest. We have now before us the first two Special Publications of Boston's unique "Department of Municipal Statistics," showing (1) the estimates, appropriations, and actual expenditures of ordinary revenue in 1892-1896; and (2) the ordinary revenue itself for the same period. We can only remark that the summary table in No. 1 exhibits at a glance a surplus for the Architect Department of $283.84, for the Soldiers' Relief of $96,646.31, for the Fire Department of $10,774.74, etc.; with deficits for the Sewer Division of the Street Department of $105,606.40, for the celebration of the country's 400th anniversary $17,393.21, etc. Accompanying these documents is an interesting first annual report (for nine months) of the new department. One result of its inquiries is to discover marked discrepancies in the statistics as issued for the same subject by different departments; another, that "no information exists as to areas in the city of Boston sufficiently accurate to be worth publishing." Hence, a new map is in preparation. All students of municipal housekeeping and all municipal reformers should consult these publications.

From No. 1315 Filbert Street, Philadelphia, we have the directors' first annual report of the Free Library of Economics and Political Science, founded in June, 1897, which contemplates loans of its volumes and active educational work. As yet, the collection has grown solely from gifts, but the public use of it has been noteworthy. The Library serves as an agency in ordering books, in conformity with Mr. Melvil Dewey's aspiration. It also provides lectures.

The Women's Institute, No. 15 Grosvenor Crescent, Hyde Park Corner, London, sends us a plump 'Dictionary of Employments Open to Women,' with details of wages, hours of work, and other information of a kind to help women suddenly thrown on their own resources and eager to seek support. The editors (Mrs. Philipps, Miss Marian Edwardes, Miss Janet Tuckey, and Miss E. Dixon) go beyond the record of existing employments and make valuable suggestions for experiment. The Dictionary sells at one shilling and sixpence.

The *Revue Pédagogique* sets our educational journals an example which the changes in our national policy will make it more and more incumbent upon them to follow. This excellent periodical, addressing itself more especially to the teachers in the common schools of France, publishes in its October issue an article on the industrial and commercial progress of Germany in the last twenty-five years, with the evident purpose of informing the youth of France, through their teachers, on a very important subject and to stimulate them to emulation. By means of brief statistics, derived from the works of M. Georges Blondel ('L'Essor Industriel et Commercial du Peuple Allemand,' Paris: Larose) and Mr. Edwin Williams ('Made in Germany,' London: Heinemann), the author shows the marvellous growth of German trade and industry since the foundation of the Empire, and then explains by what systematic and patient methods of training and intelligent modes of procedure in commercial enterprises, especially in distant lands, such results have become possible. It appears that, while the aggregate trade of the world has increased 24 per cent. since 1873, the increase of the foreign trade of Germany during the same period amounts to 60 per cent. The tonnage of international navigation in German ports has grown 128 per cent., the production of iron has doubled, and that of coal risen from twenty to one hundred million tons in twenty-five years. Aside from statistics and official reports, Americans recently travelling in Germany have frequently had occasion to observe the spirit of contentment prevailing in German business circles, and at times manifesting itself even in boastful comparisons with conditions in this country.

No. 25 of *Ueber Land und Meer*, easily the leading illustrated periodical of Germany, is an issue of permanent value, as it is a memorial number of the fiftieth anniversary of its publishers, the Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt of Stuttgart. It contains 120 portraits of living German writers, male and female, in the departments of fiction, belles-lettrès, and popular literature in general. Such a galaxy of literary faces is rarely found in one and the same collection, and enables the reader to form a fair estimate of the appearance of the average German littérateur. The issue in question is also of special interest in that it describes the gradual growth, from small beginnings, of an establishment having now 923 employees and a payroll of more than a million marks per annum. The Anstalt was originally established by Eduard Hallberger in 1848, and has maintained the high character, as the literary centre of South Germany, so firmly established in the early decades of the present century by the house of Cotta.

The firm of Gustav Fock, Leipzig, has purchased the philological library of the late Prof. Dr. Ribbeck, and is desirous of disposing of it *en bloc* to some institution or library. It is strong in periodical series, and numbers some 7,000 volumes. At present no catalogue will be made.

In Russia a law is in force according to which a university professor who has served twenty-five years can continue in office only if again appointed by the State authorities. The Government, which, during the past few years, has relentlessly pursued the policy of completely Russianizing the famous old German university at Dorpat, even changing the name of the place, has availed itself of this law gradually to get rid of all of the German members of the faculty and fill their places with Russians. In this way the last leading member of the once famous theological faculty at Dorpat, Dr. Volck, a recognized authority in the Semitic and Old Testament departments, was ousted. He expects to begin his university career over again by joining the Greifswald faculty as a Privatdocent.

An international conference of librarians and other scholars, attended by representatives of nearly every European state and presided over by Theodor Mommsen of Berlin, was recently held at St. Gallen, Switzerland, in order to devise means for preserving and restoring old manuscripts. The conference was first suggested by Father Ehrle of Rome, and began with an interesting account of the measures taken in the libraries of the Vatican and Leyden to prevent the gradual disintegration and irreparable loss of these rare treasures. A standing committee, consisting of Father Ehrle of

Rome, Dr. S. G. de Vries of Leyden, and Prof. Dr. Zangemeister of Heidelberg, was appointed for the purpose of consulting with librarians and chemists as to the best methods of accomplishing the desired object, and of securing the necessary appropriations from the governments especially concerned. Under the direction of this committee, photographic facsimiles of the most valuable and most perishable manuscripts will be made.

Of 151,398 recruits for the Prussian army in 1897-'98, 170, *i. e.*, 11 in 10,000, were unable to read and write. In 1879-'80 the percentage was 230 in 10,000. The number of illiterates varies greatly in different provinces. In Posen, where the population is chiefly Slavic, it is 43 in 10,000, in East Prussia 37, in West Prussia 36, in the Rhine provinces 19, in Pomerania 7, in Brandenburg 5, and in the other provinces from 1 to 2. Commendable progress has been made during the last decade in consequence of the increased extension and efficiency of elementary schools. In 1879-'80 the percentage of illiterates in Posen was 10.99 per 10,000, and during the same period it has been reduced to one-twentieth of what it was in East and West Prussia.

The Bernice Pauahi Bishop Museum of Polynesian Ethnology and Natural History at Kalihi, a suburb of Honolulu, has issued the initial number of a new serial publication entitled "Occasional Papers." It contains a report by the director, William T. Brigham, of a journey around the world undertaken to examine various ethnological collections. In connection with an account of the museums visited are descriptions and illustrations of many implements and objects of ethnological interest from the islands of the Pacific Ocean. The trustees announce their intention to issue a second series of publications to consist of "Memoirs," in quarto form. Among the subjects to be treated are Hawaiian feather work, the fauna of the Hawaiian Islands, some remarkable Hawaiian crania, and notes on Hawaiian antiquities. The trustees furthermore contemplate the establishment of a Marine Zoölogical Station at Honolulu.

'Notes on Gold Dredging, with reference to the introduction of the industry into New South Wales,' by J. B. Jaquet, has been published by the Geological Survey of New South Wales as No. 3 of the "Mineral Resources" series. It has long been known that the gravel in many river-beds in New South Wales contains considerable quantities of gold, but the difficulties of mining in the presence of large bodies of water have hitherto prevented its economical extraction. The success attending river dredging in New Zealand has suggested the adoption of this method in New South Wales. It is asserted that the industry has been brought to such a state of perfection that "ground containing only a grain or a grain and a half of gold per cubic yard" can be worked at a profit. Maps and illustrations accompany Mr. Jaquet's report.

Few are the notable characters of the day whom F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, does not catch in his net. We receive from him, almost as a matter of course, a fine imperial-panel photograph of the late Col. Waring which will serve for his remembrance when the present rulers of Greater New York are forgotten.

—A notable book on fine art from across the water is the new volume on Thomas Gainsborough (Scribners). The writer is Walter Armstrong, Director of the National Gallery of Ireland, and author of several monographs of value. Gainsborough and his work are a specialty of his, and he has already published a treatise on them, which fills one of the volumes forming the present series of the *Portfolio*. The treatise now under consideration is longer—twice as long, perhaps—and is printed and set forth in the stateliest fashion on folio pages, fifteen inches high: this to accommodate the large plates, but he who thinks he has to do with merely a decorative book will find something very different—that is to say, a sound and thorough discussion of interesting art-problems. The brief history of English pictorial art which is contained in the first and ninth chapters, connected as these are by the general thought which runs through the chapters devoted especially to Gainsborough, is worthy of most careful study. The illustrations are thirty-six photogravures on separate leaves, about as many in the text, and ten lithographs in facsimile of drawings; also one of the celebrated letter from Gainsborough to the hanging committee of the Royal Academy, written in 1783. The reproductions are of great beauty (those of the portraits having an especial charm), so that there are few monochromatic pictures finer than the Mrs. Siddons, the David Garrick, the Admiral Hawkins, the "Morning Walk" (Squire Hallett and his Wife), or the "Blue Boy." Concerning this last-named picture, the fine canvas of the same name, owned in New York, is here described as, "(?) An excellent copy, by Hoppner, of the Grosvenor House picture, 7½ by 50½"—these last being not exactly the dimensions given to the picture in London. This man, John Hoppner, was a much admired portrait-painter of the time, and in his hand the famous Gainsborough picture remained for some years: the copying of his great contemporary's work having evidently been a labor of love. Besides the description, which we have reprinted from the alphabetical catalogue of portraits at the close of the volume, the case is stated at length on page 124.

—Fourteen years ago *Mélusine* published the result of some researches concerning the origin and variant forms of the sailors' song "La Courte Paille," familiar to the French in many versions, and well known to English eyes and ears in Thackeray's "Little Billee." In this magazine's summer number of this year (July-August) a good deal of additional information on the subject is given, including a collation of twenty-five versions—most of them of the French *d'oïl*, some of the *d'oc*, and two Catalan—together with an instructive article by M. George Doncieux. The song evidently originated in the littoral of the Northwest; thence it passed to the coasts of Gascony and of Provence, changing its form from dialects of *d'oïl* to dialects of *d'oc*, and last of all Provençal versions appeared in Catalonia. It even went beyond the Gallo-Roman domain, as is shown by an Armorican version, in which its cheerful and humorous note is lost in Celtic gloom. There is, besides, a Portuguese romance in which the French song reappears, strangely metamorphosed into a fantastic and infernal shape. M. Doncieux mentions also a Greek version, which appeared in the *Academy* of July 19, 1884; but this was merely one of those mystifications of the learned with which Grecians, as other scholars, sometimes beguile their leisure. There is a curious parallelism between the various French versions of the "Courte Paille" and a Scandinavian ballad, known by two Icelandic versions of the sixteenth century, a Danish version of the seventeenth, and a contemporary Norwegian one. In both, the ground lines of the theme are the same—a ship that does not reach land, exhaustion of provisions, and a victim chosen by lot to satisfy the hunger of the crew; but in all else the treatment and turn of events differ so much as to indicate that the origins of the two types lie very far apart. M. Doncieux, who asserts that the prototype of the French versions cannot be assigned to an earlier date than late in the seventeenth century, attributes a much greater age to the Scandinavian form, which he regards as primitive. In the critical text now given by *Mélusine*, the first line is the one which is commonest in the versions:

"Il était un petit navire."

In "Little Billee," Thackeray followed very closely what may perhaps have been a more modern and popular form:

"C'est de trois mariniers d'Espagne
Qui d'une ville ont pris congé,"

and keeps this version within sight throughout his song. This variant, of which M. Doncieux does not speak, may be found in 'Les Chansonniers Français,' published as No. 74 in the "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Populaire." "Little Billee" itself, so far as appears, is quite unknown across the Channel.

—The German-Asiatic Society is a creditable institution from which have proceeded many learned papers on the subjects connected with China and Japan. At its last meeting in Yokohama, September 6, Mr. K. T. Stoepel, a special student of political science, read a paper on the new German possessions in China, Kiao-Chau, based on a residence of two months there, studying the country and compiling from the writings of the best Chinese scholars literary data concerning the place. He expects this station will be "only the beginning of a large series." In 1870 Bismarck had intended to take possession of Kiao-Chau, but the Franco-German war prevented. In 1892 Li Hung Chang received permission to fortify the port, but the war with Japan thwarted his plans. The entrance to the bay is nearly two miles wide, and there are twenty fathoms of water, but on account of the strong northeast monsoons, especially during the winter, breakwaters, which will cost over one hundred million marks, will be necessary toward the north and west. The Chinese population of the territory is estimated at sixty thousand, and of the province of Shantang, under quasi-German influence, thirty millions. Instead of the two thousand troops at present garrisoning the place, who must needs be changed every few months, Mr. Stoepel proposes a voluntary troop of soldiers who would remain stationed there a long time. The five million marks voted by the Reichstag must be spent mostly for transport and military expenses, and will not go far towards building the necessary stone barracks and hospitals. "The German race differs from our Anglo-Saxon cousins in that, with the English, business and patriotism go hand in hand, while with us business comes before patriotism." The German and British interests in China he considers to be identical. Coal is cheap and near at hand, but a railway will be necessary, and the engineer-

ing difficulties will not be great. The growing of wine has been very successfully begun.

—Do the Chinese constitute a nation, or are they only a race? A Japanese traveller and writer in the last issue of the *Hansei Zasshi* makes analysis of the people in China proper, or the eighteen provinces. He declares that the people of North China are the most sluggish in their thoughts, are more opposed to progress and enlightenment, and are not likely to produce any great and powerful leader who will participate in reform "and in the probable revolution to come." He considers that love and devotion to country are practically unknown in the regions nearest to Peking. This affords a curious Chinese illustration of the old proverb, "The nearest to the church the farthest from grace." Even the wise men in Peking come from various, and for the most part distant, provinces. He finds the cause of this lack of patriotism in the ignorance and poverty of the mass of the inhabitants. In South China he discerns a greater spirit of progress, more courage and hope, with a better acquaintance with the great world at large; but these provinces lack men who have the intelligence, capacity, or learning necessary for the leaders which China to-day so sorely needs. It is in Central China that Mr. Narahara finds abundance of natural resources, convenience of communications, and a quality of mind which promises the production, in time of need, of leaders of "the coming revolution." Historically, he declares that these central provinces have produced a larger number of wise and active men than all the rest of the Chinese Empire. Indeed, Central China, including the neighboring provinces of the Yang-Tse or Great River, has been and still is the real centre of Chinese civilization. Even the contemporaneous men of force in the southern provinces are mostly immigrants from Central China. He regards the Chinese, in general, as the most indifferent people in the world in regard to political affairs. There are two great classes of the population of which little can be expected—the highest, in which is prevalent "the poisonous anti-foreign spirit and conservative thought," and the lower class, who form all but a small fraction of humanity in China, wherein are visible only poverty, indifference, and the struggle for life. The sole hope is in a class which, relatively, has as yet scarcely any existence, though showing power. This small and hopeful remnant includes the reading public and the thinking men who interest themselves in foreign affairs. Dark as is the outlook, "the first guiding fire of the Chinese revolution will surely break out from this middle class."

GRISWOLD AND HIS TIMES.

Passages from the Correspondence and Other Papers of Rufus W. Griswold. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold. 1898.

The one distinguishing tribute paid to Rufus Wilmot Griswold, one that establishes his characteristic excellence, was his selection by Poe to be the literary executor of that unhappy genius. Poe was a good judge of editorial capacity; and, notwithstanding a history of personal relations that would seem to exclude the possibility of such a choice, Poe showed great sense in regard to his own interests when he engaged the best-known and best-equipped American editor to collect and publish his works. He thus secured, under favorable conditions, a form of publication which he had always failed in accomplishing himself. Griswold was in his day an important person in American literary life. His connection with Poe was incidental. To himself and others he was first of all the one man who had attempted to show the poetic accomplishment of our country in its first half-century, for the honor and encouragement of our literature, and had succeeded in the task, difficult and in many ways ungrateful, of a proper selection and just arrangement of the material. This work constitutes his real claim to thankful remembrance; it is, and for students of American literature it must remain, a landmark volume, which for their purposes cannot be displaced. Whatever its demerits of substance may be, they faithfully reflect the time's qualities, and the editorial part is unexceptionable. Griswold was a born compiler, as Greeley saw from the start when he was employing him in the scissors work of journalism: "He [Raymond] has no judgment with regard to selections. There you are unrivalled"; and again, "In literary cooperism you were boss, decidedly." And in his book-work Griswold was putting to use the same ability that he had exercised in newspaper offices. The sort of labor involved and the kind of success he achieved are fairly stated in his own words:

"There had been published in this country about five hundred volumes of rhythmical compositions of various kinds and degrees of merit, nearly all of which I read with more or less attention. From the mass I chose about one-fifth, as containing writings not unworthy of notice in such an examination of this part of our literature as I proposed to make. I have been censured, perhaps justly, for the wide range of my selections. But I did not consider all the contents of the volume poetry. I aimed merely to show what had been accomplished toward a poetical literature by our writers in verse before the close of the first half century of our national existence. With much of the first order of excellence, more was accepted that was comparatively poor. But I believe nothing was admitted inferior to passages in the most celebrated foreign works of like character. I have also been condemned for omissions. But on this score I have no regrets. I can think of no name not included in the first edition which I would now admit without better credentials than were before me when that edition was printed."

His pride was well justified; and what is here said of the first of the several compilations he made applies equally to the remainder.

Apart from the merit of his work, his position as the Rhadamanthus of contemporary poetic ambitions, then perhaps more numerous even than now, made him the centre of much correspondence, and resulted in his papers becoming the repository of an unusual amount of literary information about books and their authors, biographical data at first hand, and other matters of transitory nature, such that this selection from them by his son is well described in the prefatory note as the "small-talk of authors and journalists of fifty years ago." The editor goes on to say that "the literary history of the time is neither respected by scholars nor favored by fashion," but he hopes that if the period should ever be thought deserving of more careful study, these documents may prove of value. The volume thus makes no present-day claim for itself; and yet it contains a more vivid and more intimate view of the atmosphere and state of literature in the early manhood of our more important writers, as they proved to be, than is elsewhere to be obtained.

It is true that the world of letters depicted seems to have little to do with Longfellow, Lowell, and Hawthorne; it is the more populous world of the "Literati," the little New Englanders, the little Knickerbockers, and others of the gnomes and elves of Parnassus, if such small people have any abiding-place in the crevices and on the swards of that mystic place. It is the world of the magazines and journals and their brief and flimsy reputations, of coteries and circles in the city and visitants from the Southwest and the Illinois prairies—the world which seems now more malicious and now more humorous, but which was the environment, in taste, feeling, and culture, of the pursuit of letters here for a generation. The talk is "small-talk"; and the names of the speakers come like faint echoes of a "ruined Paradise." A Paradise, in some sort, it must have seemed to themselves. Here is a peep into it, on July 10, 1842:

"I have been to New York for a few days, and saw all the people—breakfasted with Willis, smoked with Halleck, took tea with Keese, dined with Maria 'del Occidente,' chatted with Hoffman, Balmanno, Mrs. Embury, Seba Smith, Miss Thayer (an old Boston friend of yours, who is one of the greatest of living characters), etc. Touching Maria Brooks—she is a wonderful woman—I have never seen her compeer. She talked as volubly as any woman, but not as women talk; but what I have to say of her must be addressed to Whipple, concerning whom, and Macaulay, we held appreciative converse. You have seen, I doubt not, the new arrangements for the magazine. I had little to do with the July No., as it was nearly all printed before I came hither; but the August is better, and the September will be better still. Cooper, Bryant, Longfellow, all the while! besides Fields and Tuckerman!—of course you will send me something in time for it. Speaking of Longfellow—the MS. of his 'Spanish Student' I shall have bound in green and gold—would you not like to have it? Such autographs are not to be picked up every day."

Thus Griswold to Fields. More remote still—more redolent of the Elysian poppy in the burying-meadows of time—is this advice of Hoffman, December 28, 1844, which may be profitable for counsel to compilers of our distinguished American prose even now:

"I certainly would balance the florid style of Bancroft with the directness of Sparks—nor would your book be complete without quotations from Gouverneur Morris, whom the men of his day thought a master of elegant writing. In making my selections, I would choose the passages which are most characteristic of the writer (which in some instances are not the best that might be culled). Timothy Flint's description of Red River, for instance, in his 'Francis Berrien,' is happily the most Flintish as well as the finest passage you could quote from him. Irving's Bracebridge Hall has a passage which is the very tip-toppery of his elegance. In Frisbie's review of Bryon there is a passage of rare musical cadence. In Gouverneur Morris you will find a blending of the epigrammatic style of Junius with much of the polished facility of the old French memoirs—and in John Randolph you have more than the biting sarcasm of Wilkes."

On the next page there is a grave-to-grave poll of the candidates, from the pen of a Cambridge divine. We rub our eyes as if we had reversed the legend of Sleepy Hollow and waked in a world of "lang syne" as unfamiliar, and as disproportioned to our recollection, as Rip Van Winkle's.

But, after all, though humorous surprise

will intrude upon the reader, there is a great deal of reality in this literary past. The sight of Longfellow reading the works of John Neal "straight through" is almost educative in the actuality it gives to boredom. Whipple's remark is brief but full as to certain aspects of the matter: "I have no patience with the New York literati. They are all the time quarrelling with each other. Why not kiss and be friends? You have a precious lot of feuds on your own hands. 'A plague on both your houses, say I.'" Boston is sketched out a bit by Fields, who contributes to the volume two familiar epistles in verse to "Rufe," as the great editor is companionably called (or "Gris") throughout by his friends; but no quotation could do sufficient injustice to them—they must be read in order to be properly damned. The whole volume, it must be understood, though thoroughly edited, is piecemeal in character; and it is only by an extract here and there that one can indicate rapidly that vivid and intimate quality which has been already mentioned as characterizing it and giving it salt.

The most interesting person who appears in it is Horace Greeley, whose letters are numerous and such as no other could indite. They are rapid notes, business notes, familiar in the extreme, and all strongly marked with the hard good sense, the activity, the homely directness, the excellent intellectual interests and friendly serviceableness of the restless and various writer. His desire to issue an edition of Praed, and his comments on the poet, ("I will get it published somewhere if I have to run in debt for it"), and still more his interest in Shelley's poems ("There is not a copy of them to be had here [New York: 1845], and I presume, not in the country. You know they ought to be published"), are curious memoranda of his tastes. In the business of public notices he was sadly unscrupulous: "Get a right notice in the *Ledger*, if you can. Swain would like to do me a kindness. But pay for it rather than not get a good one." The advice was proof of the mercenary custom of criticism then, as is plain from many a line elsewhere, as where Epes Sargent sends his "little book" with this request: "Please keep the authorship a secret, and if you can get the accompanying notices published, one in the *North American* and the other in the *Evening Journal* without betraying it, do so. I shall be much obliged, and will cheerfully reciprocate the favor at any time." Greeley's characterizations are the shrewdest in the volume, often only hints, but effective, and to Griswold himself he sometimes uses a tell-tale frankness: "Now write me a few racy, spicy—not personal, far less malignant [letters] depicting society and life in Philadelphia. *Soon*, mind. . . . About half a column in length, spirited and lively, but not spiteful. Satirize Society and customs if you must, but don't touch individuals." Again, "The only principle I ever found you tenacious of is that of having your pay at least as fast as you earn it." There are several other unfavorable *obiter dicta* from different persons with regard to Griswold, who certainly had unamiable traits and grave defects, concerning which the best statement is Leland's: "He was to his death so uniformly a friend to me and so untiring in his efforts to aid me, that I cannot find words to express his kindness nor the gratitude I feel. . . . To the end of his life I was always with him a privileged character, and could take, if I chose, the most extraordinary liberties, though he was one of the most irritable and vindictive men I ever met if he fancied he was in any way too familiarly treated." Yet though Griswold's personality is thus fully suggested, it cannot be said that he is particularly noticeable for imperfection in comparison with the crowd upon the page.

It would be an interminable task were one to try to survey that crowd in detail. Strange and wonderful persons abound in it, intellects *manqué* and morals very much in the same deplorable state. Chivers is easily the first—no doubt an excellent man, but in verse the idiot form of Poe:

> "Many mellow Cydonian suckets,
> Sweet apples, anthosmial, divine,
> From the ruby-rimmed beryline buckets
> Star-gemmed, lily-shaped, hyaline;
> Like the sweet golden goblet found growing
> On the wild emerald cucumber-tree,
> Rich, brilliant, like chrysoprase glowing,
> Was my beautiful Rosalie Lee."

No wonder that Poe abandoned him as a friend. Here, too, are the unlaid ghosts of H. W. Herbert and G. G. Foster, to the latter of whom Greeley and Griswold were truly friends at need; and among the female literati, Mrs. E. Oakes Smith, whose life was a remarkable one, and of course the Ellets and Osgoods, the Carys, and many more. Of several of these, detailed biographies are given, and they are from authentic sources. The tribute of John Esten Cooke to his brother Philip Pendleton, dated 1851, is charming, and George William Curtis's account of himself, ending *"Voilà tout!* and Shelley died when he was no older than I am," is interesting; so is John Neal's similar communication. In the way of curious literature, those who remember Poe's "Valentine" to Mrs. Osgood in which he wove her name into the verse, will read the similar effusion she addressed to Griswold with a touch of surprise. It is an illustrative document in regard to the literary group. The italics show the inserted names.

> "*F*or one, whose being is to mine a sta*r*,
> Tr*e*mbling I weave in lines of love and *f*un
> Wh*a*t Fame before has echoed near and *f*ar.
> A so*n*net if you like,—I'll give yo*u* one
> To be *c r o s s*-questioned ere it's truth is solv'd.
> Here veiled and hidden in a rhyming *w*reath
> A name *i*s turned with mine in cunnin*g* sheath,
> And unless by some marvel rare evolved,
> Forever folded from all idler eyes,
> Silent and secret still it treasured lies,
> Whilst mine *g*oes winding onward, as a rill
> Thro' a deep wood in unseen joyance dances,
> Calling in melody's bewildering thrill
> Whilst thro' *d*im leaves its partner *d*reams and glances."

Mrs. Osgood's letter showing her real relations with Poe will also be found in the volume. But to draw to an end in this maze of extraordinary and minute matter, enough has been shown of the contents of the volume to impress any student of the times on their literary or social side with its rare documentary value.

At the end two things stand out. The first is the mean literary poverty of the time, its atmosphere of impecuniosity, of little pay for the best work, of a log-rolling and subsidized criticism and feeble product; its environment of gossip and scandal, its deficient morality, its undeniable vulgarity, its Grub-Street and Dunciad populace with the disadvantages of a large female immigration into these purlieus; and the second is the character and position of Griswold as a prince among his peers; but what a princedom and what a peerage! The impression the book makes, it must be candidly confessed, is degrading to our American pride. If oblivion could have been the lot of such literary mortality as is here disclosed, it would have been nothing to be sorry for in our judgment; but the hope for oblivion is now as hopeless as the hope of old-fashioned fame, and we must accept a literary ancestry exposed to the full light that now beats upon the mob as hotly as once upon the throne. Of the editor's work (except constructively) it is impossible to speak too highly. He has done it thoroughly, frankly, and with impenetrable justice; and he deserves the credit of giving to us the most important, lasting, and illuminating work, outside of the biographies of our greater authors, upon the literary annals of the nation in its days of nonage.

THE STANDARD OF LIFE.

The Standard of Life, and Other Studies. By Mrs. Bernard Bosanquet, author of 'Rich and Poor.' The Macmillan Company. 1898.

Mr. Bernard Bosanquet, who is (a third with Henry Jones and D. G. Ritchie) one of the most distinguished of the later English Hegelians, is not yoked unequally with a woman of less notable ability than his own, though what she has in common with her husband is much less an aptitude for metaphysics than a sincere interest in social questions, and a talent for the discussion of them with great philosophical acumen, qualified at every point by "saving common sense." Her 'Rich and Poor,' published two years ago, afforded ample evidence of her intelligent appreciation of the matters of which she proposed to treat. Singularly free from all those vain imaginations which are excited by one specific or another for the universal reformation of society, her sympathies included every class, and she had much to offer in the way of sensible and humane advice on either hand. She had seen too much of the poor with her own eyes to be taken in the snare of those who think that all the bread poor people eat is salt with tears. Many of them are happier, in their own way, than those who are extremely rich.

Her second book, like 'Rich and Poor,' is a series of studies in inductive sociology. Her theories are made to fit the facts, and not the facts to fit her theories. The first study, which gives its title to the book, is a well argued and quite plausible attempt to show how influential is the Standard of Life in determining the industrial and moral well being of the individual. The doctrine of "the Living Wage" is carefully examined, and shown to be a scale that varies with many external and internal factors. In this connection there are very interesting comparisons between the cost of living now and formerly for the English laborer. The showing is encouraging, and indicates a remarkable difference in the proportion of wages spent for the bare necessaries a century ago and now. The difference in leisure, too, is very great. In five years the English working class has gained increased leisure to the amount of 41½ million hours per year. But does the increase of wages and leisure involve a higher standard of living? Not necessarily. It depends on what is bought with the wages and done with the leisure. More money and more leisure may mean more self-indulgence and more foolish waste. Nevertheless, the tendency is for the better-paid to spend less, proportion-

ately, on the lower plane. Means make wants as well as wants make means. But more and better wants are essential to a higher standard. Here Mrs. Bosanquet is in close touch with M. Demolins's contention (in his 'Anglo-Saxon Superiority') for the English love of getting as better than the proverbial French economy. But as to heightening the use of leisure, "we cannot force interests or occupations or benefits of any kind on men from without, however desirable we may think them; they must grow out of their own strivings and desires, their own planning and progress. The best we can do for each other is to remove unnecessary obstacles, and the worst—to weaken any of the motives which urge us to strive."

The danger of being one-sided in these matters is well brought out. Incidentally several of the bubbles are pricked that have been blown up very large and thin by our protectionists. For one, the demand for higher prices, as if they did not affect consumption as well as wages: the rise in the price of coal forced by the lockout in 1893 was freezing cold to many of the old women of London who had just enough to live on. For another, the idea that the high wages of America do not pay for more work done than the low wages of Europe: hence the cheap-soup fallacy—the danger of lowering the standard of living, and thereby the rate of wages. Another fallacy is that the laborer should have outside help when wages are low. Such help only encourages him to be content with a lower wage, thereby injuring others with himself. There is good matter on the education of the poor as to the kind of work in demand, and in refusing to be content with ill-made things which are not worth the money paid for them and are the sweater's opportunity.

"The Burden of Small Debts" is a less theoretical and more definitely practical essay than its forerunner. It has for its object a criticism on the notion that the assimilation of the credit system by persons of small means is a social benefit. The application of this system to the petty affairs of the laboring people is considered under the heads of Borrowing, Pawning, and Not-Paying, and the details are full of interest and instruction. In the Shoreditch County Court last year there were 12,600 suits for the recovery of petty sums; in one batch of 300 the highest sum owed was five shillings. The costermongers pay 400 per cent. annual interest upon their petty loans. Under the head of Pawning we have a most pathetic story, reaching its climax in the pawning of the Sunday clothes each Monday morning to pay the rent, and their recovery with the rent-money each Saturday night. Under the head of Not-Paying we have a woman moving herself and family and belongings five times in order to avoid the payment of 1s. a week for a sewing-machine; as soon as she is tracked, making another flitting. Mrs. Bosanquet decides that these forms of money-wasting have no real analogy to the credit system of the commercial world, and asks in conclusion; "Would the working class on the whole benefit if an act were passed making small debts irrecoverable at law?" She gives a negative answer. The judicious advance of small sums upon a basis of prospective wages in cases of misfortune is approved.

A chapter called "Klassenkampf" argues convincingly that the class differences and hatreds in England are rapidly fading out. They exist mainly between the nobility and the "residuum"; but so many of the nobility are going into business, and so many of the "residuum" are going to work, that even here the antagonism tends to disappear. Then, too, "the very wealthy are giving place to the moderately wealthy, and the very poor to the moderately comfortable." This chapter is supplemented by the next, "The Lines of Industrial Conflict," in which the contention is that they are not those of Labor and Capital, but of different classes of producers. The remedy suggested—that in every trade a system of taking out costs should be adopted and all selling prices fixed on this basis—is found to be inadequate. "A community which was completely organized on these lines would be one in which the necessaries of life would be very expensive compared with the luxuries."

We next have a chapter entitled "The Psychology of Social Progress." It contends that what we want is not an impossible unselfishness, but a self with wider interests; and the criticism offered on much of the teaching offered to the working classes today is:

"It gains its influence not by presenting them with wider issues and stronger sympathies, which would enable them to harmonize their lives with that of the community, and so to share in as well as to advance its progress, but by concentrating the attention of the class upon its narrower self, and by exciting its disintegrating emotions."

"The Education of Women" is one of the most simple and impressive treatments of this subject that we have ever seen. It sets out with a very entertaining account of the ideals of women's education that have prevailed from early times, giving to the Jewish ideal of the Book of Proverbs a generous meed of praise. Mrs. Bosanquet's demand is, "that what knowledge women do have shall be true knowledge and not mere accomplishment, and that it shall be open to them so far as they are able to avail themselves of it." She applies this principle to the industrial classes and shows how much they suffer from not practically observing it. As to whether married women should work, except as housewives, she says, No, and rejoices that the custom is decreasing. Concerning the competition of women with men she has some good observations. Next follows a plea for "The Industrial Education of Woman," elaborating a special feature of the preceding article, and contending that, to arm women against misfortune when it comes, girls should have as good industrial training as boys.

Writing of "Little Drudges and Troublesome Boys," she finds the sorest need to be that "parents should be encouraged to feel their responsibility instead of being freed from it." "An Apology for False Statements" is a chapter quite apart from the average texture of the book. The apology is that the great majority of so-called "false statements" are the expressions of an undeveloped intelligence rather than a low standard of morality. In the next chapter Mrs. Bosanquet returns to her accustomed path, and gives an account of industrial conditions a hundred years ago, based on Sir Frederick Eden's 'State of the Poor,' published in 1797. It is poor reading for pessimists, so great has been the change of most things for the better since the time when Eden's book appeared. Finally, we have "Two Thousand Years Ago: A Lesson to Social Reformers." It is a conversation between Socrates and Glaucon, the son of Ariston, very happily conceived in the manner of Plato's dialogues. The lesson is, that social reformers should study social conditions before offering proposals for recasting them from top to bottom. It is clear that Mrs. Bosanquet has taken her own medicine, and her book is one that we can heartily recommend to all who are sincerely interested in social and industrial problems.

Trimalchio's Dinner by Petronius Arbiter. Translated by Harry Thurston Peck. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898.

A fourth name may now be added to the brief list of scholars who have labored in this country on the great novel of Petronius. But the writings of Beck and Hayley, and, in a less degree, those of Crowell, are contributions to learning; Prof. Peck's little volume is intended for the general reader. The main part of it contains an English version of the famous story of the dinner party given by Trimalchio, that type of the *nouveau riche* in the early Empire. This is preceded by an introduction on prose fiction in Greece and Rome, on the novel of Petronius, and on the 'Banquet' itself. Finally, there is a good bibliography.

The introduction (which appears to be an extension of articles by the same author in 'Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities') shows thorough acquaintance with the authorities, and is the best popular account in English of the growth of the romance in antiquity. The author's apparently intimate acquaintance with modern fiction, particularly that of a certain school in France, enables him to draw very interesting parallels to the productions in the same kind by *décadent* Greeks and Romans. He has a wide knowledge of the literature of his subject, and is seldom to be caught nodding, but he is mistaken in thinking that the 'Epistles' of Alciphron, which certainly deserve all the praise he gives them, have never been translated into English. We have at hand the anonymous London version of 1791 (by two hands, T. Monro and W. Beloe). It omits *(pudoris causa)* only three of the 118 letters.

In style Prof. Peck's translation is admirable. It is lively and written in idiomatic English of to-day, without a trace of that dialect which, in the harmful unnecessary Bohn, has done so much to corrupt the youth of England and America. The art of Petronius, whereby, at least in the 'Banquet,' he suits his speech to the speaker—never suffering the language of the narrator, Eucolpius, to degenerate into the *sermo plebeius* of the other speakers—finds faithful reflection here. In rendering a work like this, especially for the general reader, the temptation is great to see slang where no slang really is; but Prof. Peck rarely yields to it. He does so unnecessarily, we think, in rendering *contemnas* by "to be sneezed at" (p. 92), and it is at least a stretch to translate *matus sum* by "I'm loaded for bear" (p. 100). The phrase *sobria, bonorum consiliorum*, is far from warranting "she's as straight as a string, in fact, a really smart woman" (p. 90). And surely Trimalchio's quotation of Virgil's *sic notus Ulixes* could never have suggested such slang as, "Do you take me for that sort of a hairpin?" (p. 94). On the other hand, *cubitum ponetis*, rendered by "you are going

to dine" (p. 74), means really something like our "crook your elbow."

Here and there Prof. Peck, accidentally as it would seem, omits to render a necessary word or phrase: as, *varia* in *pica varia* (p. 76); *in tribunal* (p. 77); *novo more* (p. 81); *iterum* (p. 84); *Ego nihil scio sed audivi* (p. 92); and the witty *manumisit aliquot* (p. 102). He slides pretty smoothly over those many rotten spots where nobody can be really sure of his standing; *super sagittarium ocłopetam* (p. 87) he dodges altogether, though we have in chap. 39 *in sagittario strabones*. To render *quemadmodum illi Cyclops pollicem poricino extorsit* by "how the Cyclops twisted his thumb after he had been turned into a pig" (p. 118) is to see a good deal more in the Latin than sober emendation will admit. And how can *qui utrasque parietes linunt* be our saying about killing two birds with one stone (p. 95), in the light of Cicero, *Fam.*, 7, 29, 2, and *Appendix Proverbiorum*, 2, 2? People like Mr. Facing-both-ways are probably meant here. But on all these points doctors still disagree. It is hard to see, however, how there can be any doubt about the meaning of such words as *paronychia*, which Prof. Peck translates "corns" (p. 80); *promulsidaria*, rendered by "objects placed before us" (p. 81); *super virginem steriliculam*, by "over the virgin a sow's paunch" (p. 87), where, if there *must* be Bowdlerizing, the whole had better have been omitted. And how can *Cæsar non pote validius quam expavit* possibly mean "Cæsar naturally supposed that it had been broken" (p. 122)? Such versions, if wilful substitutions for what Petronius says, and not downright misunderstandings of his meaning, wholly fail to give a proper idea of the original thoughts.

Of the dozen full-page illustrations the less said the better; they are neither new nor well executed. And perhaps a certain now sober-minded graduate of a college not a thousand miles from Boston will not be over-pleased when he sees, in the figure called "A Roman Youth," a very rude process cut of himself, in the scanty costume which he wore in the "Phormio" of Terence.

History of Modern Europe. By Ferdinand Schwill, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

Those who practise the art of composition will realize that 140,000 words do not, unless printed in the style of new poetry, make a large volume. On a rough computation, that seems to us the extent of Dr. Schwill's space; and as he begins his sketch of Modern Europe at the fifteenth century, he faces a difficult task. If only one could compress within such rigid limits a striking or suggestive narrative, his triumph would be great and instantaneous. But the contrast between the possibility and the likelihood of success recalls that typical fairy tale wherein a princess is the victor's prize and the gallows the reward of failure. Or, since college text-books and children's stories do not harmonize very well, it may be said that because mediocre manuals are so easily produced, the ability to prepare a good one is a mark of rare and special talent.

Dr. Schwill's treatise has the advantage (which for purposes of elementary study is considerable) of being much shorter than Prof. Lodge's book on the same theme, and, even relatively to bulk, it is not so crowded with dull detail. Still, we doubt whether it is precisely what teachers have awaited during these last ten years. Compared again with Lodge, Dr. Schwill writes the English language less correctly, and his ideas are unmarked by the distinction which his style lacks. In emphasizing the best features of this work we should select the author's choice of topics, and the large number of marginal headings which are furnished throughout the successive chapters. We have not observed in any case the inclusion of a petty or negligible subject, and, on the other hand, enough is set before the beginner to give him a clear impression of the main lines which modern progress has pursued. Essential facts are presented, and perhaps with average accuracy, but traces of reflection are wanting. Whereas the best species of manual is an organic whole, Dr. Schwill's outline suggests abridgment and compilation rather than original knowledge or independent judgment.

Our most hostile criticism is directed against a looseness of diction which apparently springs from the desire to discuss weighty matters in crisp and easy fashion. We quite admit that the average student must not be frightened by colorless and pedantic language, but, if one must choose between evils, an undue degree of formality is better than slang or the various kinds of "colloquialism." History sinks below its proper level when it disregards either clearness or propriety of idiom, and the speech of undergraduates is already so corrupted by lax expressions that they should not be further encouraged to use slipshod English by their masters.

Passing from the matter of form to that of accuracy, improvement is noticeable. Dr. Schwill makes a certain number of statements which one must term distinctly incorrect, but almost always he has checked and collated carefully. He betrays, however, a bad habit of speaking in round numbers, as if minutiæ were not worth considering. Thus, for instance, he is fond of counting by dozens: (p. 48) "Switzerland consisted in the sixteenth century of a dozen or so of cantons"; (p. 96) "Sir Francis Drake and a dozen other freebooters fell upon the Spaniards wherever they found them"; (p. 109) "Dozens of towns, especially in the northern provinces, felt suddenly encouraged to drive the Spaniards out"; (p. 139) "The Parliament of Paris (there were a dozen others in the provinces)," etc.

We insist less upon Dr. Schwill's actual slips than upon the other points which have been mentioned, since their total is creditably small in proportion to the mass of facts presented. Altogether we have noticed sixteen passages where he seems astray. We cannot tabulate them all, but cite two or three to illustrate their general character: P. 23, "the house of York, a branch of the reigning house of Lancaster," is a phrase which does not express the true genealogical connection of these two rival lines in the reign of Henry VI., nor does "simmering vaguely in his mind," p. 34, adequately define Luther's ideas on Justification in 1517. A self-contradiction appears in pp. 95 and 101. On the former page Dr. Schwill is explaining Elizabeth's attitude towards Mary Stuart in 1568. He says, among other things, "she saw . . . the King of France preparing to make an end of the Huguenots (Massacre of St. Bartholomew, 1572)." Later, p. 131, when speaking of St. Bartholomew under the head of France, he rightly deserts the position that it was designed long before. "On the spur of the moment, as it were, they [Catharine and the Guises] planned the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. This famous massacre is therefore not to be considered, as was once the custom, a carefully laid plot of the Catholic head of Europe, but rather as a bloodthirsty improvisation of a desperate band."

We have been led to expose the deficiencies of Dr. Schwill's manual by the conviction that text-books require thorough investigation, and that they should not be thoughtlessly or politely praised. Before concluding, bare justice requires that we should credit this sketch with much useful material, and with the judicious exclusion of much that might have been readily included. The maps are well executed, the type is clear, and we have not found a single misprint.

Five Years in Siam. From 1891 to 1896. By H. Warington Smyth. With maps and illustrations by the author. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898. 8vo.

In Siam, as in China and Japan, the old and the new are struggling for the mastery. The King, aided by a few enlightened men, is striving to introduce Western principles of government and methods of industry. Opposed to him is the inert mass of the people, enslaved to custom and tradition, and all whose private interests are threatened by the proposed reforms. To overcome this resistance, strenuous though passive, departments of justice, education, public works, agriculture, commerce, and mines have been created in which the native heads are aided by European advisers. Mr. Warington Smyth was appointed in 1891 a director of the department of mines, which had for its work "the regulation of mining affairs, the beginning of a geological survey, and the drafting of a code of mining regulations." A considerable part of the next five years was spent in visiting the various mining districts of the kingdom, and the present work is in substance an account of these journeys. But it is far more than a mere book of travels. The descriptions of scenery and noteworthy incidents are subordinated to accounts of the different peoples, Siamese, Laos, Shans, Burmese, and Chinese, with whom our author had to deal, their customs and characteristics; to observations on the methods of government in the different districts, the progress of the reforms and the obstacles with which they had to contend, and to accounts of the principal industries in addition to the mining of tin and gems. His unusual opportunities for seeing the people, and his keen personal interest in them, give these observations a value which cannot belong to those of the mere passing traveller.

Though Mr. Smyth had no exciting adventures or hairbreadth escapes, no thrilling encounters with tigers or dacoits, his pictures of rural Siam nevertheless offer many entertaining details. Among these are the descriptions of the small boats of the Siamese, which we commend to the attention of builders of corresponding craft in our own waters. Mr. Smyth's love for music is shown by the passages descriptive of the musical instruments of the natives and their airs, some of which latter are given in an appendix. There is much also relating to elephants and their capture, both singly and in herds. In a long account of a day's journey in the Lao hills he says:

"The march was diversified by the shrieking, wailing, and laughing of the gibbons,

whom we could watch leaping and swinging with their long arms down from the tree-tops of the ridges opposite; sometimes by the gaudily decorated caravans of pack-oxen we met, clanging their deep-toned bells harmoniously; sometimes by the quiet-eyed elephants we passed, climbing warily along the treacherous pathway; or by the singing gangs of jocose and half-shy Lao, bearing packs of cotton, tobacco, or other produce southward, and who, with their cheerful greeting, sat down to have a chat."

On another journey, "one night we camped on a bamboo flooring in the lower boughs of a tall tree. On the floor above was a Karen with his two small boys whose watch-fire had attracted us, and the upper stories were occupied by a whole colony of Great Hornbills, over fifty in number. Below, in the basement, a colony of otters lived in the bank. The Karen was sociable and liked his tree, as many do ten-storied hotels in Western cities, for the sake of the life and movement in it."

There are numerous references to the recent French encroachments on Siamese territory, a chapter being devoted to the engagement near Bangkok in 1893, which led to the cession of the left bank of the Mekong and the formation of the neutral twenty-five-kilometre zone on the right bank. Abundant evidence is furnished to show that most of the territory seized by the French has little value, commercial or political. The river is practically unnavigable, and is useless as affording an outlet for Chinese trade with Indo-China. It flows through sparsely inhabited regions, and, though one of the great rivers of the globe, it has this almost unique distinction that, "from its cradle as the Gergu River in the far Tibetan highlands to its end in the stormy China Sea, it never sees a populous city or a noble building." The activity of the French in their new possessions is indicated in characteristic ways. At places on the river bank where there were numerous shrines with images of Buddha, Mr. Smyth found numbers of paper tricolor flags stuck against the rocks by some of the French agents of the 'Syndicat du Haut Lao,' who had been this way and found no other outlet for their energy." At Korat, a Siamese town, "there were no French subjects, and there was no French trade; but a very charming consulate was being built at a cost of thirty thousand francs." Such trade as there is between Siam and the French colony is handicapped by excessive tariffs "and by the number of regulations which harass traders going in and out of French territory."

The various mines of tin and gems, rubies and sapphires, are described by Mr. Smyth minutely and with the aid of many technical terms, obscure to the ordinary reader. The general impression left is that in many places the mining industry has ceased to be profitable, partly from the exhaustion of the ore and the gem gravel, and partly from the lack of miners and the prevalence of malaria. In the case of Puket or Junk Ceylon, on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, however, mining languishes because of the corruption and inefficiency of the local government.

The last chapter, on Siam in 1896-7, is an interesting review of what has been accomplished by the reformers, in which the author says that "the advance of the last eighteen months . . . far surpasses anything that Siam's best friends had dared hope for, and may well constitute a new departure in the history of the country." The most important reform is "the recent abolition of large numbers of gambling-dens, and the resolution to supersede gambling as a source of revenue by other and more wholesome taxes," in doing which the "Government has not only cut deep at the great national vice, but has indirectly hit hard at slavery." Statistics of trade, a description of the "ken" and Lao reed instruments, and of some features common to Siamese and ancient craft, are to be found with other subjects in the appendices. There are numerous illustrations, mostly from the author's sketches, and some excellent maps.

Fourfooted Americans and their Kin. By Mabel Osgood Wright. Edited by Frank M. Chapman. Illustrated by Ernest Seton Thompson. Macmillan Co. 1898. xvi, 432 pp. 8vo.

Experience with the literary proclivities of boys and girls has led to a certain scepticism on our part in regard to the popularity among them of books in which useful information is sought to be conveyed under the sugar-coating of a story. The amount of story required to disguise the didactic intent is rarely forthcoming, and the really interesting life histories of animals in a book on natural history are frequently obscured by the attempt to follow an entirely different line of thought, involving the *dramatis personæ* of the story. Nevertheless, since publishers are so willing to undertake them, books of this sort must find an audience to which they are not absolutely distasteful. The great success of even so faulty a book as the famous Goldsmith's 'Animated Nature' tends to support our belief that the straightforward method is preferable to the indirect.

However, if the latter is preferred, it is probable that no one has succeeded better since Mayne Reid than Mrs. Wright. In the present instance the scene is fixed on a farm in about the latitude of Pennsylvania, where a naturalist and his family and some city relatives are gathered, and from whence they explore the surrounding country, winter and summer, and, in the evenings, listen to informal lectures on the native mammals, more or less punctuated with popping corn and pulling candy. For all that concerns the accuracy of matters relating to the mammals, the reputation of Mr. Chapman is a sufficient guarantee; but in the incidental attempts to exhibit a simple scheme of zoological classification, other groups of animals are referred to, not always in the clearest or happiest manner. For instance (p. 35), jelly-fishes are defined as "round masses of clear, jelly-like stuff floating in the sea," which, so far as it conveys any idea at all, is certainly unsatisfactory, as well as more or less inaccurate. "Plant-like water animals that cannot move" is surely not a phrase which conveys any clear or correct idea of sponges. That "spiders *and scorpions*" are called Arachnidæ, from Arachne, the spinner, "because they spin webs," distinctly conveys a wrong idea of the scorpions. The mammals are the real subject of the book, and the accounts and anecdotes of them and their habits contain much of interest.

The illustrations call for almost unqualified praise. Mr. Thompson has here done for our common mammals what Fuentes did earlier for the birds; and no one familiar with animals in their native haunts will fail to recognize, with pleasure and approval, the masterly way in which their traits and expression are here delineated. It is, perhaps, not too much to say that these are the best small illustrations of our mammals ever brought together in a single volume. On the whole, the book is likely to prove attractive to nature-loving boys and girls, and, we hope, profitable to its authors and publishers.

Psychology for Teachers. By C. Lloyd Morgan. With a preface by Henry W. Jameson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898. 8vo, pp. 240.

After all that has appeared to make us feel how desirable it is that all sorts of teachers should be accomplished and subtle psychologists, a train of painful reflections is started by the sight of this volume, which, though pleasant reading and in the main sound psychology, is certainly not large, is slightly old-fashioned, and does not go very deep.

The worst of the book is that it is unscientific, that its author, for example, conveys the idea that association is a curious law, mainly useful in explaining trains of reverie and the like, and seems not to have bestowed much attention upon the penultimate constituents of cognition, while he mixes up together generalization and abstraction in familiar fashion. How far this may affect the usefulness of the volume depends upon how much stronger food the overtasked brain of our teachers (it is as much more criminal to overwork teachers than railway operatives as the disasters to be dreaded from the one are more important than the loss of a few years of life, which is the most the other is likely to result in) could bear. On the other hand, there is a good deal to commend in the book. It is gratifying to find the English terminology adhered to. It is not always thoroughly understood. Thus we read: "Let us now consider what is termed *association by similarity*. Personally, I should prefer the phrase *suggestion by similarity*, or, better, still, *suggestion by resemblance*." If Mr. Morgan prefers to use "resemblance" rather than "similarity," by all means let him do so, since that is the original term for which some writers have substituted "similarity" from mere carelessness. This sort of association is related to association by contiguity as a disposition to a habit. That is, instead of being forced upon the mind by experience, it is the arrangement of ideas the mind naturally uses. It is true, there is a pre-Kantian inaccuracy in the expression association by resemblance, for the resemblance is precisely that wherein the mind represents to itself the result of the association. The phrase speaks as if resemblance were a relation between abstract ideas in themselves. But we cannot remodel all accepted language wherever it offends against Kant.

Les Etudes Classiques et la Démocratie. Par Alfred Fouillée. Paris: Armand Colin. 1898.

We have here a contribution to the discussion concerning the "modernization" of the curriculum of baccalaureate studies in the *lycées*. Holders of elementary degrees being admissible to professional study as well as eligible for various Government appointments, the older and more exclusive system finds animated defenders among those who view with dismay the possible forcing of all reasonable barriers under de-

mocratic or even proletarian pressure. Touching but cursorily on the abstract side of the question, M. Fouillée directs a sustained polemic, in a practical and patriotic spirit, against the levelling tendency ignorant of or hostile to the interests of higher culture, on the maintenance of which in its actual specific form and quality, he contends, the future of France entirely rests. In his opinion, sufficient unity in the training of youth would be preserved in a programme composed of French, Latin, history, and philosophy, while diversity of talents or taste might be allowed free range over other subjects, such as mathematics, natural and physical science, Greek, modern languages, and so forth. He refuses equally to place Greek on the same educational footing as Latin, and to admit any possibility of equivalence between the results of years of arduous training in Latin and what statistics have already declared to be the outcome of a shorter and incontestably easier modern-language course. To the last he assigns a strictly utilitarian function in the preparation of youths for agriculture, commerce, and colonial life; but since, as Balzac says, "quitter la France est, pour un Français, une situation funèbre," and since the advocates of "moderns" clamor for equal rights, the sole effect of the change will be the further overcrowding of professions and Government vacancies with candidates of inferior capacity and equipment. Philosophy, which has suffered severely under new regulations, would be restored by M. Fouillée to its old place, with the view of fostering the intellectual spirit and traditions to which France owes the continuity of her literary culture and her permanent rôle of enlightener of nations.

Neither the arguments nor the methods of scholarly conservatism in this volume will appear new to its readers. Professors the world over are apt to show anxiety when their own cherished studies are threatened with diminution of importance. But in this particular instance the opponents of M. Fouillée will find no small difficulty in attacking a case so admirably presented, so rigorously confined to the needs of the hour. Although deduced primarily from *à priori* considerations here and there open to question, the main contentions in this book are supported throughout with facts and official statistics not too numerous to be easily verified or disputed; and, according to their showing, the revision of the curriculum has already worked out in the manner predicted. Should the studies so seriously affected by these changes regain in process of time the ground they seem to have lost, much will doubtless be due to their vigorous defence by the veteran champion of ideal culture.

Italy and the Italians. By George B. Taylor, D.D. With Map and Illustrations. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. 1898.

This is a book not altogether pleasant for a literary critic to discuss. The author is an estimable, useful, and lovable man, who is doing faithful work as a Baptist missionary in Italy; and of such men we must, and of their writings we would fain, speak in commendation only; but of this work we cannot do so in good conscience. It consists of several loosely connected papers closely resembling those evening lectures which rural clergymen are wont to deliver before their parish societies after a vacation spent in Europe. The first two are on "the making of Italy," and the author has not put his best foot foremost in giving them that place; for they show in him an utter incapacity for historical writing. The style is careless; there is no continuity in the story, no proportion in the attention paid to the several periods discussed, no sense of the relative value of facts; and, worst of all, these papers are often misleading, especially for a public needing to be told, for example, the names and nature of the works of Dante, from among which, by the way, the 'Vita Nuova' is omitted.

We cannot better illustrate what we have just said than by quoting the essential parts of a passage from the first paper. The italics are ours:

"Glorious were the free cities of Italy; but *as their power waned* they were without defence against the spoiler. . . . Italy's beauty was a source of danger. . . . It was no wonder that Napoleon Bonaparte *coveted her and that she became his easy prey. When Napoleon fell, Austria succeeded to his supremacy in Italy. . . . Venice and Lombardy now became a part of the Austrian Empire*, etc."

One seldom meets with anything more inaccurate than all this. The defenceless condition of Italy was due not so much to the waning power of her free cities, as to the fact that, while they remained divided and often hostile among themselves, their neighbors, France, the German Empire, and Spain, had been consolidated into comparatively homogeneous and formidable powers. It was not Napoleon Bonaparte who coveted and invaded Italy in 1796, but an army of the Directory, of which he was merely the General. How "easy" his task was may be judged from the desperate battles which made him so famous in that campaign; nor was it the Italians, but the Austrians, against whom he had to contend. What unhistorical reader would not suppose that Austria's first period of dominion in Italy was when she succeeded to Napoleon's supremacy there? As to Venice and Lombardy, Venice was handed over to Austria's tender mercies by the treaty of Campo Formio, October 17, 1797, nearly twenty years before Napoleon's fall, while Milan and Lombardy had been continuously an Austrian possession since the peace of Rastadt, in 1714. After all this, when the author alludes to Filicaja's famous line, "Deh ! fossi tu men bella, o almen più forte," and adds that in Napoleon's day, "and for half a century after," Italy "might well wish to be less lovely or more strong," an ill-disposed reviewer might affect to believe that he shared the error of King Murat, who took Filicaja to be a contemporary, and was for having him shot for calling the French "Gallici armenti," "that Gallic herd." Not so we. Dr. Taylor certainly knew better; and we only refer to the passage as an illustration of his loose style of writing.

The period between 1834 and 1871 is better treated, but with the same want of method and the same absence of all regard for what the artists call "values." Gioberti, for example, is not even mentioned, great as was his influence and that of his books as a factor in preparing the Italian revolution of 1848, while we are treated to an anecdote about a certain Florentine baker, Beppo Dolfi (p. 45), "whom ten thousand men would follow to the death" (but did not), and who, after lending efficient help to Ricasoli in keeping order in Tuscany, refused a decoration from Victor Emmanuel, saying, "It is honor enough for me to bake good bread for the people of Florence"—a good, worthy man; but the author adds, "Ancient Rome in its palmiest days may equal, but cannot surpass this!" Alas, poor Cincinnatus! poor Fabricius! It is evident that, in writing these chapters, as indeed throughout the book, the author used such materials as he had happened to collect, without regard to their intrinsic value. We could multiply examples, were not those given already *satis superque*.

A paper of some interest on the Italian dynasty and Constitution is followed by the account of a tour through Italy, and a chapter on Rome. Here we find again the same careless writing. The author speaks (p. 115) of the Galleria Vittorio Emanuele in Milan as "the Gallery of Victor Emmanuel," which is just like calling Cortlandt Street "the street of Cortlandt"; he speaks (p. 116) of "manuscripts *and* palimpsests," as if palimpsests were not manuscripts, and he speaks of the "*legend*," "Lingua Toscana in bocca Romana," meaning "proverb" or "saying." On p. 125 we read, "chestnut *trees*, which take the place of grain as food." There is much more of this sort of thing than we wish to note, or have space for.

Much more profitable and interesting reading are the papers which follow, on "Traits and Customs," "The Home," "The Army, Industries, Lottery, Emigration," etc. Here the author sometimes gives us the impressions of a practical man, but mixed with much that will be recognized by many readers as borrowed from the 'Ventre di Napoli' of Matilde Serao (whom Dr. Taylor calls Serrao) and from Bazin's recent book on Italy. This mixture is unfortunate, as we should often like to know upon whose authority a statement rests; but the author's borrowings are covered by a general acknowledgment in the preface. The concluding papers, on "The Strength and Weakness of Romanism" and on "The Evangelization of Italy," are less generally attractive, but, as might be expected, far sounder than anything else in the book. Dr. Taylor was personally acquainted with De Sanctis, Gavazzi, Malan, Mazzarella, and many others of the Italian apostles of Protestantism.

It would be vain to look in this book for any broad views, or anything beyond the most superficial considerations on Italian art and literature. But there is a good deal of practical sense in some of these papers; and readers who do not know Italy will be interested in many small matters which struck Dr. Taylor as they strike every newcomer. We have observed a good many errors of the press. Thus (p. 8), Pellico is said to have been confined "at Spielberg," which is a village in Bavaria, instead of "in the Spielberg," which is a fortress near Brünn, in Moravia. On p. 15 Plombières is printed Piombières; on p. 130 a statue is said to be of "historic" size, meaning, we suppose, "heroic," as the reference is to Michelangelo's David. The portrait of Queen Margherita is inscribed "Queen Margarheta," the *h* having lost its way among the other letters, both here and in the list of the illustrations. Of these, by the way, there are some fifty, many of them interesting enough, scattered through the volume, often without any sort of connection with the neighboring letterpress, and apparently intended merely to relieve the eye and the attention of the reader. For the benefit of those unfamiliar with Italian

views, it might have been better to name them, though they can be identified by their page in the list at the beginning of the book. In one case the façade of St. Mark's, Venice, is given (p. 115) in the very midst of a discussion on the façade of another cathedral, that of Milan. Much allowance should be made in such matters for an author who prints his book from a distance of three thousand miles.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Gunner Aboard the Yankee. From the Diary of Number Five of the After Port Gun. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.50.
Becke, Louis. Rodman the Boatsteerer, and Other Stories. London: Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Caird, John. University Addresses. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan $1.25.
De Forrest, J. W. A Lover's Revolt. Longmans, Green & Co.
Elson, L. C. Great Composers and their Work. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Fisher, Sydney G. The True Benjamin Franklin. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Gannon, Anna. The Song of Stradella, and Other Songs: Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Habberton, John. With the Dream-Maker. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 50c.
Ireland, Mary E. An Obstinate Maid. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25.
Jókai, Maurus. Midst the Wild Carpathians. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Knott, A. L. Relation of Some Political Transactions in Maryland, 1861-1867. Baltimore: S. B. Nelson.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. My Scrap-Book of the French Revolution. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Maclaren, Ian. Afterwards, and Other Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 24, 1898.

The Week.

The President's announcement that he is going to establish "the open-door" policy in the Philippines when he gets possession of them, raises the very question which Daniel Webster raised with much vociferousness after the Mexican war—the right of the President to legislate, *ad interim*, for conquered territories. President McKinley has established a system of indirect taxation for both Cuba and Porto Rico, but different for each, and has applied our navigation laws to Porto Rico, which is, of course, legislation of the most important kind, and declares his intention to abolish our protective system, at one stroke, in the Philippines, all without the authority of Congress. Of course no such functions as establishing systems of taxation for large extents of territory were ever dreamed of for him by the framers of the government. We believe that none of the numerous commentaries on the Constitution contain any suggestions or directions how such functions are to be exercised. No one in the Mexican discussion claimed the President's right to exercise such powers, except in the short interval which usually elapses between the surrender of an enemy and the evacuation of his territory by our troops. The plan of holding conquered territory, as conquered territory, for an indefinite period, had not been thought possible in America, but it is here now; it is actually at work. The powers of legislation which we never expected would go beyond the general order of an army in the field, are now becoming those of the President in time of peace ruling a conquered population.

There is no knowing how long our military occupation of these islands will last. It may be for years and it may be for ever. The disposition now so widespread "to leave the whole matter of subject-races in the President's hands" may take hold of Congress, and Congress may, with its usual reluctance to deal with great questions, refuse to provide a scheme of government for our conquests which will put any limits to the President's powers, and we may get used to seeing him govern arbitrarily—that is, militarily—10,000,000 or 12,000,000 of men, with no public opinion to control or supervise him. In fact, the process whereby the kind of watchfulness or suspicion by which alone republics have ever been sustained, gradually diminishes into complete indifference, has already set in, and instructors in political science in our colleges have opportunities for illustrating the destruction of democratic institutions in Greece and Italy such as professors have never had in the modern world. Modern history furnishes many examples of the destruction of popular institutions by violence, such as Cromwell's expulsion of the Long Parliament or Napoleon's Eighteenth Brumaire, but the slow dry-rot which prepares communities for the loss of liberty, merely through weariness or through drunkenness with foreign conquest, which preceded Sulla or Augustus, and which made the Roman people, high and low, ready under Tiberius, to use Tacitus's phrase, to "rush into servitude," is less easy to get hold of; its phenomena are separately so small and apparently insignificant. One such phenomenon is the production on Tuesday morning, in a newspaper edited by an officer of the Government, of the example of the Greeks and Romans as expansionists as a good one for us to follow. The rôle of "diffusers of the blessings of civilization" has evidently more attraction for many minds already than that of citizens of a free republic.

The eulogy pronounced by Gen. Woodford on President McKinley at the Chamber of Commerce dinner last week ought to be rewarded by some good office at an early date. We cannot help contrasting some parts of it, however, with Gen. Woodford's speech at Boston the other day. On November 15 he said that the President resisted the war until it was forced upon him, and then, when it could be no longer resisted, he struck a powerful and crushing blow, etc. At Boston he narrated some facts which make a queer setting to the jewels of his speech before the Chamber of Commerce. He said there that the instructions he received as Minister to Spain were to secure "justice to the suffering people of Cuba, to insist upon protection to the great American and commercial interests of the United States in Cuba, and to see these ends so long as it was possible by ways of peace, and, if possible, to avoid and avert war." He said directly to the Spanish Government that, in the judgment of the President, permanent, assured peace could come in Cuba only by the withdrawal of Spanish authority from that island. Then he gave a sketch of the successive steps taken by the Spanish Government in compliance with our wishes, including the withdrawal of Gen. Weyler and the proclamation of a system of autonomy for the island. Then he added that negotiations were progressing so favorably that it was his "deliberate belief that, had the *Maine* not been blown up in the harbor of Havana, and had not that singular and undiplomatic letter of Señor de Lome been discovered, *before the close of the summer of 1898 the Spanish flag would have left the island of Cuba without the firing of a shot or the loss of a life.*"

Now what was the necessity that forced Mr. McKinley into a war on the 23d of April? It happened that at the very same Boston dinner where Gen. Woodford let his cat out of the bag, Congressman Boutelle of Maine let out another one. He said that forty or fifty Republican members of Congress began to threaten to turn upon their own Administration if it did not go to war. They held a caucus and sent a committee to the President to tell him what to do. "I said to the President," continued Mr. Boutelle, "that I hoped he would not permit any man from Congress to hold a stop-watch upon him while he was engaged in determining when and what he would send to Congress as a message." The criticism upon the President, both then and now, is not that he is a man of bad purposes, but that he is man of no purpose. Perhaps that is what ails Gen Woodford also.

While stragglers like Secretary Gage and Seth Low are trying to "catch up with the procession" which marches to the conquest of the Philippines, the leaders execute a double-quick movement that will make the university presidents and business men "puff" if they are not to "get left." The Philadelphia *Inquirer*, chief organ of Senator Quay, while warmly endorsing Secretary Gage's change of base, says, in such type as we reproduce:

> "We even go further than the Philippines, and we declare without reservation that THE PROPER THING TO DO IS TO TAKE CUBA AS WELL."

In support of this position the *Inquirer* urges that "Cuba is not in a satisfactory condition"; that "without the aid of the United States, Cuba never can work out for herself a republican form of government"; that "even with the aid of the United States it is doubtful if she can succeed"; that "the island would be very much better off under the government of this country," as "there would be no more revolutions, and while Cuban citizens of merit could hold all the local offices under a Governor appointed by the President of the United States, thus satisfying the Cuban patriots, annexation would bring freedom and prosperity"; and that "we shall give the Cubans the same independence that we enjoy here, and we shall give them also enlightenment and prosperity."

"If we are to have an expansion poli-

cy, and it must take the form of annexation and territorial government, how can the party which has always favored protection to American labor ever again look a workingman in the face?" These words are taken from the report submitted by the officers of the Boston Home Market Club to the general meeting of the club a few days since. Millions of pauper laborers are to be introduced into this boasted land of high wages and civilized workingmen if the expansion policy is carried into effect. Does anybody think that they can be kept out of Massachusetts after they become American citizens? The Home Market Club says emphatically no. "They can come into any of the United States to engage in any of our industries, and if Gov. Tanner of Illinois commands his military to prevent them, it will be the duty of the President to overcome his forces by those of the United States," the report continues. So it will be, and how long will it be possible to maintain a government at war with its own principles and its own Constitution (as is the case in Illinois and North Carolina to-day), without falling into ruin altogether? The report of the Home Market Club ought to have a wide circulation among the labor-unions.

An Anti-Imperialist League has been started at Boston under the presidency of George S. Boutwell, whose object is to bring together the united efforts of men of repute throughout the country to resist what is commonly called imperialism, or the annexation of territory not contiguous to the United States. The League intends to carry on an active propaganda, showing

"(1.) The moral iniquity of converting a war for humanity into a war of conquest.

"(2.) The physical degeneration, the corruption of the blood, and all the evils of militarism which will ensue if the troops are to be kept in the Philippines and elsewhere longer than absolutely necessary to enable a government to be established which will protect life and property.

"(3.) The political evils and the necessity of preserving the Union upon the principles of its framers.

"(4.) The clear necessity of large increase of taxes for the support of armies and navies, with a great probability that voluntary enlistment will have to be supplemented by drafts."

A central office will be established at Washington, where names will be enrolled without liability to assessment. Andrew Carnegie has contributed $1,000 toward the expenses of the League. We heartily commend this organization, and urge those who approve of its aims to send their own names and procure others to Erving Winslow, the League's Secretary at Washington.

The Government Printing-Office has just issued a "Memorandum on the Mineral Resources of the Philippine Islands." This was prepared by Mr. G. F. Becker of the Geological Survey, who was sent out with one of the earliest expeditions to Manila. At that time, we know, for he himself has told us so, that the President had no idea of annexing the Philippines. Still it was just as well to find out if they were worth annexing. It would give a most useful nudge to Destiny to be up and doing, if she could be shown a fine line of mineral deposits in the Philippines. So Mr. Becker was sent along casually, and has now made his report. It is a cold scientific document, based on previous publications and especially on the data collected, but not published, by the Spanish Mining Bureau. About a score of the islands are known to contain valuable mineral deposits, including gold, copper, iron, coal, etc. The extent and nature of these deposits, and the possibility of profitably exploiting them, are necessarily left very much in the dark. Mr. Becker confines himself strictly to his scientific task. There is no expansion, no rainbow, no Griggsean rhetoric in his report. He is even frank enough to say of two islands, Capul and Caraballo, reported to be rich in copper and iron, that he could not find, not merely the deposits, but the very islands themselves. That does not matter; we will annex them just the same. Our appetite for islands is now so ravenous that, as Voltaire said of God, if they do not exist we must invent them.

The United States has been singularly fortunate in having at the head of affairs at Santiago officers as gifted and capable as Gen. Wood and some of his subordinates. But no military governor can hope to be successful if such miserable military organizations, or rather mobs, are sent to him as Gen. Wood has under him. It was only a short time ago that the Fifth Regular Infantry was sent to Santiago, as much to keep the American volunteers in order as to overawe the Cubans, but even their presence has not prevented an outbreak twenty miles from Santiago, in which thirty American soldiers killed five Cubans. This occurrence called forth a vigorous protest from the Santiago *Independencia*, which demanded the removal of the general commanding at the scene of the trouble on the ground that he was incompetent. It then said:

"It is contrary to all justice to send here as an army of occupation the cut-throats and murderers who, ever since they came, have acted worse than the Spaniards ever did. These men are so bad that they had been sent to a far-off town where their misdeeds have culminated in butchery and slaughter worse than even Cubans have been accustomed to."

Not even the most ardent advocate of expansion can maintain that this is the proper way to show our much-vaunted Anglo-Saxon superiority and our ability to govern subject races. And when it is considered that in a short time many Cuban towns and cities may be patrolled by our raw volunteer soldiery, and that there are few men like Wood to be called upon to stand in the breach, there can only be grave fears about the maintenance of friendly relations with the inhabitants of the war-worn island.

As the weeks pass, the situation in Illinois which grew out of the anarchistic course of Gov. Tanner becomes more and more disgraceful to the State. The Executive himself set the example of breaking the laws and nullifying the Constitution of the nation, and the ignorant masses find in the principles which he laid down abundant warrant for continuous lawlessness. The chief seat of disturbance is the mining town of Pana. The operators here succeeded in bringing in some colored miners from Alabama before Gov. Tanner had a chance to interfere and announce that he would "blow to pieces with Gatling guns" any such body of men from another State who might thereafter try to enter Illinois. These negroes have refused to leave Pana, asserting justly they have as much right there as anybody. Naturally enough, the white mob at Pana is constantly attacking these black citizens of the United States. Naturally enough, also, the State authorities do not afford the negroes effective protection. Gov. Tanner issued orders last month that thereafter "under no circumstances should any negro from another State be allowed to enter Pana," and it would be absurd to expect any sympathy for the blacks already there from the commander of the State troops stationed in the town after he had at the same time announced that, "If I lose every man under my command, no negroes shall land in Pana."

Senator Hanna was grievously misunderstood, he says, regarding the Dingley bill. He does not charge fraudulent misquotation, but magnanimously admits that "perhaps I did not make my meaning clear to my friend the reporter." What he said to his friend the reporter was that the Dingley bill was a failure as a producer of revenue. In this, like Truthful James, he stated but the fact. Indeed, the ingenuous Hanna now affirms that there is a "lack" of revenue under the original Dingley tariff, which must be supplied from "other sources." But does this imply that he does not cherish the highest admiration and reverence for the Dingley bill? Perish the thought! "I now state that I consider the Dingley bill the most scientific and best-adjusted tariff bill ever enacted." From this it appears to follow that the most scientific and best-adjusted tariff ever known is one which had at once to be patched out of recognition to save the Treasury from going bankrupt. However, we give Senator Hanna's correction the prominence it deserves. His little *erratum* is:

"For 'failure,' read 'most scientific and best adjusted.'"

It is admitted that the use of voting-machines in the city of Rochester at the recent election was a complete success. The full vote of the city was known long in advance of that of any other city in the State, and there have been no complaints about the working of the machines and no question as to their accuracy. In addition to these facts, it is shown also that there is a large saving in expense over the ordinary election system. The number of election districts was reduced more than one-fifth, making a great economy in rentals, the services of a large number of ballot clerks were dispensed with, the printing expenses were greatly cut down, making a total saving in all of over $5,000 annually. It is shown that the machines will pay for themselves in this way in six or seven years, and that from that time forward the cost of elections will be comparatively slight. Of course, the greatest advantage of the system lies in the complete inability of anybody to alter the count. Both regular voting and independent voting are recorded with absolute accuracy the moment they take place. Then, too, there can be no trace left anywhere of the way in which the voter has expressed his will, since there are no ballots to mark. There are also no defective ballots either, for an elector can vote only in such a way as to have his vote counted.

The returns of election expenditures made by candidates for various offices throughout the State suggest that our present very defective Corrupt-Practices act might well be included in the subjects for legislative reform this winter at Albany. In many instances candidates spent nearly the full amount of the salary for the term of the office for which they were running, and in one instance at least, that of Mr. Woodruff, the Lieutenant-Governor-elect, the expenditure exceeded the salary by several thousand dollars. A defeated candidate for Congress in a Buffalo district spent nearly $8,000, and a successful candidate for State Senator in the Syracuse district spent $2,147, though the salary for the full term of Senator is only $3,000. These abnormal outlays suggest the advisability of so amending the laws as to put a limit of some kind to the amount of money which a candidate may spend, as is done in the laws of several of our States.

One branch of the Legislature of Georgia has passed a bill to authorize the issue of circulating notes by banks incorporated by the State. Many States, including New York, have such laws now, but they are inoperative by reason of the tax of 10 per cent. imposed on such issues by the United States. It is said that the object of the proposed new law of Georgia is to make a test case and have it decided by the Supreme Court, *i. e.*, whether the tax law is constitutional or not. Probably these Georgia legislators are "banking" on the changes that have taken place in the personnel of the court since this very question was decided before. The case was that of Veazie Bank vs. Fenno, and the opinion of the court, fully sustaining the tax, was delivered by Chief Justice Chase. This case was decided soon after the close of the civil war. The judges then on the bench were Chase, Clifford, Nelson, Grier, Field, Miller, Swayne, and Davis, all of whom are now dead except Field, who has retired.

The problem of the taxation of personal property has been considered by most living authorities on finance insoluble. The State of Vermont, however, has discovered a new way to deal with it. She proposes that any person now a non-resident coming into that State to live may enter into a contract with the State, running not more than thirty years, to pay a specified sum per annum, in lieu of all other taxes on personal property. This sum is to be not less than $500 per year in any case. This method of drawing rich people into the State was recommended by Gov. Smith to the Legislature, and a bill to carry it into effect has been passed by the House, and may possibly become a law. Vermont is flanked by New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and New York, and she undoubtedly expects to draw affluence from all those States, and perhaps from more distant ones. Very likely she will do so, especially from Massachusetts, whose laws for the taxation of personal property are Draconian in their severity. As this new law applies only to persons now non-residents of Vermont, it is not unlikely that a local disturbance may be raised by the "old settlers," who will ask why they should not be treated as well as new-comers. Why not, indeed? Why should not the State make a contract with each person for a specified sum per annum (taking security in each case for payment), and then dispense with assessors and collectors of personal taxes altogether? Then all such taxes will be paid voluntarily. This new experiment will be watched with interest all over the Union.

"Why do I resign the presidency of Williams College? One reason is that I may not be asked why I do *not* resign?" Such was the happy way in which that shrewd and wise educator Mark Hopkins stated the potent reason for his withdrawal at the age of seventy. It is in much the same spirit that Timothy Dwight, upon reaching the same age, resigns the presidency of Yale University. Certainly in the later case, as in the earlier, nobody had thought of suggesting the wisdom of withdrawal. Dr. Dwight will surrender his place, as did Dr. Hopkins, with general regret among the alumni of his institution that he felt constrained to anticipate what need not have occurred for years to come. It is the most fortunate way for any man to close a career, to retire while everybody says that he might well keep on, rather than to hold on, as more than one college president in New England history has done, long after the period of usefulness has ended. It is a fruitful as well as an enjoyable life upon which Dr. Dwight can look back, one of practically continuous association with the same institution, in one or another capacity, since he entered it as a freshman in 1845, closing fitly with a dozen years at its head during the period when the college has broadened into the university. Dr. Dwight's resignation follows close upon the withdrawal of President Andrews from Brown and President Gates from Amherst, so that three institutions in New England must at the same time seek new heads.

The deplorable condition of affairs in Spain has recently been testified to by one of her most prominent public men. Señor Silvela, leader of the largest fraction of the Conservative party, wrote a few days ago in the *Epoca:* "Our actual situation is the most calamitous that has been seen since our nationality was constituted, and so badly, by the Catholic monarchs. If those who are in a position to exercise an influence upon public opinion do not unite, it will soon be all up with us. There is no time to lose. If we do not forget all our differences and put all hands to the pumps, the ship and cargo will be lost." The "differences" that Silvela refers to are mainly those of party faction. His own party is split into five or six warring groups. A formidable revolt in the Liberal party has been headed by Señor Gamazo, and is making Sagasta's position more and more heartbreaking. Marshal Martinez Campos is seeking a "military solution" of the trouble—that is, another military dictatorship. Carlists and Republicans are muttering and plotting. All parties seem simply waiting for the treaty of peace to be signed. No one will relieve Sagasta of that humiliation. But the moment he has drained its dregs, in behalf of his country, he will be cast from power amid execrations which will be as universal as they will be senseless. It will be a signal for letting loose the most violent and dangerous political passions. The greatest restraining force in sight is a foreign one—that of France. She would not appear to have any surplus of calm and moderation to bestow abroad, but it is certain that her influence and interests in Spain are now powerful, perhaps preponderant.

FINANCIAL POLICY.

At a meeting of the Sound Money League (or its executive committee) last week, the results of the recent elections were brought under review, and some suggestions made respecting the financial policy to be sought in Congress. Congressman Fowler, who was present, held that it was not expedient to attempt to pass any comprehensive measure at the coming short session of Congress, since the Senate would be sure to reject it, and the work would have to be done over again in the next Congress. We have already indicated our concurrence in that view, which is a matter of party expediency rather than of financial policy. The wisest thing to do if financial considerations alone were involved, would be to pass a bill funding and retiring the greenbacks at once. With the present resources of the Treasury, $200,000,000 gold might be applied to greenback redemption at once, leaving less than $150,000,000 to be funded into bonds. But it is needless to speculate on this head when we have to deal with the varying humors of Congress, of political parties, and of Presidential candidates.

The suggestion was made by one of the gentlemen who took part in the discussion, that it would be well to pass a bill providing that, after a certain date, greenbacks once redeemed in gold should not be again paid out of the Treasury except in exchange for gold. This is an old suggestion and a wise one, and was once recommended to Congress in a mild way by President McKinley himself. No argument would be needed to convince Congress of its expediency if Congress were concerned with financial instead of political expediency. As the Government pays gold for greenbacks on demand, why should it not demand gold in exchange for them, especially at a time when it has a surplus revenue, enabling it to control the situation and act its own pleasure? The question may be asked, Why may not the Secretary of the Treasury enforce this policy without a law? Indeed, he may do so, and very likely the present Secretary will do so. The advantage of having a law prescribing that rule of action is two-fold: it will govern future Secretaries, who may not be of the same opinion as the present one, and it will serve as an educator of public opinion. Every time that the word gold is used in a statute, it serves as a nail to fasten down the coffin of silver and fiat money in general. For these reasons we consider it good policy for the Republicans to pass a short measure of that kind the coming winter. It may stick fast in the Senate, but it will show the country that the party is not unmindful of its pledges and its duty regarding the currency. Another feasible measure would be the passage of a resolution declaring that all public obligations are payable in gold or its equivalent. This is what the country really voted for in 1896 when that issue was unembarrassed with questions of territorial expansion. That is what the country voted for on the 8th of the present month, so far as the currency question entered into the campaign.

Whether Congress shall do anything or nothing on the subject this winter (and we think it is most likely to do nothing), the currency is so saturated with gold that there is nothing to fear in that regard at present. The importations of gold into the United States in the year 1898 have been by far the largest ever known, and the exportations the smallest in many years, while the production of gold from our own mines will prove the largest for a long period, if not actually the largest in the history of the country. The October statement of imports and exports, just issued by the Treasury Bureau of Statistics, shows that the gold imports in the ten months ending October 31, 1898, were $143,658,095, which is more than 50 per cent. in excess of the amount imported in the corresponding period of any preceding year. The exports during that time have been but $14,061,849, which is less than in the corresponding months for more than ten years past. This gives the enormous balance of $129,596,246 of gold importations in excess of gold exportations. In only one other year since 1888 have the ten months ending with October shown an excess of imports of gold over exports, that being 1896, when the excess of importations was $87,085,851.

This unprecedented flow of gold into the United States is accounted for by the enormous balance of trade in our favor during the ten months just past. In that period the total imports of merchandise amounted to but $527,757,554, while the total exports were $987,964,356, a balance in our favor of $460,206,802. The total exports of merchandise for the month of October, 1898, amounted to $188,686,232, a sum larger than in any preceding October in the history of the country; the figures for October, 1897, being $111,744,517, and those for October, 1896, $113,516,586.

In addition to the $129,596,246 of net imports of gold during the year 1898 must be counted our own production of the metal, which has been from $50,000,000 to $60,000,000 during the same time. In other words, our stock of gold has increased by $180,000,000 in one year. This large addition is plainly perceptible in the increased circulation shown by the figures of the latest Treasury statement, which foots up a gold balance of $242,805,604, while the gold in circulation on November 1 was $649,846,727. The total money in circulation at the beginning of the present month is shown by the Treasury figures to have been $1,866,575,782, against $1,706,732,904 at the corresponding date last year, and $1,905,725,200 on July 1, 1896. These conditions resemble in some respects those which prevailed during the years 1887-1891, but they did not prevent the disastrous panic of 1893, from which we are only now recovering. Nor have we any guarantee that we shall be saved from like disasters hereafter if we trust to luck and leave the currency question unsettled for another indefinite period.

WHY WE HAVE NO OPPOSITION.

The presiding officer of the Republican State convention in Massachusetts, a few weeks ago, deplored the lack of an opposition to his party as a misfortune to the State. Pointing out that the Republican party had exercised the legislative power of the State for forty years, and during most of that period the executive power as well, he said:

> "We have been exposed to the perils which surround a party whose supremacy is unquestioned. We have lacked one of the best safeguards of good government, the advantage of a numerous and intelligent minority, ready to profit by our mistakes, able to obtain the confidence of the State and in its turn to undertake the responsibilities of her government. Least of all have we that advantage to-day."

There is no doubt that the same plaint might be uttered by nearly every State in the Union: that indispensable part of the machinery of every successful parliamentary system is wanting among us. But we think we can throw some light on the cause.

We cannot have an opposition in the parliamentary sense without a body of men who are willing to do the work of an opposition; and the work of an opposition is the criticism of the measures as well as the opinions of the party in power. But this criticism must be constant, not fitful. It must be ready and in working order, not on Monday only, but every day; not in winter only, but in summer. Its members, too, must be willing to stay in opposition. They cannot be running to and fro all the time between the opposition and the Administration. To make a concrete illustration: If Sir William Harcourt were to pass half his time approving and admiring the measures of the Tories, or it were always uncertain how long he would remain opposed to them, his opposition would have little weight or value. A real opposition opposes on principle, and continues its opposition on principle, whether the thing it opposes be done or not.

Now we have nothing of the kind, and have not had since the war. The war broke up our parties as they existed from the foundation of the government, and they have never been reformed. What happens now is something of this sort, which is not remotely connected with the rise of the boss system: The ruling party in the Union or the State produces some measure which shocks

and horrifies a large number of sensible people. They foresee the most direful consequences as likely to result from it to the community. They speak out and denounce it vigorously in the press or on the platform or in the Legislature. The Mugwumps and Independents and Philosophers clap their hands, and shout, "Thank God, we are going to have an opposition at last. The people are waking up." A few days or weeks pass by. The boss or the President is consulted. He is asked if he has heard or read the terrible philippic of the famous so-and-so against his measure. He says he has. Asked what he thinks of it, he replies that it is pretty good. Asked whether it has any effect on his opinion about his measure, he replies not the least, that "it is sure to pass." Very soon the news that "it is sure to pass," that the criticism on it has not made the least impression on the party in power, spreads through the community. As soon as they hear this the opposition are panic-stricken. They run around and shout: "It is sure to pass; there is no use in talking. You are wasting your breath. Now I tell you if you don't get over pretty quick, you will get left; the people all want it." In the course of a week after this there is no visible opposition. The very men you have left denouncing the measure, are now inventing reasons for not opposing it, and ridiculing the handful of "kickers" who still hold out against it. The argument that "it is sure to pass" makes short work of everything that saint or sage may say. The clergy then join in rapidly and testify that, bad as the thing seemed at first, on maturer consideration God Almighty had gone over, and, in consideration of the increased facilities it will afford for spreading the Gospel, is determined to uphold the hands of the Government.

It can easily be seen that under a system like this the growth of a real opposition is impossible. No government measure ever receives any criticism that the Government need fear. Probably no such opportunity was ever afforded to an opposition, in the whole course of parliamentary history, as was afforded to an American opposition last April, but there was no opposition to take advantage of it. In place of reason, eloquence, remonstrance, history, and common sense, it was collecting lint for the wounded or preaching sermons on the loveliness of war, especially when you do not know what it is about. In short, no permanent opposition can ever be formed in America as long as its members cannot be relied on to stay in opposition—as long as they have no principles that will bear defeat. When the English Whigs heard from Pitt and the King that "it was sure to pass," they left the House of Commons and stayed away for three years. This was not their duty, but it was nearer their duty than joining the Tories and shouting that they were right and that God was on their side. When we see a banker of mature age like Mr. Gage, after opposing for six months a piece of foolery like the annexation of the Philippines, with everything on his side that distinguishes human wisdom from human folly, suddenly going over to the abhorred thing on the ground that trade needs 8,000,000 of half-naked savages, when our trade is increasing at home hand over hand; when we see a body like the Michigan Republican Convention passing resolutions in favor of a war of annexation, and at the same time another for the establishment of a bureau to induce emigrants to come from abroad to settle their "waste lands," we ask where can an opposition come from. You cannot set men like these to criticise.

An opposition must have a body of principles which, in order to inspire confidence or respect, have to be held and upheld, whether they win or lose, in good and evil fortune. Every administration, every boss knows that our present oppositions will not last over three weeks, and that they can be dissolved at any time by shouting, "It is sure to pass." Every crisis that arrives in our affairs, every occasion that calls on us for the highest qualities of statesmanship the nation contains, sees a large body of our leading men placed *hors de combat*—that is, made useless for any real future public service—by their abandonment of opposition as soon as they find it will not in this instance prove successful. Considering that Senator Hoar is opposing the Philippine folly valiantly, we do not like to recall the fact that he also ably opposed the annexation of Hawaii, and then voted for it, on hearing it was "sure to pass." Nor do we like to recall the fact that Mr. Gage has long been opposing war and annexation and is now supporting the silliest annexation of all, on hearing "it is sure to pass." And yet it is part of the history of the time. Principles are eternal. An opposition which has none, has no legitimate name in parliamentary literature. It is simply a mob of politicians.

THE CLOSED DOOR IN PORTO RICO.

The extension of the American navigation laws to Porto Rico was made by executive order the moment the flag was hoisted at San Juan. This was quick work, as the island is not yet legally and constitutionally a part of the United States. But we presume no one will make any difficulty on that score. The real objection to the order is that it is foolish, whether strictly legal or not. It is an advertisement to the world that our zeal for the open door of trade is simply zeal for opening other people's doors. Our own doors we propose to keep double-locked, and as soon as we get control of a new door we slam it in the faces of those who have been freely using it. It may be that trade follows the flag, but the lesson which we are apparently anxious that the nations shall take to heart is that *their* trade cannot follow *our* flag. When our flag goes up, their trade goes down.

The actual and immediate effects of enforcing our navigation laws in Porto Rico will not perhaps be very serious. There will be temporary inconvenience to commerce; Porto Ricans will have to pay a little more for the necessaries of life; what we take from them will cost us a little more. In time, we suppose, these evils will be got over, and trade will adjust itself to the new conditions. But the really bad effect will be the indication of policy which this early step in colonial government affords. It shows that we are the great Bourbons of international commerce, who learn nothing and forget nothing. If there is one thing which economists and practical students of shipping are agreed upon, it is that our navigation laws are an antiquated absurdity. Yet it is these mediæval manacles of trade that we make haste to clap upon the inhabitants of our first colonial acquisition, whom we are supposed to have freed from an obsolete tyranny.

What these laws do in effect is to make Porto Rican trade a part of the coasting trade of the United States. That is to say, all cargoes from this country to the islands and from the islands to any of our ports must be carried in American bottoms. Furthermore, no English or Canadian or French or German vessel touching at San Juan can afterwards, on the same voyage, touch at Fajardo or Ponce or any other Porto Rican port. Here is where the greatest hardship will come in for the islanders. They are without railroads or other means of cheap transportation. It is upon coasting vessels that they have depended for securing supplies at the various points of distribution. Thus it is obvious that our navigation laws will, for a time at least, throw the whole business into confusion, involving unnecessary transshipment and needless expense. But for the priceless liberty which we are bestowing upon them, no doubt the Portoriqueños will be willing to pay as much as this.

It is evident that the English are made a little nervous by this first-fruit of our enlightened colonial policy. They regard it as symptomatic of worse things to follow. If we begin with exclusive shipping laws, how long will it be before we advance to that other triumph of American freedom, a prohibitory tariff? Is this the way we show our gratitude to England? If it were not that the union jack were twined with the stars and stripes, and that the union of hearts and the *entente* were being toasted at all banquets and launchings of battle-ships,

the English might think that we were striking them a foul blow; as it is, they are bound to think that we are only dissembling our love. Yet, even with the best will in the world, their ardor for joining hands with us in fighting for free trade in the Orient must be a little dampened by our suspicious haste to shackle trade the moment we get our clutch on it. A delegation of Illinois manufacturers urged the President to lose no time in applying the American tariff to the Philippines. Mr. McKinley said their suggestions were well worth considering, and that he would give his mind to them. Here is fresh cause for alarm to our English allies. They know by sad experience how Mr. McKinley's mind is apt to work when the stimulus of protection is applied to it.

The navigation laws of the United States, which we have taken this offensive way of flaunting in the face of the world, are probably the most backward and stupid known to man. The Spanish, from whom our protectionists learned all they know, have had some absurd and oppressive shipping laws, but none so much so as our own. Their treatment of trade in Cuba and Porto Rico was blind enough, Heaven knows, but the coasting trade was left by them in better condition than we now put it in. In this respect, liberation from Spanish commercial oppression means for the islanders a falling back into worse oppression. Our shipping laws are not only a crying anachronism; they are entirely outgrown by ourselves, and without practical effect except to make us fussy and ridiculous. The truth is that our ability to build iron ships in competition with all the world is now acknowledged in England. The London *Times* has lately had several articles, written by experts, predicting an enormous expansion of American shipbuilding in the near future. This will be due, not to our navigation laws, which we have had all along, but to our now being able to beat the world in iron and steel manufacture. Instead of rushing ahead to apply our shipping laws to our new possessions, we ought to be ashamed of maintaining them any longer in the territory we already have, and to repeal them for the Middle-Age monstrosity they are.

FIRST YEAR OF CONSOLIDATION.

The enlarged city of New York is approaching the end of its first year of existence, and we are in a position to form some estimate of our first annual harvest of what President Low called, while our new charter was under consideration, "the fundamental advantages of consolidation." Valuable aid in the direction of forming this estimate was furnished by the *Times* on Friday last in some interviews with several of the framers of the new charter. These all admit that the charter has defects, and they condemn especially the borough system as an entirely useless institution. Some of them go further and say that the double-chambered Municipal Assembly is of doubtful value, and think that there is some useless machinery in the Board of Public Improvements.

The experience of the year will be useful in throwing light upon these points of criticism. As to the borough system, there never was anything in that but a sonorous name, and some comfortable salaries for borough presidents and such secretaries and clerks as they might choose to employ. There were borough boards, and local-improvement boards, and borough halls provided also, but from the beginning there has been nothing for all this machinery to do. No borough president, or borough board, or local-improvement board has ever found any business to transact. One of the borough presidents declared when he first came into office that he could find nothing to do, and should refuse to draw his salary, but it is not recorded that he carried his feelings to such an extreme. Instead of anything of this kind happening, the budget for 1899 shows an appropriation of $12,100 for each of the presidents of the Boroughs of Manhattan, the Bronx, and Brooklyn, and $7,200 for each of those of Queens and Richmond. Here is a total appropriation of $50,700 for a part of the new government which Mr. Gilroy, one of its framers, declares to be "perfectly useless." He explains its presence in the charter as follows: "The provision creating these offices was inserted out of deference to the views of Mr. De Witt of Brooklyn." That is a new theory of charter construction, and it explains many other features of the consolidation charter than the borough system. Human experience was ignored from beginning to end, being regarded as of far less value as a guide than the "views of Mr. De Witt of Brooklyn" or some other hitherto unknown authority in the science of municipal government.

Condemnation of the Municipal Assembly by the charter-framers is much more guarded than that of the borough system, but the year's experience is no less overwhelmingly against it. We were required to return to this rejected form of local legislation, contrary to an unbroken record of failure in every American city for half a century, because it would supply us "with a larger measure of home rule." We were told that it would exercise important home-rule powers in all questions of large expenditure of city money. What has been the result in practice? Has the Municipal Assembly exercised a particle of power in this direction? The annual budget came before it for approval a few days ago. The grand total was $93,500,000, and in that total there was not a penny for the erection of new public-school buildings. Here was a chance for the Assembly to exercise its home-rule powers, for there is a strong popular demand, based upon the needs of thousands of children who cannot find accommodations at present, from several of our boroughs for new school buildings. Several members searched for the "powers," but could find none which would be of any service to them in compelling the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to include in the budget an item for new school buildings. The work of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment was, in fact, as final in the question of annual expenditures as it would have been without a Municipal Assembly. This has been the case in every instance. The only power which the Assembly has been able to exert over expenditures is in "holding up" for a time an issue of bonds in order that the members of a particular borough might secure the "recognition" which they demanded. In other directions its legislation has been as unimportant as was that of our old Board of Aldermen. Yet this Assembly costs us $115,000 a year in salaries alone.

So much for the two most noteworthy features of the new charter. They have worked as everybody whose opinion was worth anything on the subject knew they must work, to accomplish nothing whatever in the direction of intelligent and useful government. How is it about that most fundamental of all the advantages of consolidation—the cost of the government? While the charter was under consideration, it was estimated that the annual budget might reach $75,000,000 or $80,000,000. The total for 1899 is over $93,500,000, fully $15,000,000 above the total of the present year. How is this enormous sum to be raised? The taxpayers of the Borough of Manhattan will have a chance to answer this question intelligently soon. Under the provisions of the charter, tax valuations must be equalized throughout the new city, which means that the valuations in the Borough of Manhattan must be raised. This was pointed out as an inevitable result of consolidation. The valuations in all the newly acquired territory of the city were far higher than those of the old city, were, in fact, nearly up to the full value of the property, while those of the old city were more than a third lower. Equalization means, under these conditions, only one thing, increased taxation for the old city.

The taxpayers of the Borough of Manhattan must, in fact, "pay the piper" in the consolidation dance. They will have in this way a valuable object-lesson, "right here" at home, in the beauties of the "expansion" policy. We extended our borders, and took in large sections of outlying territory, all of which was heavily burdened with debt, because we were assured by President Low,

among others, that the mere act of enlarging our borders and increasing our numbers would "appeal to the civic interest as well as to the civic pride of every citizen," and give us a government for the great city that would "prove worthy of the great trust." What we actually have is a Tammany government, a "wide-open city," a perfectly useless and expensive Borough system and Municipal Assembly, an annual budget of $93,500,000, and a great increase in the burden of taxation for the old city alone. That is "expansion"—elevation of character by bigness alone—in its very essence.

BRUNETIÈRE ON AMERICAN CATHOLICISM.

The second sheaf of gleanings from his American tour, two years ago, is given to the public by M. Ferdinand Brunetière in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for November 1. Having written before of American university life and education in this country in general, he now prints his impressions of American religious life. His title is "Catholicism in the United States," but his comprehensive view surveys our entire religious evolution. The article may be said to confirm all that has been alleged of Brunetière's complete going over to Rome. He quotes the Vulgate with orotund unction. He hobnobs with Cardinals and Monsignori. In short, the erstwhile literary critic has throughout the air of saying, with Pascal's Provincial Letter-writer, "Je suis devenu grand théologien en peu de temps, et vous en allez voir des marques."

Brunetière, of course, whether as critic or theologian, is not a man to extemporize his knowledge, and it is clear that he has carefully studied his subject. It is inevitable, however, that a foreigner should occasionally stumble. In the matter of church statistics, for example, he is apparently not aware of the two differing systems used by Catholics and Protestants in this country. The former reckon in all the "souls" in their parishes; Protestant year-books include only adult communicants. This vitiates many of Brunetière's comparisons. He is also under a misapprehension in regard to the continued appearance of Protestant sects. He thinks they still go on multiplying by fission like so many polyps, two to-day where there was but one yesterday. But, in fact, the tendency is now all the other way; it is the period of reunions and assimilation, rather than division. Christian Scientists and Spiritualists may, perhaps, be cited as new sects; but if they can be called churches at all, they are only specimens of the sort of thing that used to be a common but is now a rare phenomenon. A rabid reformer was once explaining to Lord Alvanley his plan to exclude all the Bishops except two from the House of Lords. "You would leave those, I suppose," said Alvanley, "to keep up the breed." If there are any new Protestant denominations forming at present in the United States, they are only rather feebly keeping up the breed.

Leaving these minor slips, let us come to the main reasons which Brunetière gives for the great prosperity and fair prospects of American Catholicism. That it is making many converts among educated and influential Americans he is certain, for a bishop told him so. The numbers are put at 30,000 a year. We think these figures would suffer under analysis as seriously as some others which Brunetière uses, but let that pass. It is of high interest to know why educated Americans are being converted to Catholicism, even if they are not being converted.

Well, one reason is that the government of the Catholic Church is so beautifully analogous to the government of the United States. It seems to be almost a case of preëstablished harmony. As we rise from the local government to the State and to the federal, so in the church we pass from priest to bishop and to general councils and the Pope. All this was earnestly explained to Brunetière. But if he had chanced to be a visiting Presbyterian, the same preordained coördination between the government of that church and the government of the country would have been unfolded before his astonished gaze. The Catholics have no monopoly of this argument. The Methodists use it most ably, and so do the Episcopalians. If the Congregationalists and Baptists cannot employ it in just that form, they can at least point with pride to their denominations as being typically American because enjoying local autonomy and independence. In fact, every denomination in the land has at least one champion able to prove that it is at once the most Scriptural and the most purely American. Even Brunetière himself seems a little doubtful about the overwhelming nature of Catholic logic on this point. He says, "To tell the truth, I am not sure that the analogies between Catholicism and the Constitution of the United States are so numerous and their relations so striking or affinities so 'providential' as some Americans seem to believe."

What he is sure of, however, is that it is the Catholic principle of authority and finality which impresses and wins Americans. They have their Supreme Court for unappealable legal decisions, and they want an ultimate and infallible tribunal to pass upon religious questions. Hence, says Brunetière, the curious fact that American Catholics were so ardent for Papal infallibility. We are not so sure about that. We remember that one American bishop, the Bishop of Little Rock, was bold enough to vote against the infallibility decree in the Oecumenical Council. But we admit that on this Little Rock the church was not built. However that may be, it seems to us that Brunetière has failed to observe the particular nature of the fondness of Americans for infallibility. It must be infallibility distinctly arrayed on their side. No people on earth take more kindly to an infallible authority when it agrees with them. On the adverse side, it breeds scepticism and revolt. This is true even of American Catholics. Who does not recall the vigorous language addressed to the Pope by American prelates at the time of the Cahensley controversy? And when the Knights of Labor were threatened with excommunication, it was pretty plainly intimated to the Curia that the beautiful adaptation of the Catholic Church to the American Constitution would disappear at once if that blow fell.

Brunetière enumerates other reasons why Americans are rapidly coming into the Catholic fold. They like success, and what can be more successful than the Catholic Church? They are impressed by ceremonies and vestments, and she supplies them. If it is a hierarchy they desire, there it is for them; and if democratic equality, there that is, too. We cannot go into this. Brunetière's reasons would be better worth considering if his facts were better established. They are fine abstract reasons which would convince any mind not prejudiced by the facts being otherwise.

IRISH LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

DUBLIN, November 5, 1898.

A complicated and contracted system of local government is to come into being here next January. Legislative enactments become more and more complicated, especially with reference to Ireland, where are applied modifications, checks, and limitations not thought of in legislation affecting Great Britain. While British systems of local government are guided and controlled by Government boards subject to the influence of British public opinion, ours is to be in the future, as it has been in the past, controlled by one above the influence of Irish public opinion. The Irish Local Government Act, passed last session (61 and 62 Victoria, chap. 3-7), consists of 124 sections and numerous subsections, besides 7 schedules of 14 "parts," in which, under 150 heads, other acts of Parliament modifying it are to be considered. Taken as a whole, it is difficult of comprehension. The lawyers will reap a rich harvest, as they have from the other measures of wide scope applied to this country. I have, however, before me a handbook* lately published, with the aid of which I shall note the principal provisions of the act.

Let me begin by stating in a few words the systems that are being superseded. The counties have been governed by the grand juries. "Introduced into Ireland after the Conquest," these bodies have gradually gathered to themselves "the extraordinary combination of duties which disappear with the present act, leaving only its original

*A Guide to Irish Local Government. By John Muldoon and George McSweeny, barristers-at-law. Dublin: Eason & Son.

criminal jurisdiction unimpaired." They were practically appointed by the Government, and met but for a few hours annually. The county work was left in the hands of permanent officials. It is unnecessary particularly to dwell upon the bribe of several hundred thousand pounds a year, in remission of taxation, which Government has found it necessary to give to its supporters of the upper classes in Ireland to induce them to relinquish their present powers. This bribe is a measure that would never have been resorted to but for the power, out of all proportion to its members, that the Irish oligarchy exercises in the balance of British parties. With the exception of its criminal jurisdiction as above stated, and its right of "presenting for malicious injuries," all the powers of the grand jury pass to the new councils. (In Ireland, any person maliciously injured in body or estate by person or persons, discovered or concealed, can claim compensation, to be levied off the tax-payers of the district in which he lives. The power of deciding such claims and arranging the district over which they are to be paid, now passes to the County Court Judge, with appeal to the Judge of Assize.)

The second element of Irish local government has been the Boards of Guardians of the Poor. Originally constituted sixty years ago for the purpose of relieving paupers in workhouses, they have gathered to themselves a great variety of powers—sanitary and otherwise—from the walling of ancient graveyards to the muzzling of dogs. The guardians have been half elective and half ex-officio, appointed from among justices of the peace, the nominees of Government.

The Irish cities and towns have been governed by corporations and Town Commissioners elected upon a franchise narrow as compared to that subsisting in Great Britain, which for the past thirty years has been agitated against in vain. The franchise for all local government in Ireland will now be the same as the parliamentary (practically depending on the occupation of a dwelling-house or any part of a house occupied as a separate dwelling)—with the addition of Peers and women occupiers. Nothing has been done to simplify questions of legislation and clear them of technicalities. The whole power of Parliament has been exercised to give the vote; it is not so difficult at the annual revisions to disfranchise unwary opponents. "Stuffing the ballot-boxes" is here impossible; depleting or unfairly expanding the register is possible. In the few Irish constituencies where the balance of parties is somewhat even, the elections are, at considerable cost to those interested in politics, fought out in advance, with considerable outcry and loss of temper in the revision courts. So many wealthy politicians and lawyers are interested in the present complicated system of making up lists of voters that it has hitherto been found impossible to reform it.

In each county in Ireland will be elected a council to which will be transferred the powers of the grand juries as to roads and other public purposes. These councils will levy all the local taxes. Large powers are conferred upon them for the acquisition of land for county purposes, and for other duties and purposes. District councils, acting in a minor capacity as Guardians of the Poor, are established for local details and the administration of the Poor Law. With the exception of the widening of the franchise, the present constitution of cities and towns is not materially altered.

For the first time in Ireland local affairs will come under the management of the people at large. Through and above all, however, the power of the Castle stands. The people are not to be trusted as they are in Great Britain. Decisions as to "the disqualification of persons for being members of a county or district council, or Board of Guardians, and of any such council or board, and their partners, for appointment to an office," are left in the hands of the Lord Lieutenant. He has already, by the stroke of his pen, decided that neither women nor clergymen are to be entitled to sit on county councils, and he has disqualified persons "who within five years have been sentenced to imprisonment with hard labor, without option of a fine." Seeing that under the coercion act, still in force, crimes nonexistent in Great Britain are instituted, and that some of the most representative and trusted men in the country were so sentenced, this order is considerably resented.

No council can, without the consent of the Castle, expend on roads of a district more than one-fourth additional of the average annual sum laid out on them within three years before the passage of the act. Councils must erect and maintain court-houses, although they have no power or authority over them, further than being permitted to hold their meetings in them when not in use by the Crown. The management of lunatic asylums (to the maintenance of which the Imperial Government contributes four shillings per patient per week), hitherto under nominees of the Lord Lieutenant, will in future be confided to the county councils. The concurrence of the Lord Lieutenant will be necessary in the appointment, fixing the salaries, and dismissal of the principal executive officers of county councils. He will also have the power to issue mandamuses against councils for the maintenance of piers already constructed and managed by Government, for officers' salaries, coroners' expenses, extra police, lunatic asylums, repayment of loans, support of prisoners, infirmaries, and hospitals.

The Act effects an entire revolution in local finance. A system of local taxation is introduced by which the occupier (not as formerly the occupier and landlord) will pay for everything. For this liability, compensation is attempted in the form of an annual sum from the Imperial purse fixed in amount in perpetuity. This will give to the occupiers of land the benefit of future economies, and throw upon them the weight of future increases in expenditure. The Imperial Government will divide annually between Irish local bodies a sum not yet fixed, expected to be about £700,000. In addition there will be variable sums under different heads, amounting to about £436,000 per annum more. It must be remembered that Great Britain also receives such allowances, without the landlord class being exempted from local taxation; and that these sums, as well as the Imperial grants for police and education, have been taken into account by the Royal Commission which reported that Ireland is beyond them entitled to an allowance of £2,500,000 per annum for undue taxation.

Persons accustomed to the systems of local government in force in other English-speaking countries will consider ours strongly "cabin'd, cribb'd, confined." It is its width, not its limitations, that impresses most Irishmen used to having had little or no voice in local management. The absence of local control over police and education must arrest the attention of outsiders. Considering the freedom from corruption and independence of personal and local influences that characterizes the Irish police system, there is much to be said in its favor. With its military constitution softened down, its higher grades officered by those who had by merit risen from the ranks (not as at present by gentlemen cadets), and with some popular representation on its governing council, it would be, whether under the present régime or under Home Rule, a better machine for the maintenance of good order and the execution of justice than the local systems existent elsewhere. Irish national education is under a central Government board. Catholics who publicly express their opinions, prefer this to local management. No desire for change is expressed by Protestants. Every school in the country has a "manager," independent of the Education Board. Most of them are clergymen. They possess the extraordinary power of dismissal without appeal of the teachers, so that these teachers paid by the state are entirely under local individual (not general) influence.

Heretofore there has been no excitement and little interest expressed concerning the new system of local government. Much in its working will depend upon the exercise by the Castle, through the Government board, of its powers. Gerald Balfour, the Chief Secretary, has come over, it is said, with the ardent desire to see it set running smoothly. He has not commenced well. He has disbanded the Clogher Board of Guardians, and put paid officials in their place, for insisting on the right, inherent in similar bodies in England, to appoint a female Collector of Rates, against whose character and capacity no objection can be urged. In the working of the system, most will depend upon the exercise of their new powers by the people. Would it were possible that politics could be eliminated from the management of local affairs; but seeing this is not so in other countries, it is scarcely to be expected here, where such a chasm still yawns between the classes and the masses, and where religious and national feeling renders it so easy for men to obscure issues, and to judge others by their professions rather than their practice or characters. We are free from the corruption of politics by money bribes or place-hunting. Politics is here too often degraded by class prejudices and by emotion.

One of the strongest arguments for home rule is that, under it, a large number of upper-class educated and trained Irishmen would, through a legislature sitting in Dublin, exercise control over, or express their wants and wishes concerning, all departments of Irish government. Under the approaching system they might find themselves totally excluded from direct local management over three-fourths of the country, and able to make themselves felt only through the oblique influence of a Parliament sitting in London, already overburdened with imperial and British concerns. D. B.

MASSON'S JOSEPHINE.

PARIS, November 3, 1898.

M. Frédéric Masson is an indefatigable searcher of documents relative to the Em-

peror Napoleon, his family, and all his surroundings. He is as minute on this subject as Dangeau was concerning Louis XIV.; he disdains no details, he makes us live over the lives of the Imperial court; he revives for us the *style Empire*, he looks into the accounts of the Imperial household; nothing seems uninteresting to him if it can throw a ray of light on the dazzling years of the Napoleonic period.

I sometimes see in catalogues the title of a learned book, 'Sabine, ou la matinée d'une Dame romaine.' I imagine that it must be something in the style of 'L'Existence d'une Impératrice,' in which Frédéric Masson has recently described the life of the Empress Josephine at the Tuileries. But the Empress Josephine is more interesting to us than a Roman lady of the time of the Cæsars. Josephine's memory will always be bound up with that of Napoleon; she was looked on by the people as his good genius. When he divorced the "bonne Joséphine," people believed that fortune would abandon him. She was the only woman he really loved—with a wild, ardent love at first, during the early days of want and of greatness; afterwards with an enduring and constant love, even when she had lost her youth and her beauty. He was under her charm; he wrote to her from Italy and Egypt love-letters which were so warm that the publishers of his correspondence thought it best not to print them; and when all was over, after he had lost the battle of Waterloo, his last thoughts on leaving Paris were for Josephine and Malmaison, where they had led together the happy and glorious years of the Consulate.

M. Frédéric Masson describes first the Tuileries, as they had been rearranged and prepared for the Emperor and the Empress after their coronation. Napoleon did not subject his wife to the slavery which the queens of France had to endure; the queens were perpetually subjected to the most rigorous etiquette and could enjoy no privacy. Napoleon made two parts of his existence: one exterior, which was spent in the "appartement d'honneur," one inner, which was spent in an "appartement intérieur." The first apartment consisted for the Empress of an ante-room, two drawing-rooms, and the "salon de l'Impératrice." In the ante-room are a *portier d'appartement*, in grand livery, and the men of the *livrée*—four *valets de chambre*, four ushers, four *coureurs* or messengers, and the *valets de pied*. Into the first drawing-room enter by right the officers of the household of their Majesties, and the persons admitted to audience by the Empress who cannot by right enter into the second drawing-room. Two young pages are here all day. Personages of more importance enter the second drawing-room, the door of which is guarded by an usher. One door more and another usher, and the chosen people can enter the salon of the Empress, in which is one arm-chair for the Emperor, another for the Empress, and still another for the Emperor's mother; common chairs only for the princesses, and mere tabourets for the other ladies. The apartment consisted of a bedroom, a library, an inner bath-room, and sundry small rooms. Nobody could enter it except the ladies who had the Empress's special permission.

At Saint-Cloud the dispositions were the same as at the Tuileries. In both places Napoleon liked only a very severe style of furniture. He favored the creation of the style called "style Empire," cold and stiff, but heavy and majestic, and very appropriate to his reign. Curiously enough, this style, which has been in our time much despised, is coming again into fashion, with its curious bronzes; its ornaments which remind you of the ancient Cæsars, of the Egyptian campaign, of the French Revolution; and its fine silks.

M. Masson, having described the stage on which Josephine moved after she had become Empress, enters into a minute account of the life which was marked out for her. He shows her in the morning, in bed "with a *percale* or embroidered muslin cap, garnished with Valenciennes or Mechlin; sometimes with a *percale toquet* on her head." "Though, in her linen-closets, she had a lot of shirts with long sleeves, she wore at night as by day the same shirt, over which she put at night a *camisole*"—she had all sorts of them, embroidered, satin-lined in all colors, etc. The door is opened for her favorite dog, for Josephine could not live without a pet dog; she had one, in 1793—an ugly little beast—which helped her in the Carmelite prison to send messages which were hidden under his collar. At Milan she had one, which fell ill; the greatest doctor in the city was called in for him, and this circumstance made the fortune of Moscati, who became President of the Cisalpine Directory, Deputy, Count, Senator. How M. Masson contrived to find out the names, the habits, the history of the successive pet dogs of Josephine is a wonder; it is enough for us to know that she always gave first audience in the morning to the reigning dog. She was fond of all familiar beasts—little monkeys, birds; she always had small negroes, whom she treated like domestic animals, but negro servants were the fashion in France after the war of Independence.

Josephine gave three hours every morning to dressing. Her toilet was a great affair, and the women who helped her were the most important witnesses of her life. Her staff was composed of two first bedchamber-women, four maids, a *dame d'atour*, four women and a girl *de garde-robe*. The two *first* women were there only for etiquette's sake; they had large salaries and little to do. The four maids who received the title of *dames d'annonce*, had for their special business to act as ushers, to open the door to the Emperor, to the princesses. The real actors during the toilet, the intimate companions, were the *dame d'atour* and the four *femmes de garde-robe*. Josephine bathed every morning, and, after the bath, she had to take all sorts of means "pour réparer des ans l'irréparable outrage," as the poet says. Like an actress, she painted herself, she concealed as she might her wrinkles. M. Masson tells us that in one year (1808) she bought fs. 2,749.58 of rouge at Martin's, and fs. 598.52 of rouge at Madame Chaumeton's. He has seen the bills and gives us the francs and centimes. Napoleon did not like women to look pale. "Go, put on rouge," he said one day to a lady, during a reception. "What ails you?" said he to another; "you are very pale; have you just been confined?" He did not like perfumes, and Josephine was obliged to do without any except eau de Cologne. Josephine had every fortnight a visit from her *pédicure*, a German Jew named Tobias Kohen, who arrived in uniform, with a sword at his side.

When she put on her shift, her maids had to choose among 488, more or less embroidered, and garnished with the most expensive laces. "Don't be surprised," says M. Masson, "at these 500 shifts; they hardly suffice, as she changes them three times a day." The maids put on her stockings—generally white, sometimes pink. She had in her wardrobe 958 pairs of white silk stockings, 32 pink silk stockings, and 18 flesh-colored, worth from 18 to 72 francs the pair. The shoes she wore in the morning were generally of colored leather or of silk. In one year she buys 520 pairs. These shoes are very light and heelless; they seem to be a part of the foot. They are like the shoes of which a lady once complained to Cotte, the Empress's furnisher, that they split the first time this lady put them on. "Oh, I see what it is," said Cotte; "Madame has been walking."

After the corset, very light, without whalebone, she puts on a dressing-gown, and Herbault, the hair-dresser, is introduced. Herbault is quite a personage, but on great occasions Josephine receives a greater personage, the famous Duplan, who has known all the ladies of the Directory, who was familiar with Mme. Tallien, and one day cut in pieces a veil worth 8,000 francs which she had handed him, and which he found too large for her coiffure. Duplan received 32,000 francs in 1807 from Josephine, 12,000 in 1808, as much in 1809; he sells besides to her 10,000 francs' worth of various articles yearly. At the time of the divorce Napoleon gave Duplan to the new Empress, with the salary of 42,000 francs a year. While the hairdresser is still at his work, the *dames du palais* introduce a succession of furnishers, who bring muslins, silks, etc., for the Empress's choice.

M. Masson gives us a complete inventory of the gowns ordered by Josephine. It would have much interest for our great dressmakers in the Rue de la Paix, but I fancy that some of their clients would find that Josephine was a very reasonable person. Our modern dressmakers do not allow their clients to buy themselves the stuffs which are used for their gowns, as Josephine did. M. Masson calculates that in stuffs for gowns and for the making of them Josephine spent in six years 1,573,653 francs, without counting the great *parures* of the Coronation and of the grand ceremonies, which were charged to special credits by the Emperor. Of this million and a half, Leroy, the great *couturier* of the time, received in five years nearly half. Leroy thought himself very reasonable, and one day he dared to say to Napoleon himself that he did not give Josephine enough for her dresses.

Josephine was constantly in debt, though the Emperor allowed her a very large revenue; he had to pay these debts from time to time. M. Masson calculates that she, in reality, spent 1,100,000 francs a year—more than a million for her toilet, but jewelry is included, and amounts to nearly half of the sum. It is rather extraordinary that she bought so many jewels, as she had at her command the splendid jewels of the Crown, at that time the finest in existence—a complete set of diamonds, crown, diadem, comb, earrings, bracelets, necklace, valued at nearly four millions; a set of rubies, one of turquoises, one of pearls. What she bought herself could not compare with these fine jewels, but she liked to buy, to change, to play, as it were, with her ornaments. She

was like a child with its toys. The debts of Josephine were paid after conjugal scenes which ended always in the same way: Josephine wept, and Napoleon consoled her. "Allons, Joséphine, allons, ma petite, ne pleures pas." As long as Josephine bought French goods Napoleon was patient, but he could not endure her buying English goods, regarding this as an attack upon his authority. Josephine, however, was a born smuggler; she delighted in having Indian cashmeres, and imported them in the coffers of the French couriers.

The last part of M. Masson's interesting study of Josephine's life is given to the serious part of her existence, if it can be said that there was anything serious in it. She had a sort of administration for her charities, which were innumerable, for pensions, the presents she made, the charitable institutions which she patronized, the favors she asked for—and she was always ready to oblige. She will always be remembered by the people as "la bonne Joséphine."

Correspondence.

THE RACE PROBLEM IN NORTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter from Geneva, N. Y., in your issue of the 17th inst. gives a rather one-sided view of the very difficult problem recently presented to the people of eastern North Carolina. Dr. G. C. Lee, one of the professors of the Johns Hopkins University, went to North Carolina at the time of this trouble and made a special study of the facts, which he described in a series of letters published in the Baltimore *Sun*. From these I gather the following summary:

The Fusion Legislature, at its last session, altered the charter of Wilmington so as to give to the Governor the appointment of one-half of the Aldermen of the city, the other half being elected by the people. The Governor appointed all Republicans, those elected being about one-half of each party. The Aldermen were given the right to elect the Mayor, and in this manner the entire city government was turned over to the Republican party, and negroes were appointed to most of the city offices—policemen, constables, etc. The Governor had previously appointed negroes as justices of the peace, most of them ignorant men who could neither write nor read, and all offensive partisans.

In this state of affairs, the negroes, urged on by the designing white Republicans, were led to believe that they could do whatever they pleased. White men were arrested on trivial charges by negro policemen and constables, and from the justices of the same color they could not get a fair hearing. But this was not all. The preachers took a hand, and preached to their people that, having gained political supremacy, they were entitled also to social supremacy, and urged them to take it. As a result of this, white women were insulted in the streets, the negroes became lawless and turbulent, and the negro policemen and justices of the peace practically let them do as they pleased. The negro editor, Manly, published the most inflammatory articles abusing white men and insulting white women. Finally, the negroes were secretly organized and armed and met at night in remote places, unoccupied houses and halls, and were rapidly preparing to carry out their threats to "wash their hands in the blood of the white men." The negro nurses were instructed that they had the lives of the white children in their hands, and poison was openly suggested.

In such a state of affairs, what were the white men to do? Everything was in the hands of the negroes; from the Governor of the State down they had the power. The whites paid 95 per cent. of the taxes, and their property and lives were at stake, as well as the safety and honor of their wives and daughters. Their only course was to organize, and this they did thoroughly and openly. Every white man in the city with the exception of fifteen joined the organization, arms were purchased, the men were carefully drilled, each block in the city had its captain, and every precaution was taken to prevent any lawless outbreak. It was this complete organization that prevented rioting and serious loss of life, which would inevitably have occurred had not the whites been thus well in hand. The negro, Manly, was a firebrand, and was ordered to leave the city. He disregarded the warning, and his press was destroyed; the fire was an accident.

Now, Mr. Editor, I have been a subscriber to your paper and have read every number of it for more than a quarter of a century past, and I know from experience that it is an utter impossibility for you to take an impartial view of any question concerning the South. The mere mention of such a question to you is like waving a red rag before a bull. Your correspondent from Geneva has given in his letter the black man's view of the trouble, and I appeal to you to print this brief statement, from the standpoint of the Anglo-Saxon and taken from the impartial sources above mentioned.

Very truly yours,

John T. Mason, R.

Baltimore, November 21, 1898.

[Apart from the political narrative, whose accuracy we do not question, the above account bears all the marks of ante-bellum dread of slave insurrections. But we will ask our correspondent why, on his showing, the shotguns were not levelled at the Governor and the Fusion Legislature?—Ed. Nation.]

TANNER IN ILLINOIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You were unquestionably mistaken in construing the result of the election in Illinois as a victory for Tanner. The issues in this State were several, and the motives that actuated voters were somewhat complex; but, had Tanner been an issue, the result would never have been in doubt. The Democratic party put itself almost without the pale of civilization by its platforms, both State and local. Not content with reiterating the undying devotion of the party to a multiple unit and an optional standard of value, the following planks were inserted by the architects of the respective platforms:

STATE PLATFORM.

"We demand municipal ownership of all public franchises and all other natural monopolies which of right belong to the people."

"We declare our faith in the initiative and referendum, and demand that steps be taken . . . to secure the same."

"We unequivocally denounce the present civil-service law of this State."

COUNTY PLATFORM.

"We, therefore, demand municipal ownership of all street railways, gas, and electric-lighting facilities, and all other natural monopolies."

"We are opposed to the encroachments made upon . . . industries by the gigantic trusts known as 'Department Stores,' and, in addition to the legislation already enacted by Democratic Assemblies, we pledge ourselves to secure additional legislation or entire obliteration of such illegal and unjust monopolies."

"We pronounce the present civil-service law inefficient, mischievous, and hostile to the regnant principles of popular government, . . . and, believing that this law, an exotic imported from monarchic governments beyond the seas, prevents such responsibility, we demand its repeal."

The State Senators elected this fall, and possibly the Representatives, will vote for a United States Senator to succeed Cullom, and undoubtedly the controlling influence in the choice of members of both houses of the Legislature was the desire to make sure of a United States Senator who would be sound on the financial issue.

As to the State officers voted for, the Republican candidates were elected because of the Democratic platform, though the head of the ticket (the candidate for Treasurer) ran many thousand votes behind his ticket, and was thought at one time to have been defeated, solely because he was reputed to be a friend of Tanner.

Locally, in Cook County, which casts nearly one-half of the vote of the State, and practically decides the election in the State, the Democratic managers not only insulted the decency of the community by the platform from which quotations have been made, but nominated a very disreputable ticket, and then openly announced from the stump that their success meant "five thousand places for the boys."

Surely it is not to be wondered at that we could not be scared into voting for this ill-savored combination by the bogy of Tanner, who was not a candidate, and is so far repudiated by his own party that they dared not have him make a single speech in Cook County during the campaign. Of the twelve judicial candidates voted for recently, one had especially distinguished himself as a vicious and pertinacious enemy of the existing civil-service laws. He was, of course, on the Democratic ticket, and received the lowest vote of any candidate. So, while the election was primarily and principally an expression of opinion on the silver question, it was to a considerable extent also a protest against an attack upon the merit system, just beginning to be well entrenched in this State.

That Tanner was the heaviest millstone about the neck of the Republican party is indicated by a clever ruse of the Democrats, who placarded Chicago on the night before election with lithographs of Tanner bearing the legend, "Vote for me and my administration." Had he been a candidate, we should have seen here a duplication of the result in Minnesota, where a Democrat has been elected Governor by twenty thousand majority, while the balance of the State ticket is Republican by a still greater majority. Illinois has much to blush for, but do not accuse her of having endorsed Tanner at this election, even if Tanner does smirk and say "Thank you" when he hears the returns.

Howard Leslie Smith.

Chicago, November 14, 1898.

THE PRESIDENTS' MESSAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your conclusions, in the issue of November 10, regarding the Richardson compilation of the Presidents' Messages and Papers are so unjust that I trust you will permit me to make the following explanation:

The last clause of section 1 of the Sundry Civil bill approved June 4, 1897, authorizes the Public Printer to make and deliver to James D. Richardson, the compiler of the messages and papers of the Presidents, without cost to him, duplicate electrotype plates from which the compilation 'Messages and Papers' is printed. Mr. Richardson is probably printing his edition, which so exercised your reporter, from these plates. It is not at all likely they were given him for any other purpose. Mr. Richardson received no other remuneration for the labor expended upon the compilation, and now exercises complete control over the plates received from the Government, and he certainly has the right then to put any value upon them he chooses. No, there's nothing crooked about the Richardson part of it.

The distribution of the document form of the compilation is made strictly according to law from the office of the Superintendent of Documents. Each designated depository is allowed a copy, and every member is allowed a certain quota for gratuitous distribution. The members' quota consumes almost the whole number of copies printed for the House and the Senate, the fraction going by law to the compiler, and the only possible margin there could be for any sale by the Superintendent of Documents is the difference between the whole number of copies allowed him and the number of depositories. The whole number allowed him is 500 copies, and the number of depositories is 458. The few copies which the Superintendent of Documents has on hand, are, I understand, for sale at $9 for the set, between which price and your reporter's estimate there is really not much difference.

Lastly, these volumes are listed in the monthly catalogues of the Superintendent of Documents, not in every monthly catalogue, probably because the aforesaid 'Messages,' etc., is not a monthly publication; but every volume as issued has been recorded in the catalogue with proper bibliographical pains. It has not been included in the Sale List of the Superintendent of Documents for perfectly patent reasons.—Respectfully,

Adelaide R. Hasse.

New York Public Library,
Astor Branch, November 18, 1898.

[It is the "Richardson part" that seems to us wrong. Why should he have received remuneration for a task which cost him only time willingly given? All other expenses were paid by the Government. Is it fit that the Government should give to private parties duplicate plates without cost to them? If so, all campaign material will soon go through the Government Printing-Office, as much of it now does. Take our instance of the *Maine* report, or a geological report on an important mining district, or the Digest of International Law; would it be right to *give* away plates of these or any other work at public expense? The sale of the 'Messages,' with the active agency behind it, will be large, and, with an edition of only 15,000, Mr. Richardson and his partners will receive more than $200,000 above the cost of printing. Miss Hasse seems to miss the very point we wish to make—that a public man should be above making gains from the public service. Would the same gift have been made to a clerk of the committee on printing?—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Mr. Edwin V. Morgan, M.A., now at work on a history of the diplomatic service of the United States, desires the loan of documents and letters bearing on this subject. He proposes to publish a complete list of all persons who have at any time been employed in any diplomatic capacity, and would be obliged especially for the names and addresses of any persons, or the descendants of any persons, who have served, with or without official nomination, as attachés to legations, or as private secretaries (with diplomatic rank) to a diplomatic representative, since their names do not appear in 'The Official Register.' Address Aurora, Cayuga Lake, N. Y., or Cascadilla Building, Cornell Campus, Ithaca, N. Y.

D. Appleton & Co. are to publish the late Charles A. Dana's 'Recollections of the Civil War,' from *McClure's Magazine*.

Henry Holt & Co. are about to bring out 'A History of English Romanticism in the 18th Century,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale; and 'Essays on Education,' by the late Francis A. Walker.

'Some Marked Passages,' by Miss Jeanne G. Pennington, a volume of short stories, is announced by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have in preparation 'Heroes of the Middle West,' by Mary Hartwell Catherwood.

'Paris, Known and Unknown,' by William Walton, is to be published in parts by George Barrie & Son, Philadelphia, with one hundred full-page illustrations (some in color), and eight hundred smaller, to a thousand pages of text. The most significant part of the announcement about these is that wood-engraving will be employed almost exclusively. There will also be maps and plans of the city. The size will be small folio.

The first historical Spanish publication on the late war which has caught our attention is 'Combates y Capitulacion de Santiago de Cuba,' by José Muller y Tejeiro, a small quarto, with maps, issued in Madrid (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

Mr. Luther S. Livingston, editor of 'American Book-Prices Current' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), displays in the issue for September, 1898, a number of praiseworthy innovations by way of betterment of his scheme. One is a reference to previous sales of no fewer than 470 books here itemized; another is an arrangement of the index to exhibit at a glance the demand for American local histories. The war had its natural effect in checking purchases, yet in the late Charles Deane's library the first printed sermon preached in New England fetched $1,000, and Capt. John Smith's 'True Relation' $1,425, while an autograph letter of Governor Bradford to Governor Winthrop sold for $1,030. We remark, for the body of the catalogue, that the Grolier Club's publications fill four pages, and that the first English edition of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' is in request; a set in cloth going for $19.50 and in half levant morocco for $23.40.

We are inclined to agree with Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole in believing that the edition of FitzGerald's Omar Khayyâm which he has just supervised for L. C. Page & Co., Boston, "attains the high-water mark of beauty and convenience." It repeats the Quatrains three times, according to the first, second, and third, fourth and fifth editions. In the last combination the variants are given on the reverse of the leaf preceding the text, which is throughout printed on the right-hand page. Mr. Dole furnishes a brief bibliographical introduction, a chronological table, and a comparative table for the numbering of the Quatrains. Add a rich binding, and the cup might seem full, but a portrait of FitzGerald has been provided, together with twelve illustrations by Gilbert James and Edmund H. Garrett. These are frankly inharmonious, Mr. James resorting to a Persian decorative style, resembling tapestry, while Mr. Garrett's idealizations are Western and romantic. However, they do not fight each other, and together enhance the embellishment of a very praiseworthy publication.

Miss Austen's star is still in the ascendant, and the reading public is ready to absorb the new edition of her 'Emma' brought out in London by George Allen and in New York by Frederick A. Stokes Co. It is in one volume, of condensed but clear and handsome typography, has a pleasing introduction by Joseph Jacobs, and plentiful pen illustrations, by Chris Hammond, that suggest the spirit of the age of the story while ornamenting the page. The book is tastefully bound and is to be commended without reserve.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. celebrate the quarter-century of Gen. Wallace's 'The Fair God' in a reissue in two volumes of much elegance, profusely ornamented and illustrated by Eric Pape. It is emphatically this artist's edition; and to fit himself for the task, he has resorted to travel and to study in museums and libraries in the spirit of the author himself. His work divides itself into two classes, viz., head and tailpieces and initial letters generally derived from Aztec designs or antiquities, but often from natural products or scenery; and full-page imaginative drawings pertinent to the story. Not a few of the latter are striking, as was to be expected from Mr. Pape, but their realism pales beside that of the little pieces just enumerated which very quaintly and fittingly accompany the text as "atmosphere" or "local color." The initials, in particular, in red and black, are as a whole delightful. It is safe to say that all admirers of this historical novel will be more than satisfied with the results achieved by artist and publishers.

More interesting, to our mind, and as a whole more beautiful, is the same firm's new 'House of the Seven Gables,' also in two volumes, illustrated by Misses Maude and Genevieve Cowles. The clever headpieces have not demanded a glossy paper, and the other designs are full-page. These are not wholly devoid of amateurishness, and are of uneven excellence, but they are conscientious reconstructions of the past, and are at their best in the "square and sturdy little urchin" (not very sturdy) pushing in the door (i., 80), "Patrons and superiors" (i., 86), "I am your kinsman" (i., 196), and "A mystery about the picture" (ii., 208). The sum total is that another success has been scored.

'The Last of the Mohicans,' a handsome

impression in two volumes (Macmillan), invites attention on account of its colored illustrations, by H. M. Brock. These, not challenging criticism as a realistic endeavor, have an exotic quality which answers very well the simple requirements of the absorbed novel reader. They brighten the page and portray consistently the leading situations of the narrative.

Encouraged by the success last year of his 'Sunlight and Shadow,' Mr. W. I. Lincoln Adams has brought out more "chapters on pictorial photography," under the title, 'In Nature's Image' (Baker & Taylor Co.). It is distinguished from the foregoing by dealing especially with figure work, by itself and in connection with landscape. As before, the text is accompanied by a large number of well-chosen photographic examples, many of them familiar to readers of the *Photographic Times*.

Mr. C. M. Skinner's 'Myths and Legends beyond Our Borders' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.) is a neat and agreeable little volume, dealing with Canadian and Mexican folk-lore. There are 65 of the Canadian tales and 40 of the Mexican—each occupying on the average about three pages—and occasionally a short story or an historical incident is interspersed with the legends. Mr. Skinner writes smoothly and is well informed, though not absolutely accurate in all respects. We can commend his book to tourists and to those who take pleasure in collecting ancient traditions. It is illustrated by four small but very pleasing plates.

In 'Upper Canada Sketches' (Toronto: William Briggs) Mr. Thomas Conant tells us a good deal about his own family, and something about life along the shores of Lake Ontario since the early part of the century. He is descended from a Loyalist, who became prosperous by trading with the Indians on the one hand and with the merchants of Montreal on the other. Notwithstanding the fact that Mr. Conant is thus by origin closely identified with the region whose progress he traces, his book possesses little more than local interest. This is partly due to the author's lack of literary skill and partly to the complacency of his tone. The text, like the chromolithographs which accompany it, presents a gaudier hue than one cares to encounter in the case of such a subject.

The thick quarto volume of 'Prominent Families of New York' (New York: The Historical Company) admits rather more than the proverbial élite of 400. Its annals fill 636 pages, and in its equal sky each family must content itself with a page—with rare exception with two pages. Its scheme is simple except the principle of selection, which in the nature of the case is somewhat arbitrary. A representative of a given family is allowed, subject to the Procrustean measure, to tell what he can of his pedigree and of himself. This may not be all authentic, but most of it may be taken for genuine belief and supposed knowledge, and will furnish a very good starting-point for posterity. The autobiographers' opinion of their own importance, as occasionally manifested in other ways than family pride, will pass for what it is worth, and will cause no genealogical disturbance whatever. The volume is beautifully and liberally printed and fully indexed.

There are no portraits in the work just described, but these cut a large figure in 'The Second City of the World' (New York: The Republic Press), a quarto volume in commemoration of the creation of Greater New York. There is some history of the movement leading up to the consolidation we now deplore, and of the charter-making; but narrative slides off readily into biography, obviously authorized, and biography demands (if it does not always get) a portrait, and the portrait once at least degenerates into an unblushing business advertisement. When we have our Greater New York fairly set running by the historian, we are treated to a chapter on the judicial system of the metropolis, followed oddly by one on "the origin and development of mercantile accounting as a degreed profession" among us, and by one on the practice of medicine. This queer collocation implies other volumes in continuance: more sketches, more self-puffing, more vignette or full-page portraiture, and another index of names.

Stark's 'Jamaica Guide' (Boston) is a very useful and entertaining specimen of the modern illustrated guide-book. Mr. Stark, though a life-long resident of Boston, is an Englishman by birth, and naturally has an interest in these islands which have so long remained under British control. He has already published guide-books to the other islands, as Barbados, the Bahamas, and Trinidad, which we have before reviewed. The present one on Jamaica is perhaps the best of the series. It gives a sufficient résumé of the history of the island, together with a thorough sketch of the present state of social conditions there, as well as of the topography and natural features. Mr. Stark does not disguise the fact that the prosperity of all these West Indian islands ceased with England's magnificent gift of freedom to the slaves, but he looks forward to the time when other colonists will people these fertile lands, and a renewed civilization will stimulate industry. His books have been favorably received in England, and, best of all, have been praised by the local journals, the best judges of the entire accuracy of his work.

P. A. Lambert's 'Differential and Integral Calculus for Technical Schools and Colleges' (Macmillan) deserves mention for the remarkable power of condensation which it shows. Power of condensation in such a subject is a power of thought that breeds a similar power in the student. Substantially all that is practically needed of the calculus, in any ordinary application of it, is brought within the compass of a small volume, with an ample sufficiency of examples, many of which are practically instructive.

The *Geographical Journal* for November opens with Prince Albert of Monaco's interesting account of his observations during the past fifteen years on the currents, depth, pressure, temperature, density, light, and biology of the North Atlantic, with pictures of his floats, dredges, traps, and some of the deep-sea animals. In a suggestive though brief reference to the question of light and vision in the depth of the sea, he says that it seems certain that many animals are able to store light up "by means of special organs which serve them as lanterns, and to transport it, as it were, throughout the sea." "Some there are, too, which can receive luminous perceptions by means other than eyes properly so called." One of his finds was a "rare annelid, several inches in length, which is so transparent that when placed in a glass basin under the rays of a powerful electric lamp, its presence can only be detected by the disturbance its progress creates in the crowd of other animals; it is discovered, as astronomers discover a star, by the perturbations it brings in its neighborhood." The description by Mr. E. A. Fitz-Gerald of his expedition to Aconcagua in the southern Andes, the ascent of which ranks among the highest climbs on record, contains some interesting facts showing the effects of the rarity of the air at a great height on the human frame. An account of the navigable rivers and projected railways of China, by Mr. G. G. Chisholm, is accompanied by a useful reference-map showing the density of population, mineral resources, chief products, principal trade routes, existing and projected railways, and inland navigation. It is noteworthy that among the minerals, which include coal, both anthracite and bituminous, in vast quantities and mostly of excellent quality, iron, copper, silver, tin, and lead, there is no mention of gold.

The Royal Geographical Society has published separately the report of the Royal Society's Antarctic Conference held in February, with an introduction by Sir C. R. Markham and Mr. J. G. Bartholomew's admirable map, under the title, "Antarctic Exploration: A Plea for a National Expedition."

Whoever gratefully remembers the labors of François Buloz should not neglect to read Mlle. Blaze de Bury's "Sixty Years of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*" in the October *Cosmopolis*. Much more might have been made of the subject, but the article contains enough in the way of reminiscences and observations concerning the founder and the staff of the *Revue*, and its history in general outline. Buloz's firm adherence to principle is perhaps best illustrated by the course he pursued under the Empire: he personally liked Napoleon III., but "at once ceased his visits to St. Cloud when he realized the nature of the ascendancy exercised." In the same number we remark two articles on Nietzsche and recent Nietzsche literature, one in English, by Mr. John G. Robertson, the other in French, by Stanislas Rzewuski. They indicate that the interest in the philosopher is kept alive in his native country as well as in France, where, however, translations of his most important works are as yet wanting, but a noteworthy treatise on his philosophy, by Prof. Lichtenberger, has recently made its appearance. Among the numerous German publications in question Mr. Robertson finds little of permanent value, aside from Prof. Alois Riehl's Friedrich Nietzsche, der Künstler und der Denker,' and, of course, 'Das Leben Friedrich Nietzsche's, by Frau Förster, the poet-philosopher's devoted sister, so far as it has yet appeared.

One of the causes of the decadence of the Spanish power keeps forcing itself on the mind as one reads Count de Moüy's articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which he tells the tragical story of Joanna's insanity. Though rendered comparatively harmless during her life-time by a captivity of nearly fifty years at Tordesillas, that unfortunate Princess transmitted to her offspring those mental defects and weaknesses which, being propagated by several generations of rulers, became the instrument of the ruin of Spanish prosperity. M. José-Maria de Pereda's serial 'Sotileza,' also in the *Revue*, deals almost exclusively with the lower and lowest classes in a Spanish seaport town, but is not repulsively realistic, and contains interest-

ing character-studies and psychological problems.

Unless imposture receives substantial encouragement, it is difficult to account for the offer at private sale of another instalment of the so-called "Trumbull Revolutionary Relics." No evidence exists of Trumbull's having such a collection, and the history given of the relics is so doubtful that it cannot be regarded for a moment. The sketches were proof that Trumbull could never have made them, while the subjects were impossible either for art or for history. The public is now asked to purchase a "miniature" by John Trumbull of his "signing of the Declaration of Independence," and a series of nine miniature portraits of Washington copied by Trumbull from other artists. To such gems may be added a portrait of Washington by Smybert, painted in 1750 (!), and a colored portrait of Betty Washington. These are only a part of the relics offered, but they are sufficient to characterize properly the collection. We note, by the way, that an English bookseller is trying to dispose of the brain, some hair, and a wax impression of the face of Thomas Paine, while the happy possessor of Washington's teeth is looking for some institution in the United States where they may be valued.

—Mr. Edward Stanwood's 'History of the Presidency' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), though based upon his well-known 'History of Presidential Elections,' is practically a new book. A comparison of the two shows extensive changes, especially in the earlier portions. In the 'History of Presidential Elections,' the treatment of the subject, down to the close of the administration of John Quincy Adams, was extremely brief, and, save for its statistical and documentary matter, without notable features. Recent years, however, have seen the publication of a great amount of material relating to this period; and Mr. Stanwood has been able thoroughly to reconstruct this part of his work, and thereby to give to its presentation a relative interest and importance much beyond that exhibited in his earlier work. The changes in the treatment of the period from 1829 onward are less fundamental; but a page-by-page comparison reveals innumerable minor alterations. As examples, we note the fuller statement, still too brief, of the policies of Congress and the President in regard to the seceded States (ch. xxiii.), the apology for Belknap (p. 357), the defence of Blaine (p. 362), and the more extended account of the rise of the Greenback movement (pp. 365, 366). Of a different sort are the expansion of chapter i., on the electoral system, to thrice its original size; a new chapter (xiv.) on the convention system, with which Mr. Bryce's two chapters on the same subject may profitably be compared; and the addition, in place of the former appendix on the conventions of 1892, of two chapters on Mr. Cleveland's second administration and the free-silver campaign. Many of the chapter-titles have also been changed, apparently in the interest of greater vividness. For the rest, the 'History of the Presidency' has the same qualities of accuracy and impartiality which distinguished its predecessor; while the fuller treatment gives to the narrative a continuity and effectiveness which the earlier work did not always possess. The new book will supersede the old one, and, like it, will be indispensable.

—The success of Frederick Remington as joint author and illustrator in 'Pony Tracks' has led him to publish a companion volume of 'Crooked Trails' (R. H. Russell). For all its forty-nine drawings (of which most are spirited) and a style Muybridgesque as its horses, the second book lacks the impulse and the ponderability of the first. Of its ten headings only one—"A Sergeant of the Orphan Troop"—is up to stature. The rest are too tenuous, though full of Mr. Remington's "bead," to merit book form. The artist has a keen eye and ready hand for certain picturesquenesses, and a snapshot style which at its best is hardly less effective than his drawing. It is at his worst that he falls into such an expression as "Physically, Nature had slobbered all over Carter Johnson." There are not so many blunders of Spanish as in 'Pony Tracks'—perhaps because there is less matter wherein they might occur. "Ley de huga," however, for *ley de fuga;* "ladigo," for *látigo;* "serapes," for *zarapes;* "Cammelo," for Camilo; and "jacails" for *jacales*—are all errors that could have been avoided simply by consulting a dictionary. *Tegua* (rough moccasin), which Mr. Remington or the compositor spells "tequa," is one of the hundreds of Spanish Americanisms which, though centuries in use, are not yet included in Spanish dictionaries. There is need of a work which shall hoard up these interesting coinages of the first American frontiers. Mr. Remington's illustration is too familiar to require comment from the artistic point of view. Ethnographically, however, a serious criticism lies. His Western impressions seem to have been, first and deepest, of the Northwest. His Indian is a Sioux—at least a Plains Indian. The autograph of a thousand years of household is illegible to him on a Pueblo face. Apache, Tarahumar, Querés, Ute—all tribes are to him "just Indian." The same curious loyalty to the first impressive type seen runs through his Western horses. They are all the mongrel frost-bitten, peaked cayuse of the Northwest. The real "mustang" (*mesteño*), with all the head and limbs of his Arab blood, and only the rough coat to show for his naturalization of three centuries and a half in the Southwest, has no place in Mr. Remington's "cavoyard."

—Col. Henry Inman's 'Santa Fé Trail' had—despitefully as it entreated the English and Spanish languages and the history of the Southwest prior to 1825—certain substantial worth as unkempt but sincere contemporary chronicle of a significant epoch in our development. So much cannot be said for two later volumes from his stimulated pen; they seem mere camp-followers of the better book. 'Tales of the Trail' (Topeka, Kan.: Crane & Co.) adds nothing to wisdom and little to entertainment. Of its thirteen headings, at least three are warmed over from the 'Santa Fé Trail,' and increased by nothing but words. The closing chapter, charging Custer with suicide, is gratuitous. No evidence is adduced to warrant the airing of a private notion so damaging; and the attempt to argue it from the Indian standpoint might well have been left to such as know Indians more accurately. 'The Ranche on the Oxhide' (Macmillan), an early Kansas story for boys and girls, shows how a story should not be told for any one. With abundant incident (mostly exciting, *per se*, and mostly typical), sympathy is smothered by a perfunctory telling. More lamentable English it would be hard to find between book-covers; and while the author's facts are far more wakeful than his style, they sometimes nod in sympathy. One must ponder, for instance, what pianowires the man and wolf were sinewed withal between whom, hand to hand, "the struggle lasted for several hours." Nor should a veteran of the frontier assiduously misspell "bronco."

—A difference of taste in selections from the best authors is a severe strain on the virtue of impartiality, and the compiler of an anthology may count on the dissatisfaction of the intelligent section of his public. He may be sure that the merest survey of his carefully chosen passages will leave every critical reader in the frame of mind indicated by Goncourt when he said that the last word of all literary discussion is merely this, "J'ai plus de goût que vous." Mr. A. J. George, the author of 'From Chaucer to Arnold; Types of Literary Art' (Macmillan), needs all the courage of his tastes when he claims that his 620 pages are "fairly representative of the best to be found in English literary art from Chaucer to Arnold." Such a book, containing the precious life-blood of all those master-spirits in prose and verse, would indeed be a possession for ever, as Thucydides boasted of his history, and not the rhetorical triumph of an hour. Mr. George has not achieved the impossible, but his book will be read with profit by English-literature classes, for which it is primarily intended, and it would be out of place to cavil at so meritorious an attempt to lure the youthful mind to general reading by means of engaging extracts. We question whether a due sense of literary proportion will be implanted by the "Messages" prefixed to the selections, wherein Mr. George persuades his readers to the love of books by quotations on the pleasures of reading from Milton to Hamilton Mabie. The introduction is hardly plain-spoken enough for the youthful; it is uncertain whether anything will be conveyed to the unsophisticated mind by the saying that "song springs full-formed from the rugged soil upturned by the rustic Ploughman on the Ayrshire Hills, and the Modern Period has begun, the mission of which is to teach how verse may build a princely throne on humble truth" (p. xi). But, to do Mr. George justice, there is not much of this pure literary gorgeousness. His notes are clear and adequate, and the bibliographies attached in the case of each author are useful. The book suffers from careless proofreading; such slips as "Posey" for "Poesy" (p. xii) and "Fichtie" for "Fichte" (p. xvii) offend the most casual eye. The title is unfortunate, since it suggests biography and in no way suits an anthology.

—Mr. Percy Pinkerton and Mr. J. H. Ashworth have prepared for the press a new edition, in two volumes, of 'The Reign of Terror' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). The work is also called on the title-page "A Collection of Authentic Narratives of the Horrors committed by the Revolutionary Government of France under Marat and Robespierre, written by Eye-Witnesses of the Scenes." The present edition is confessedly based on that brought out in England in 1826; and, considered as a contribution to historical scholarship, it is very badly done. For instance, there is no suitable criticism of the sources whence the passages come, and a great many archaic or obsolete notes

are retained. Such a sentence as the following, clearly taken over from the original English preface without any revision whatever, appears in the preface: "A series of events, apparently fortuitous, but marking the special finger of Providence, concurred to his being saved." An amusing feature of the work is the so-called "Note of the Editors." This species of statement appears at the bottom of many pages, and is usually ridiculous, if we are to consider that it proceeds from modern Americans. Thus, in the note to p. 16, vol. i.: "Arms were given to them, and it seemed to be the design to direct them towards the places which were occupied by the enemies. . . . The tocsin which the prisoners heard, these drums which were beating, were, in the opinion of all, except the assassins, the signal of the dangers of the country, and not the command for carnage. The French doubtlessly [*sic*] thought that they were marching against a foreign enemy," etc. The preface announces that some "tedious or uninteresting matter" has been excised from the former edition; and that a new piece relating to the "Republican Marriages" at Nantes has been added. On turning to p. 171, vol. ii., where the new excerpt appears, one finds neither a single word of explanation as to the origin of the fragment, nor even a "Note of the Editors." Moreover, the passage in question is a very disgusting one. Turning once more to the preface, we are told that "the fate of the Princesse de Lamballe was accompanied by atrocities which the mind can hardly conceive, and which the pen refuses to trace." Yet a footnote to this sentence runs: "Vide Appendix, Note A." On consulting this reference, one finds in detail the atrocities "which the pen refuses to trace," and which the pen should actually have refused to trace. In short, this is a very poor edition of a disagreeable work.

—A recent reunion in this city of former companions who, more than forty years ago, were students at the Georg-Augusts University at Göttingen, was an interesting and notable event. The occasion was a dinner, given for the purpose of bringing together as many as possible of the men who were students at Göttingen during 1855-1856, with a few of earlier and a considerable number of later dates. Three contemporaries of the first period—J. Pierpont Morgan, Charles F. Chandler, and James D. Hague—now find themselves, after an interval of forty-three years, residents of New York and members of the Metropolitan Club, of which Mr. Morgan is the President. These three jointly invited all others of the company to meet at a dinner, which was accordingly given at the same club, on Saturday, November 12. On that occasion thirty-six men sat down together, of whom more than half had been students at Göttingen prior to 1858. The company included distinguished representatives from more than a dozen of the universities, colleges, and scientific schools of this country, notable among them being Prof. Mallet (1851) of the University of Virginia, Profs. Goodwin (1853), Smith (1865), and Royce (1875) of Harvard, Prof. Harkness (1854) of Brown, Profs. Chandler (1854) and Burgess (1871) of Columbia, Profs. Caldwell (1855) and Hart (1861) of Cornell, Prof. Packard (1857) of Princeton, Prof. Harris (1857) of Amherst, Profs. Sumner (1864) and Schwab (1889) of Yale, Prof. Remsen (1868) of Johns Hopkins, Prof. Smyth (1880) of Bryn Mawr, besides several more who have been professors in other universities, technical schools, or institutions of learning. The remainder included a considerable number of men who have had more or less distinguished careers as lawyers, doctors, geologists, chemists, and metallurgists, as well as in literary, industrial, financial, and commercial pursuits. There was a notable scarcity of clergymen, artists, and journalists. In addition to the thirty-six actually present, there were sixteen more, in the list of invited guests, who were unable to attend, some highly distinguished, notable among these being Prof. Gildersleeve (1851) of Johns Hopkins University.

—With the menu of the dinner was printed not only a list containing the names of those present or invited, but also one, entitled "In Memoriam," recalling the names of eminent Americans who were students in Göttingen at a much earlier period. Conspicuous among these are Everett (1815), Ticknor (1815), Bancroft (1817), Longfellow (1829), and Motley (1832). The last-named was contemporary with Bismarck, and it was at Göttingen that the intimate friendship between these two men, which has since been often mentioned in their lives and letters, began. Of later dates in the list are the names of Gould, Child, and Lane, all men of eminent careers, the first-named in astronomy, the other two as professors of languages and literature at Harvard University. Some names of lesser note complete a total of twenty-three, beneath which is pictured a crown with the name of Fritz Bettmann, in memory of the celebrated inn at Göttingen, the "Krone," and its well-remembered jovial host, the good and much-loved friend of all American students there during his time. A book has been kept in Göttingen, during many years, in which are recorded the names of all Americans who have studied there. They number several hundred, including many women, upon one, at least, of whom, Miss Margaret E. Maltby, the University not long ago conferred the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. Another book, entitled "What Becomes of Us," records from time to time whatever transpires concerning the Americans who have been students at Göttingen. A copy of this book, recently received here, contains 225 names of men, hardly less than two-thirds of whom are now or have been professors in American universities and colleges throughout the country, from Maine to California, and from Texas to Washington. We may add that the dining-room was beautifully decorated with German and American flags and colors, some of them specially brought from Göttingen. The table was covered with chrysanthemums, yellow and white, the colors of Hanover. The busts of Bismarck and Franklin, with those of other eminent Americans, were placed among the palms and floral decorations of the apartment. A notable incident was the presence at the dinner of nine men who had been part of a company of fourteen who, forty-three years ago, in 1855, on the 4th of July, dined together at Göttingen in celebration of the national holiday.

RECENT BRITISH POETRY.

"Delicacy is the poet's El Dorado," said Edgar Allan Poe, taking, it may be, the phrase from Joubert *(Où il n'y a pas de délicatesse, il n'y a pas de littérature)*, since Mr. Stedman thinks that Poe was acquainted with Joubert, then little read. The quality which is thus praised has been somewhat thrown into the background among recent poets between the influence of Whitman in America and that of Kipling in England; the chief quality just now demanded of the bard being that he should appear "robustious" and not mince matters. It is so far recognized in criticism, also, that Mr. Henley is applauded by many for having gone through the life of Robert Burns stamping out, as if with hob-nailed shoes, every vestige of delicacy from his muse, giving us the peasant, but omitting the poet. Burns, the vulgar village Lothario, he recognizes, but ignores the Burns who could extract from those low amours anything so exquisite as "Here's a Health to Thee, Jessie," or

> "As in the bosom o' the stream
> The moonbeam dwells at dewy e'en,
> Sae trembling, pure, was tender love
> Within the breast o' Bonnie Jean."

Mr. Henley has now published his own 'Poems' (Scribners), and they give a curious impression of his successive phases. His original volume, 'A Book of Verses,' was one from which he should have gained permanent fame, especially by his poems called "In Hospital." There exists perhaps in literature no such marvellous series of personal descriptions. Every attendant, every patient, every physician around him is delineated in a dozen or fourteen lines as if Meissonier had painted them. The present volume, however, though it includes these, is largely a series of imitations, conscious or unconscious, now of Arnold, now of Heine, till he finally settles down upon Kipling. This is not so objectionable where he has simply followed well enough the forms of Kipling's verse, as in the following (p. 211):

> "Bent upon vast beginnings, bidding anarchy cease—
> (Had we hacked it to the Pit, we had left it a place of peace!)—
>
> "Marching, building, sailing, pillar of cloud or fire,
> Sons of the Will, we fought the fight of the Will, our sire.
>
> "Road was never so rough that we left its purpose dark;
> Stark was ever the sea, but our ships were yet more stark;
>
> "We tracked the winds of the world to the steps of their very thrones;
> The secret parts of the world were salted with our bones;
>
> "Till now the name of names, England, the name of might,
> Flames from the austral bounds to the ends of the boreal night."

This is so like Kipling that it might be mistaken for his. As such it is well done, but the more serious difficulty is that in his strongest original poems Mr. Henley often gives us the strength of a costermonger, not of a poet. When he writes (p. 119),

> "In the fell clutch of circumstance
> I have not winced nor cried aloud.
> Under the bludgeonings of chance
> My head is bloody, but unbowed,"

he writes what Kipling might have written, but Shelley never; though Shelley was a stronger man, judged by his work, than either of these two modern poets. Indeed, Mr. Henley carries out his theory so frankly that his whole poem, "The New Adam" (p. 223), is a long burlesque upon anything like refinement in human emotion; and the whole improvisation, "A Desolate Shore" (p. 214), is a grisly and detestable portrayal of the moon and the ocean, as two foul and battered tramps, plotting secret murder—thus smirching one of the noblest scenes in nature with the associations of London crime. Fortunately Mr. Henley is saved at last by the two deepest experiences that can

come to a man of his temperament, marriage and parentage; and a poem like the following redeems many sins against good taste and refined feeling (p. 239):

MARGARET EMMA HENLEY.
(1888-1894.)

When you wake in your crib,
You, an inch of experience,
Vaulted about
With the wonder of darkness;
Wailing and striving
To reach from your feebleness
Something you feel
Will be good to and cherish you,
Something you know
And can rest upon blindly:
O, then a hand
(Your mother's, your mother's!)
By the fall of its fingers
All knowledge, all power to you,
Out of the dreary,
Discouraging strangenesses
Comes to and masters you,
Takes you, and lovingly
Woos and soothes you
Back, as you cling to it,
Back to some comforting
Corner of sleep.
So you wake in your bed,
Having lived, having loved:
But the shadows are there,
And the world and its kingdoms
Incredibly faded;
And you grope through the Terror
Above you and under
For the light, for the warmth,
The assurance of life;
But the blasts are ice-born,
And your heart is nigh burst
With the weight of the gloom
And the stress of your strangled
And desperate endeavor:
Sudden a hand—
Mother, O Mother!—
God at His best to you,
Out of the roaring,
Impossible silences,
Falls on and urges you,
Mightily, tenderly,
Forth, as you clutch at it,
Forth to the infinite
Peace of the Grave.

Still more impressive, and likely to sink into many hearts, is this last poem of the book, taking us on to the end of the child-life:

EPILOGUE.

These, to you now, O, more than ever now,
Now that the Antient Enemy
Has passed, and we, we two that are one, have seen
A piece of perfect Life
Turn to so ravishing a shape of Death
The Arch-Discomforter might well have smiled
In pity and pride.
Even as he bore his lovely and innocent spoil
From those home-kingdoms he left desolate!

Poor windlestraws
On the great, sullen, roaring pool of Time
And Chance and Change, I know!
But they are yours, as I am, till we attain
That end for which we make, we two that are one:
A little, exquisite Ghost
Between us, smiling with the serenest eyes
Seen in this world, and calling, calling still
In that clear voice whose infinite subtleties
Of sweetness, thrilling back across the grave,
Break the poor heart to hear:
"Come, Dadsie, come!
Mamma, how long—how long?"

Mr. A. Conan Doyle, yielding to a successful man's inclination for finding new worlds to conquer, has published a volume of 'Songs of Action' (Doubleday). They are such songs as have appeared here and there in his novels—songs of the sea, the army, the mines, and the hunting-field; all spirited in their way, but never quite stirring the blood. That which comes nearest to this influence, perhaps because it deals with the mildest theme, is this golf song, which in the infancy of that particular muse may be worth quoting (p. 48):

A LAY OF THE LINKS.

It's up and away for our work to-day,
For the breeze sweeps over the down;
And it's hey for a game where the gorse blossoms flame,
And the bracken is bronzing to brown.
With the turf 'neath our tread and the blue overhead,
And the song of the lark in the whin;
There's the flag and the green, with the bunkers between—
Now will you be over or in?

The doctor may come, and we'll teach him to know
A tee where no tannin can lurk;
The soldier may come, and we'll promise to show
Some hazards a soldier may shirk.
The statesman may joke, as he tops every stroke,
That at last he is high in his aims;
And the clubman will stand with a club in his hand
That is worth every club in St. James'.

The palm and the leather come rarely together,
Gripping the driver's haft,
And it's good to feel the jar of the steel
And the spring of the hickory shaft.
Why trouble or seek for the praise of a clique?—
A cleek here is common to all;
And the lie that might sting is a very small thing
When compared with the lie of the ball.

Come youth and come age, from the study or stage,
From Bar or from Bench—high and low!
A green you must use as a cure for the blues—
You must drive them away as you go.
We're outward bound on a long, long round,
And it's time to be up and away:
If worry and sorrow come back with the morrow,
At least we'll be happy to-day.

Far superior to this mere experiment of a successful novelist is the genuine work, warm from the heart, of the actual sailor. Mr. Thomas Fleming Day, author of 'Songs of Sea and Sail' (The Rudder Publishing Co.), is unquestionably English, although now sailing (pp. 26, 57) from American ports; and he has done the task which was waiting for some one to do it; he has bridged the transition from sail to steam, and written the epitaph of the old British sailor. He finds "no life, no beauty" in the great modern battle-ships, "those hideous forms of steel." He makes his shipmates talk, as they pace the bridge (p. 27),

"Of the sailing ship as she yet survives,
Of rigs we never shall see again,
Of inventions that save our seamen's lives,
And murder the breed of sailor men."

Then he bursts into this fine lyric, worth, to our ear, many Kipling ditties (p. 63):

THE SAILOR OF THE SAIL.

I sing the Sailor of the Sail, breed of the oaken heart,
Who drew the world together and spread our race apart,

Whose conquests are the measure of thrice the ocean's girth,
Whose trophies are the nations that necklace half the earth.

Lord of the Bunt and Gasket, and Master of the Yard,
To whom no land was distant, to whom no sea was barred;

Who battled with the current; who conquered with the wind;
Who shaped the course before him by the wake he threw behind;

Who burned in twenty climates; who froze in twenty seas;
Who crept the shore of Labrador and flash'd the Caribbees;

Who followed Drake; who fought with Blake; who broke the bar of Spain,
And who gave to timid traffic the freedom of the main;

. . . . . .

To whom all things were barter—slaves, spices, gold, and gum;
Who gave his life for glory; who sold his soul for rum—

I sing him, and I see him as only those can see
Who stake their lives to fathom that solveless mystery;

Who on the space of waters have fought the killing gale,
Have heard the crying of the spar, the moaning of the sail;

Who never see the ocean but that they feel its hand
Clutch like a siren at the heart to drag it from the land.

I see him in the running, when seas would overwhelm,
Lay breathing hard along the yard and sweating at the helm.

. . . . . .

I see him drunk and fighting roll through some seaboard town,
When those who own and rob him take to the street and frown.

O Sovereign of the Boundless! O Bondsman of the Wave!
Who made the world dependent, yet lived and died a slave.

In Britain's vast Valhalla, where sleep her worst and best—
Where is the grave she made you—your first and final rest?

Beneath no stone or trophy, beneath no minster tower,
Lie those who gave her Empire, who stretched her arm to power.

Below those markless pathways where commerce shapes the trail,
Unsung, unrung, forgotten, sleeps the Sailor of the Sail.

We have before had occasion to speak of the thoughtful and earnest poetic work of Mr. F. B. Money-Coutts, whose new volume, 'The Revelation of St. Love the Divine' (London: Lane), is perplexing the critics. The name cannot, on the whole, be pronounced fortunate; like the book itself, it employs too many words and does not make itself quite clear enough. In more than a hundred pages Mr. Money-Coutts has not really said more than Professor Seeley put into a single phrase: "No heart is pure that is not passionate," or than Mrs. Browning wrote, with heroic purity, in the four lines which the author of this book takes as his motto:

"I comprehend a love so fiery hot
It burns its natural veil of august shame,
And stands sublimely in the nude, as chaste
As Medicean Venus."

The whole 'Revelation' is based upon the attitude that asceticism is wrong, celibacy is wrong, and all but steady mutual love is wrong; and this the poet urges again and again in varied forms, with perfect purity of thought and utterance, yet with too little concentration and sometimes with too little clearness (p. 30):

The mind that loves not leans to lust;
Impassioned minds alone are pure:
They loathe to turn their wine to must;
They guard the vintage, safe and sure.

Not instantly they find their flower,
Unsatisfied with easy goal;
But when they find her, hour by hour
They live to learn her, soul to soul.

Stern chastity let others feel;
Strong principle let others prate:
No blast of impulse makes them reel,
From laws of lust emancipate.

No stranger woman lures or frights
Their fancy; they are fancy-free;
For knowing Love, they know delights
More pure than boasted purity.

. . . . . .

I know no more lascivious sight
Than Parsifal before the walls
Of Klingsor's castle; and no light
Corrupter than from Wagner falls.

An honest man, who loved his dame,
His bride, or mistress, could have riven
An easier passage through that flame
Of flaunting courtesans to heaven!

Not his to parley with those fairs,
To palter with their beckoning eyes,
Or dream of bartering for such wares
His own unpurchasable prize!

No chrismed spear need Manhood crave,
To pierce the enchanter Folly's pale:
He cleaves with Passion's trenchant glaive
His path to Love, the only Grail.

It is sometimes surprising that an author who is capable of being so terse and vigorous should yield himself so readily to what the reader pronounces repetition and dilution, or what he finds too abstract and perplexing. Yet his intense and high-minded earnestness makes itself felt through everything, and so does the serious modesty of his conclusion (p. 104):

"I close, and yet I have not said
The things I give my life to say,

O subtle tint! O subtle shade!
O glory still so far away!

"But not of sunset; no! more white,
More solemn, o'er the World's dark hill
Bosoms the tide of living light,
Of perfect Passion, perfect will."

With Mr. Money-Coutts's volume arrives also one inscribed to him, 'Poems,' by Ernest Hartley Coleridge (Lane), and including also a sonnet addressed to the same friend. Mr. Ernest Hartley Coleridge is already well known by the edition of Byron to which he has contributed so much, and also by a rich volume of his grandfather's notes on books. The present thin volume is a delightful indication of the hereditary gift, and if it has not the wonderful power of the elder Coleridge or the occasional exquisite beauty of Hartley Coleridge's verse, it yet escapes the shadow of sadness which hung over both those gifted men. The present author is, as we understand, the son of Derwent, though he bears the name of his uncle. He has eminently a claim to furnish the following lines (p. 76):

INSCRIPTION FOR THE "COLERIDGE COTTAGE," AT NETHER STOWEY.

Stranger, beneath this roof in bygone days
Dwelt Coleridge. Here he sang his witching lays
Of that strange Mariner, and what befell,
In mystic hour, the Lady Christabel.
And here what time the summer breeze flew free
Came Lamb, the gentle-hearted child of glee;
Here Wordsworth came, and wild-eyed Dorothy!
Now all is silent, but the taper light
Which from these cottage windows shone at night,
Hath streamed afar. To these great souls was given
A double portion of the Light of Heaven!

This "streamed afar" is taken from a letter by the elder Coleridge to John Thelwall (Dec. 17, 1796), in which he said, "The light shall stream to a far distance from my cottage window." The graceful and loving prattle of this description of a child seems to indicate that Mr. E. H. Coleridge looks forward as well as backward (p. 20):

O DEA CERTE.

First and foremost in the list
Of what's fashioned to be kist
Comes a wee and winsome thing,
Whom 'tis fated I should sing;
Half of sunbeam, half of air,
Quaint and saucy, free and fair,
Seen through mist of golden hair.
With a lip that nothing is
But an everlasting kiss;
Hath a score of pretty wiles,
And an armory of smiles;
Eyes that shoot a thousand glances,
Quicker than the sunlight dances;
Dewy eyes of radiant mirth,
Eyes not wholly used to earth,
That espy with fond delight
Vision hid from duller sight;
Ask her what that vision be,
She will laugh aloud for glee;
Loving is she spite herself,
Pretty, little, pranking elf!
And she loves me, therefore I
Sing her praise eternally.

'Ireland, with Other Poems,' by Lionel Johnson (London: Mathews), adds another to that distinctively Celtic library of passionate and ideal poetry which is unquestionably the most interesting thing in current British literature, and is the best antidote to the purely robustious. To open one of Mr. Johnson's volumes is to peep into some cloister of the middle ages, full of sacred associations and sweet remembrance; while even his favorite habit of inscribing each poem to the name of some human friend affects one like the shields of successive knights hung here and there among the cloisters. Yet it is fine to see how the mediæval quality of Mr. Johnson's genius is untainted by bitter partisan judgments: there are few tributes to Cromwell, for instance, which weigh in so delicate a balance his good and evil as this delineation by one who is perhaps a descendant of the very Catholics on whom the Protector laid his hand of iron (p. 64):

CROMWELL.

Now, on his last of ways,
The great September star,
That crowned him on the days
Of Worcester and Dunbar,
Shines through the menacing night afar.

This day, his England knows
Freedom and fear in one;
She holds her breath, while goes
Her mighty mastering son:
His sceptre-sword its work hath done.

O, crowning mercy, Death!
Peace to the stormy heart,
Peace to the passionate breath,
And awful eyes: their part
Is done, for thou their victor art!

Yet, is it peace with him?
Answer, O Drogheda's dead!
O ghosts beside the dim
Waters and shadows dread!
What of his coming shall be said?

. . . . . .

Maintains he in Death's land
The quarrel of the Lord,
As when from his live hand
Leaped lightnings of the sword?
Is Come, good servant! his reward?

Hath the word come, Well done!
Or the pure word of doom,
Sending him from the sun
To walk in bitter gloom,
With the lost angels of the tomb?

Prince of the iron rod
And war's imperious mail,
Did he indeed for God
Fight ever, and prevail,
Bidding the Lord of Hosts, *All Hail?*

Or was it ardent lust
Of majesty and might,
That stung and fired and thrust
His soul into the fight:
Mystic desire and fierce delight?

Nay, peace for ever more!
O martyred souls! He comes,
Your conquered conqueror:
No tramplings now, nor drums,
Are his who wrought your martyrdoms.

Tragic, triumphant form,
He comes to your dim ways,
Comes upon wings of storm:
Greet him, with pardoning praise,
With marvelling awe, with equal gaze!

It is pleasant to notice among the numerous friends to whom Mr. Johnson inscribes poems, the well-known name of the one American representative of the "Celtic renascence," Miss Louise Imogen Guiney. The poem which bears her name is (p. 77) "De Profundis." Mr. Johnson's wild and haunting poem, "To Morfydd," has found a place in the poetic encyclopædia, and he now adds this to it (p. 43):

TO MORFYDD DEAD.

Morfydd at midnight
Met the Nameless Ones:
Now she wanders on the winds,
White and lone.
I would give the light
Of eternal suns,
To be with her on the winds,
No more lone!

Oh, wild sea of air!
Oh, night's vast sweet noon!
We would wander through the night,
Star and star.
Nay! but she, most fair!
Sun to me and moon:
I the vassal of her flight,
Far and far.

Morfydd at midnight
Met the Nameless Ones:
Now she wanders on the winds,
White and lone.
Take from me the light,
God! of all thy suns:
Give me her, who on the winds
Wanders lone!

'Poems,' by Charles Rosher (London: Haas), has illustrations so weird and so unnecessarily repulsive that there is relief even in the placidity, amounting almost to tameness, which marks the poems; and it is perhaps only in this verse taken from a poem, "To a Star," that we find a freak of words which matches the pictures (p. 9):

"Then, too, I live in the Bornless Beyond,
Most belov'd star! Free from Form, Space, and Time;
Feel thy Light's flowing waves subtle and fond
Thrill through my soul in a life-living rhyme,
Star of all stars in the Bornless Beyond!"

A new edition of 'Gray's Poems,' edited by D. C. Tovey, M.A., Clark Lecturer at Trinity College, Cambridge (England), is doubtless by far the best collected edition of Gray yet printed, and contrasts curiously with the carelessness and inaccuracy of the "Pickering" edition, so long in favor. It goes over the same ground traversed by Dr. Rolfe, but extends this to the whole body of poems; and it is a little curious that Mr. Tovey seems quite ignorant of the minute and careful labors of Dr. Rolfe, though he recognizes in his notes the work done by Prof. Kittredge. His final readings agree curiously with those of Rolfe, but he comes nearer to a *verbatim et literatim* transcript of the original text. We say nearer, for neither of them actually accomplishes a reproduction. Rolfe makes no attempt at it, so far as spelling and capitalization go; that is, he substitutes *moping* for *mopeing*, and *tower* for *tow'r*, while he leaves unchanged *th' inevitable hour*, although there seems no reason why that too should not be modified. In all these things Mr. Tovey follows closely the original (duly spelling *cheerful chearful* and *aisle isle*); yet he adopts the capitalization not of Gray's own manuscript, but of the early editions, which are much less consistent. Thus, in Gray's manuscript we find

"The Curfew tolls the Knell of parting Day,
The lowing Herd wind slowly o'er the Lea;
The Plowman homeward plods his weary Way,
And leaves the World to Darkness and to me."

This was the fashion of the time—to capitalize every noun substantive, as is still done in German, but the practice was already yielding, and the second edition of Gray (Mason's, in 1775) capitalized only the Curfew in this verse, and the capitals were thereafter sprinkled in with much discrimination, as in Mr. Tovey's reproduction. The point where he and Dr. Rolfe both depart from the manuscripts and the early printed texts is in dividing the poem into four-line verses, whereas it was originally printed continuously.

It was Miss Mitford who was responsible for the descriptive phrase, employed fifty years ago, "He translated Horace, as all gentlemen do." The description would almost seem transferable to the present day, but with Goethe substituted for Horace. The "Faust" especially has been the subject of innumerable successive attempts, none of them quite so satisfying, after all, as the unpretending prose version of Hayward. The latest arrival is 'The First Part of the Tragedy of Faust in English,' by Thomas E. Webb, LL.D., formerly Regius Professor of Laws in the University of Dublin. This is the second edition (Longmans), and now includes the closing scene of the Death of Faust from the second part of the poem. This last selection at first surprises the reader, and seems rather like an evasion of the task of giving the whole second part in English, as has been done by Sir Theodore Martin or Bayard Taylor. A little reflection, however, shows the plan to be a good one, for there is nothing finer in either part than the bold Goethean conception of allowing his hero to live to be a hundred years old and blind, yet still happy, consecrating himself more and more to public service, and then

dying painlessly at last in the very midst of a vast project for the benefit of millions of men. In the words of Dr. Webb's translation (p. 208):

"Such stir of life could I behold, and stand
Midst a free people on their own free land,
Then to the moment I might say,
O tarry yet! Thou art so fair!
My work on earth, when eons pass away,
Will still have left its traces there!
The very foretaste of a joy like this
Supplies the moment of the highest bliss."

He sinks back and dies, and the thwarted Mephistopheles says:

"Time masters him who could my power withstand;
There lies the old man, stretched upon the sand!
The clock hath stopped!"

This part of the translation is better and more vigorous than that of Martin or Taylor; but in his notes and comments Dr. Webb is a little of a doctrinaire, and rather comforts himself with the thought that his views "may be singular, but they have one recommendation—they remove all the objections that have been advanced against Goethe by his critics." As one of his theories consists of the assertion that the celebrated cry of the angel above the dying Gretchen, *Sie ist gerettet!* (She is saved) does not refer, as has been supposed, to the salvation of her soul, but only to the much more trivial matter of escaping a public execution, it may be justly inferred that Dr. Webb's point of view does not err in the direction of the ideal.

STONEWALL JACKSON.—I.

Stonewall Jackson and the American Civil War. By Lieut.-Col. G. F. R. Henderson, Professor of Military Art and History in the Staff College (England), author of 'The Battle of Spicheren' and 'The Campaign of Fredericksburg.' With portraits, maps, and plans. In two vols., 8vo, pp. 550, 641. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

The fame of Thomas J. Jackson as a soldier is already a matter of pride to Americans who were ready to give their lives to uphold the Union which he sought to destroy. We are rapidly learning to recognize the issues of the civil war, momentous and terrible as they were, as being yet political in such a sense that partisanship in them might be consistent with personal worth and high ideals of duty. Northern men do not abate a jot of their conviction that the life of the nation was at stake, and that, as the system of slavery was the cause of the rebellion, it was an implied doctrine of our Constitution that, war being waged against the Union in behalf of that system, it was within the war powers of the Government and was its duty to impose the abolition of slavery upon the defeated party to the struggle as the condition of peace.

The general acquiescence of Southern men in this result has made it easy, within a single generation, to renew a feeling of patriotic attachment to our whole country, and to witness the extraordinary spectacle of harmonious comradeship in a foreign war among men who distinguished themselves on opposite sides of the great conflict over the existence of the nation itself. It is possible for us now to separate the discussion of the history of the civil war from questions of personal character and motive; to cease insisting upon the guilt or innocence of personal conduct, and to treat both persons and events with the calm temper appropriate to historical studies. This does not mean that we are or can yet be quite impartial. The roots of great emotions and sympathies are twined about our heart-strings, and our voices would sound hollow if we were to proclaim

"Tros Tyriusve mihi nullo discrimine agetur."

When we have done our best to cultivate candor, we shall still find the debate often turning upon facts that cannot be completely verified, and it is not in human nature to solve such doubts against our friends. Each disputant will, rather, claim whatever the other cannot clearly establish, and in conflict of testimony will prefer the witnesses on his own side. We soon learn that we must expect such color to be given, both to narrative and to judgments, by those who, in becoming biographers, become, in spite of themselves, the eulogists of a leader and the advocates of a cause.

When it was announced that Col. Henderson of the British Staff College had written the Life of Jackson, we knew that his campaigns would be told in clear, strong, and well-connected narrative; but would it be the judicial work of one who stood aloof from prejudice and predilection, and would judge his hero and the cause he stood for in the dry light of historic truth and military principles?

Turning the pages of the book to learn the author's standpoint, we see an early chapter devoted to the causes of the war. In it we find no mention made of the repeal of the Missouri compromise dedicating the territory of the United States north of 36° 30′ to freedom, nor of the Dred Scott decision, which declared unconstitutional every territorial restriction upon the spread of slavery, though such restrictions had been coincident with the formation of the government. These sweeping aggressions of the slave power, which caused the organization of the Republican party and gave to Mr. Lincoln his election, are not even remembered in the history of secession. The anti-slavery agitation and the Southern belief in the doctrine of State-rights are supposed to have been the grounds of the rebellion, though there was no political or purely moral organization in the country which sought to attack slavery within the States, and both the Republican party and the abolitionists expressly disclaimed any such constitutional right. The action of Virginia in seceding the author finds to be "not only fully justified, but beyond suspicion," and he declares that "not till her liberties were menaced did she repudiate a contract [*i. e.*, the Union] which had become intolerable."

Colonel Henderson credits the North with acting upon honest convictions under a different interpretation of the Constitution, but he leaves no doubt as to his personal accord with the principles and the action of Jackson when he upheld the ordinance of secession and offered his sword to defend it. When, in the course of the narrative, he reaches Lincoln's famous emancipation proclamation, he characterizes it as a deliberate violation of the Constitution, thus ignoring all principles of international law relating to flagrant war, and assuming that the institution, to sustain and extend which the war was made, continued to be protected in the belligerent States while their armies were in the field to overturn the whole Constitution, and to break their connection with the nation which it organized. He ignores also the conditions which the proclamation contained, giving three months' opportunity to abandon the rebellion and resume the rights which the Constitution assured in a state of peace, and limiting its operation to the States and parts of States which, after such warning, should persist in war. No Southern writer has gone further, and we have to accept the fact that the book is written from the Confederate standpoint in doctrine and in sympathy.

The distinctive marks of partisanship in Confederate histories of the civil war, which are rarely absent, may be stated in brief to be: (1.) That general partiality already mentioned, which makes a writer apologetic or eulogistic as to his friends, and more or less unfair to his opponents. This, of course, may be seen in varying degrees in writers on both sides. (2.) The specific misuse of the numerical statistics of armies, and the unwillingness to apply the official returns as tests of battle strength in the same manner on both sides. This has made the question of "effectives" in the opposing armies the *pons asinorum* of Confederate mathematics, which few get beyond. (3.) A reflex friendliness toward McClellan as a Presidential candidate (against Lincoln) upon whose election vague hopes were based. The discussion of his military career and of his removal from command is evidently, often amusingly, different in tone from that used toward any other army commander on the national side. (4.) An exaggerated dislike for those who succeeded McClellan or were supposed to be his rivals, or representatives of the opposition to him. As part of a similar prejudice is the disproportioned severity of criticism of those who were supposed to be in the same earnest accord with Mr. Lincoln that Jackson was with Mr. Davis. (5.) A hostility to Longstreet after his early acceptance of the political results of the war, which has been followed by so marked a current of military detraction as to imply doubts of the judgment of Lee, who continued to the end his trust in and reliance upon his lieutenant.

Col. Henderson shows a bias in each of these respects, though in a less degree than many who have preceded him; and the kindly frankness with which he apologizes to any whose susceptibilities he may wound, partly disarms criticism. He recognizes the authority of the numerical returns in the Adjutant-General's department, which many Southern writers entirely ignore, but has not quite rid himself of fallacious arguments as to results. For instance, at the opening of the campaign of South Mountain and Antietam, he tells us that the strength of Lee's army was "65,000 effectives," not making deduction for straggling; but we are not able to find that he anywhere has informed his readers that this means nearly 73,000 "present for duty," as the returns of McClellan's army were made up, and must be so counted in a fair comparison of the opposing forces. In a footnote to page 252 (vol. ii.), he states that his estimate is made by taking Lee's returns for the 20th of July, adding Jackson's and Ewell's divisions which were not included, and deducting 10,000, his estimate of the Confederate casualties in the campaign against Pope. This gives us easy means of verifying the figures. Lee's return of officers and men "present for duty" was 69,732 (O. R. xi, pt. 3, p. 645). Jackson's command (his own and Ewell's divisions) consisted of 36 regiments and 4 batteries

of artillery (id., p. 648). The average strength of the regiments in Lee's army was a little over 350, and of the batteries 75, by that return, and Jackson's force was therefore 12,900. This, added to the 69,732, gives a total of 82,632 "present for duty," and the deduction of the 10,000 casualties still leaves 72,632. It has often been shown that the officers and non-commissioned staff, etc., deducted from the "present for duty" to make the Confederate "effectives," was from a tenth to an eighth of the whole. The smaller fraction would give 7,266, and subtracting it we have 65,369 "effectives" which closely agrees with our author's estimate. As the undiminished "present for duty" is the smallest number ever attributed to a Northern army, complete candor would have required that Lee's forces at the crossing of the Potomac should have been stated in round numbers at 73,000.

Col. Henderson has not been able to resist the Confederate example of making still further large reductions for "straggling." He says "so great had been the straggling" that "Lee at most could count on no more than 45,000 men to receive the attack of over 90,000." Two reflections will at once suggest themselves to a reader at all familiar with the subject: First, why is not a proportional reduction made from McClellan's 90,000 "present for duty" to match the subtraction of 28,000 from Lee's? and second, is it good military criticism to state the strength of an army on either side of a campaign with deductions for the number of stragglers who have become such since the campaign opened?

We should be glad, if truth would permit, to claim for the national forces the perfection of discipline which would bring the whole of McClellan's army upon the field without a straggler, as our author's figures do. But truth will not permit it. Nor will Col. Henderson when the subject is directly under discussion. On pages 338, 339 (vol. ii.), he has collected some of the evidence on the subject, and concludes that "thousands and tens of thousands, Federals as well as Confederates, were absent from their commands" as stragglers. Comparing the straggling in the opposing armies, he says, "The Confederates had almost as much reason to complain" as the Federals. If, then, straggling was at least as bad in McClellan's army as in Lee's, when our author reduces Lee's from 73,000 to 45,000, the same ratio of computation would reduce McClellan's from 90,000 to 55,000. We search his book in vain to learn why this was not done. We do not believe the straggling was anything like so great in either army as the author thinks, but we insist upon equal treatment.

Our own judgment is that, in sound military criticism, stragglers cannot be considered at all for the purpose of taking off the shoulders of a commander the responsibility for accomplishing all that could be demanded of him with his whole force. The vice is a gross breach of discipline, and discipline will cure it. The permission of it is a fault in commanders of all grades from the head downward. Col. Henderson quotes Gen. Richard Taylor's assertion that he had no stragglers in his brigade when he reported to Jackson in the Valley campaign, and that the latter wished Taylor would teach the other brigades a like discipline. There were brigades in McClellan's army that marched all day along a road lined with stragglers of other commands, and at a roll-call on camping at night had none. Straggling, therefore, is a fault chargeable to commanding officers, and they may as well plead their faults of strategy or of tactics to excuse a disaster as to plead that their men straggled.

But Colonel Henderson has not properly discriminated, in his treatment of the subject, between stragglers and absentees. He quotes from a letter of Gen. McClellan to the War Department in which the General speaks of a corps which reported 15,000 absentees. He could have named similar cases in Lee's army. These absentees were of two classes—"with leave" and "without leave." The former included sick men on furlough or leave, sick men in hospitals at the rear, men detached and doing service at the departments in Washington or at hospitals or posts in the rear, etc. The absentees without leave were chiefly men who, having been furloughed for any cause, or having been discharged from hospitals, did not join their colors. In the letter mentioned, Gen. McClellan referred to these, saying that only a small proportion of such men rejoined; in some regiments only 4 or 5 per cent. The actual deserters were in the same class of "absentees without leave," but they were comparatively few.

The "stragglers" of whom we are talking are men who are borne on the rolls both of McClellan and of Lee as "present for duty," meaning chiefly those who lag behind in a march, but are believed by their officers to be near at hand and intending to do their duty and to catch up with the command to which they belong. They are within the theatre of active operations of the army, and presumably within reach of the provost-marshal. When a man's absence was so prolonged as to show an intention to stay away, it was his officers' duty to report him among the "absentees without leave." It cannot be too clearly understood that we are not discussing the case of men reported absent from either army, but only that of men who are reported present. Both generals asked their governments to provide means for arresting and bringing back the absentees without leave, and stringent legislation was passed; but both generals knew that they were themselves responsible for the stragglers within reach of their provost-marshals, and who were carried on their rolls as present. There can, moreover, be no dispute among fair-minded men that whatever be the mode of reporting the strength of contending armies, the historian must apply the same rule of computation to both. The absentees without leave were a cumulating class, increasing in number as the war went on. The stragglers decreased as discipline improved.

It is impossible to follow Col. Henderson into all the arguments and statements in which we think his predilections warp his judgment, but we must touch upon one which directly affects the relation of the army to the Government in both Great Britain and the United States. A favorite topic with him is the meddling, as he regards it, of the two Presidents, South and North, with military affairs. As between Lincoln and Davis, he is at least impartial in treating both as marplots who injured their own cause, and his theory is embodied in the proposition (vol. i., p. 254) that the complete control of military operations and the military resources of the country should have been put, unreservedly, into the hands of one general on each side. This proposition should be examined with some care.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

The attempt to galvanize history into a semblance of life so rarely succeeds that no one need feel surprised at its failure in 'A Little Girl of Old Boston,' by Amanda M. Douglas (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Throughout, the past and the present are hopelessly confused. People at the end of the last century glibly use to-day's or yesterday's slang, and seem to feel no shame at the anachronism. The story, being in not the least hurry to get on, is always willing to wait while tedious descriptions of present conditions elbow their way in, prefaced by some remark about what was to be a century later, and the result is very dreary without even the poor relief of being improving.

An agreeable contrast is 'The Story of Little Jane and Me,' by M. E. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), a reminiscence of childhood in New York in that dim antiquity which was, after all, only fifty years ago. An exact and vigorous touch has brought out vividly the home life of that period, and one closes the book with the same affectionate interest in the two little girls which their charming portrait as frontispiece awakens on opening it.

The reader is moved to wonder what is signified by the title of Walter Douglas Campbell's book of stories (New York: R. H. Russell). That the tales are 'Beyond the Border' of truth is too obvious. Beyond the border of probability or possibility they surely are, dealing as they do with trolls, witches, giants, and all fabulous monsters of iniquity. Can the author have been shrewd enough to guess that they would also prove to be beyond the border of a rational child's endurance, for their utter silliness? The witch on the cover, with her cauldron and frogs, is quite the best part of the book. To open it is only going further to fare worse.

If the stepmother theme be conceded a desirable one for children to dwell upon, it is in the interest of truth and justice to present occasionally, as a corrective to the more common idea, a picture of the kind and conscientious stepmother, able by sheer goodness to overcome prejudice. This Julia Magruder has done in her 'Labor of Love' (Lothrop). Still, even in this case one cannot suppress an instinct of sympathy with the idealistic child who "remembered mamma perfectly," and to whom the thought that "dear papa" seemed to have forgotten her, though she had "idolized him" such a short time before, was nothing less than a real and bitter grief. We must admit that to some tales the hackneyed end of "living happily ever after" seems unfitting and even immoral. The other half of love's labor here concerned is the reclaiming of a wayward boy whose good instincts, though deeply buried, were at last brought to the surface and allowed to guide him to right action in response to the unfailing love and trust of his foster-parents.

'Tony Drum,' by Edwin Pugh (Henry Holt & Co.), may be at once classed among those books about children which are, or ought to be, read only by grown people. It is as distinctly one of them as 'Sentimental Tommy,' which in some ways it recalls, though its sordid tragedy is infinitely less relieved by comic incident. It abounds in aphoristic philosophy, and though some of the wise say-

ings come from the mouths of babes they are not addressed to them: "It is wiser to be a happy fool than an unhappy sage"; "I suppose as you grow up you change and get silly"; "What a man chiefly wants is protection from himself." These maxims, however true, do not meet the wants of childhood. The illustrations, by William Nicholson, in his characteristic style, also make their appeal rather to the grown person's appreciation of clever technique than to the child's love of prettiness.

This childish taste will find gratification in a large and sumptuous 'Baby's Record' by Maud Humphrey (Frederick A. Stokes Co.). For the record is not, as the uninitiated might expect, a blank book, but has a round dozen gayly colored pictures of babies, and other decorations besides, though ample space is left among them for the records of those earliest years which are most fortunate when least eventful.

A frugal impulse to make the most of a good thing prompts the same publishers to print the twelve large color illustrations with an accompaniment of prose and verse by Elizabeth S. Tucker, and new designs and border decorations, under the title of 'The Littlest Ones.'

Petrarch, the First Modern Scholar and Man of Letters. By James Harvey Robinson and Henry Winchester Rolfe. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

A work on Petrarch by a professor of history and an ex-professor of Latin arouses the expectation of something a little out of the common, and the volume before us amply fulfils the promise of its title-page. In the first place, its outward appearance offers an agreeable contrast to that of most literary treatises. A tasteful cover, adorned with a dainty sketch of Vaucluse from Petrarch's own hand, encloses over four hundred beautifully printed pages of reading matter, a reproduction of the most trustworthy portrait of the poet, a facsimile of his handwriting, and a good index. In substance the book differs no less widely from the ordinary study of a man of letters. Its purpose, we are told, "is essentially historical. . . . It views Petrarch, not as a poet, nor even, primarily, as a many-sided man of genius, but as the mirror of his age—a mirror in which are reflected all the momentous contrasts between waning mediævalism and the dawning Renaissance."

This view of Petrarch is presented to us chiefly through the medium of his correspondence: a little less than three-fifths of the volume is made up of varied selections from his letters, while the rest consists of introduction and comment by the editors. The epistolary portions are drawn both from the easily accessible 'De Rebus Familiaribus' and from the comparatively unutilized 'De Rebus Senilibus.' They appear here, not in the original Latin, but in a clear, flowing, and sufficiently idiomatic English version, which accurately reproduces the author's thought, and often pleasantly suggests his phraseology. For the commentary the editors acknowledge indebtedness to Körting, Fracassetti, Voigt, and Nolhac, but their own contribution is very considerable. Petrarch's life, views, and character, his friends, and the political and literary conditions of his day are so vividly set before us, and the letters and the explanations are so skilfully fitted together, that the work forms a complete, homogeneous, and lifelike picture of the poet and his times. A student already familiar with the *trecento* would, perhaps, have preferred less introduction and more Petrarch; but the general reader, for whom the book is doubtless primarily intended, could hardly dispense with any of the guidance offered, and the editors' work has been done so well and with such evident love that it would seem ungracious to complain of its quantity.

The Petrarch who is here portrayed is above all the scholar, the founder of classical learning, the father of the Renaissance; in his life and thought verse-making occupied a very subordinate place, and even public service was of less importance than the pursuit of knowledge. Industry, seriousness, decorousness, intellectual independence, patriotism are some of his conspicuous traits; his chief fault—a natural one for a man of his talents and fortune—is vanity, which shows all the clearer through his labored expressions of humility; but the most interesting feature of his complex nature, from the psychological standpoint, is, no doubt, the unceasing struggle in his heart between mediæval asceticism and the pagan joy in life and love of beauty.

Unfortunately for Petrarch, he did not discover Cicero's letters until comparatively late in life, and his own epistolary style is founded rather on the orator's more formal works; though in the main clear, forcible, and elegant, it is too rhetorical and too general to satisfy the modern reader. A good story is often spoiled by lack of specific details; for instance, the anecdote of the great poet's visit to the literary goldsmith, which in the hands of Boccaccio would have been bubbling with humor and aglow with local color, falls flat as told by Petrarch. Only occasionally does he vouchsafe to give us a bit of real life. One of the most charming passages in the volume is the account of the old grammarian who could not endure any criticism of Cicero:

"He would stretch out his hand and say imploringly, 'Gently, I beg of you; gently with my Cicero.' And when we asked him if he found it impossible to believe that Cicero made mistakes, he would close his eyes and turn his face away, and exclaim with a groan, as if he had been smitten, 'Alas! alas! Is my beloved Cicero accused of doing wrong?' "

Highly amusing, too, is the narrative of Petrarch's angry discussion with a mocking heretic and disciple of Averroism—a philosophy which, be it said parenthetically, played the same part in the fashionable society of the fourteenth century that Buddhism plays in ours. The interview ended disastrously for the advocate of Moorish doctrines. The indignant poet "plucked him by the gown, and, with a want of ceremony less consonant with my habits than his own, hustled him out of the house."

The far-reaching consequences of Petrarch's ignorance of Greek are justly estimated by the editors. The following passage may be of interest, not only to students of the Renaissance, but to the uncompromising Latinists who determine our school programmes and college admission requirements:

"It is a sad pity that he was so handicapped, for if the first Humanist had known and appreciated Homer and Plato and Sophocles, as he did Cicero and Virgil and Seneca and Livy, all our modern culture would be something far finer. We should be simpler and clearer in our conceptions, and better developed æsthetically. If Hellenic influences have never played their due part in our education, if the proportion between the Greek and the Roman elements has been unnatural, this is owing mainly to the insufficient opportunities of Petrarch and his earliest disciples."

The Story of Marco Polo. By Noah Brooks. The Century Co. 1898.

This is substantially an abridgment, to perhaps 100,000 words, of Yule's 'Marco Polo.' It is, by a necessary consequence, highly entertaining to grown persons and to the young. Nevertheless, we cannot altogether approve of the manner in which it has been executed. Col. Yule's notes, although written in a popular way, are addressed to persons interested in geography and not ignorant of it. But the present volume, which does not contain a single map, nor any recommendation to consult one, is to go into the hands of persons to whom the location of the countries is not clearly known, and who have hardly heard of the most celebrated cities mentioned. Now the book of Marco Polo, if it is so read as to lend an interest to a study of historical geography, will afford a delight that nothing exhausts but the work's coming to an end; but if it is read without any definite ideas about the relative situation of the countries, the whole narrative produces a confused effect like the hum of many voices; the marvels overheat the air for one another, until the book is laid down as tiresome.

More information ought to have been given about the countries mentioned, and especially about the cities, as well as about many other matters. For example, the reader is throughout wearied with remarks about spelling, like this: "He also calls him Cublay at times, but most scholars give the name as Kublai." Now, since Marco tells us that he had in his early years in China to learn four different kinds of writing, why would it not have been well to anticipate the mention of this, and explain near the beginning of the volume that none of those modes of writing had any connection with our alphabet, that they were none of them alphabetical at all, but partly composed of ideographs and partly of syllabic signs, like all the most ancient writing? The obvious fact might then be pointed out that "Cublay" was one of Rusticiano's ways of representing the name he heard Polo pronounce; while "Kublai" is the spelling now generally used to represent what appears to be the same sound. When Rusticiano and Polo between them distort the name of a place, or use some other name, Mr. Brooks almost invariably remarks that it is "the modern" so and so, no matter how old the name may really be. Thus, we are told that "the Bastra of Marco Polo is the modern Basra"—the town which in our childhood's 'Arabian Nights' figured as Bassorah, which we accented on the penult. But there never was a *t* in the name of this town; Bastra is simply a forgetfulness of Polo, or a mishearing or euphonic change of Rusticiano—probably the last.

In these and other places, Mr. Brooks seems perfectly indifferent to imparting correct information. Of course, the limitation of the text of Col. Yule—who never sufficiently reflected that the narration of journeys had long been diligently studied as an art by Polo, as he himself gives us to understand, and that he could tell his story in different spirits to suit the tastes of different scribes—remains as a fault of the present volume.

Nine Years at the Gold Coast. By the Rev. Dennis Kemp. Macmillan. 1898. Map, illustrations. Pp. xv, 279. 8vo.

Our author shows us the work of a Wesleyan missionary among the natives of West Africa. In a somewhat rambling and disconnected narrative of his experiences are to be found many interesting and suggestive observations on the country and the people, their customs and superstitions, and their mental and moral development through industrial education and religious instruction. Mr. Kemp is hopeful of the future of the negro, and with reason, judging from the evidences which he gives of his capacity as minister, teacher, translator, cultivator of the ground, and skilled artisan. "The most remunerative" gold-mine, for instance, in the colony "at the present time is that which is managed by a native." This last fact has great possibilities in it, even if the opinion of the "miner with considerable experience in South Africa," quoted by the author, that there were "twenty Johannesburgs at the Gold Coast," were only half true. Mr. Kemp shows unusual liberality and broadmindedness in his treatment of the vexed questions of polygamy and the liquor trade. In regard to the latter he is "thankful to be able to say" that "the drink traffic does not tend to poverty, . . . does not bring in its train untold social misery, . . . does not tend to the perpetration of crime." Nevertheless, he would prohibit it if it were in his power, "because the native who abstains is infinitely superior to the man who indulges." Considering the prevailing impression regarding the habits of the West Coast negroes in this respect, it is somewhat startling to find a native in a temperance meeting exhorting his hearers to fight the demon of strong drink; "for," said he, "unless we do put forth our best efforts in this direction, there is a danger of becoming as drunken as the people of England." Many useful hints are given as to the preservation of health and the treatment of malarial fever. The fever will prevail, in Mr. Kemp's opinion, until cultivation has cleared the land of the "bush."

One of his last chapters is descriptive of a journey to Kumasi after its capture, to reëstablish a mission station, and he says that the scenes which he witnessed impressed him with the fact "that the expedition was a most righteous one." Outspoken in his opinions and decided in his convictions, he was evidently on the best of terms with his fellow-workers of other churches, including the Roman Catholic. For this he was no doubt indebted to a genial Christianity and a fund of humor to which his book bears not infrequent witness. The illustrations, especially of the fetishes and specimens of native jewelry, are very interesting.

A Primer of Heraldry for Americans. By Edward S. Holden, LL.D. The Century Co. 1898. 16mo, plates.

We regret to say that this Primer is a credit neither to the compiler nor to the publishers. That it is said to be prepared "for Americans," is distinctly uncomplimentary to our fellow-citizens, as the book would not be welcomed in Great Britain, and as the examples selected have nothing to do with America. As the principles and terms of English heraldry are now fixed and immutable, no elementary treatise can contain any novelty except in the matter of arrangement or illustration. There are now many such works in print, of various degrees of excellence, suited to the purse of every student. This Primer is far below the average of even the least pretentious of recent issues. The arrangement of subjects is imperfect, the cuts are faint and ragged, and the heavy-faced type on the small page is trying to the eyes and temper.

Apparently a bid is made for local support by calling the book one for Americans. Of course, there is no such thing as American heraldry, the coats-of-arms rightfully used here being of British origin, though doubtless in the future many bearers of Continental shields will be numbered among our citizens. The only contributions to the history of colonial coats-of-arms still remain those of the *Heraldic Journal* and 'Elements of Heraldry,' both printed in Boston some twenty years ago.

We cannot forbear protesting here against Mr. Holden's only original suggestion. On p. 12 he states that "in England, France, Germany, Austria, and in the United States, there is no legal obstacle to the assumption of armorial bearings by any individual or corporation. Any individual has the right to assume and to bear a coat-of-arms." Here the whole gist of the suggestion lies in the words "no legal obstacle." It is true that in England the powers of the Earl Marshal, who is the head of Heralds' College, have fallen into disuse, but that does not alter the fact that these "assumptions" of arms, *proprio motu*, are regarded there as evidence of snobbery. It is like the assumption of false titles in the republic of France, an offence against social etiquette for which the law provides no penalty. So long as the fact remains that titular honors, including coat-armor, are granted solely by sovereign states, all self-assumed decorations are spurious, fraudulent, and ridiculous. Mr. Holden seriously misleads his readers in making such assertions.

It is not to be questioned that Congress might sanction a system of coats-of-arms which would be entitled to respect and recognition abroad as well as at home, but the time for it has not come. Heraldic forms are so admirably adapted for decorations and for seals, that it is a pity that this use cannot be naturalized here. As the matter now stands, the study of heraldry in this country is purely in the line of foreign examples, mainly historical; and to pursue it intelligently, one must use the standard text-books of the country under consideration.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, Isabella M. The Prince of Peace. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 1, 1898.

The Week.

Spain's final surrender is made, as her first choice of a hopeless war was made, after despairing petitions to the Powers for help. She has appealed to every European chancellery, and has got for answer only a reminder that this is a very hard and practical world; that friendly sentiments are lovely, but that shell and bayonets and hard cash are the things that count; and that the best thing she can do, being vanquished, is to agree with her conqueror quickly, lest his terms be made more severe. The Spanish Commissioners were, of course, bound to make the best fight they could. They have argued valiantly with men who all the while had them by the throat, and at last have had to admit that arguments are of no avail against brute force. This end they must have foreseen from the beginning. In fact, there is good evidence that Spain sent her Commissioners to Paris well knowing that they would have to consent to stripping their country of all her colonial possessions. Doubtless they hoped for a larger money consideration for the Philippines, but to the loss of the islands the majority of intelligent Spaniards had made up their minds in advance. Indeed, the shrewdest opinion in Spain has been, ever since the protocol was signed, against the policy of keeping the Philippines, even if allowed to. Chambers of Commerce have distinctly warned Sagasta that the country would not endure the sacrifices necessary in order to restore Spanish sovereignty in the archipelago. It may turn out, as some patriotic Spaniards have already predicted, that Spain's getting rid of all her colonies will be a blessing in disguise—may lead to better conditions and better government in the Peninsula itself. But, for the moment, it is certainly a cup of humiliation which is pressed to the lips of Spain. She is witnessing and consenting to the final crash to ruin of the greatest empire, in mere extent of territory, that the world ever saw.

Our Office of Naval Intelligence has just published a pamphlet entitled "Views of Admiral Cervera regarding the Spanish Navy in the Late War," which contains some astonishing revelations. It is made up of letters written by Cervera, from a date long anterior to the outbreak of hostilities down to May 5. They show that that gallant officer knew, and repeatedly informed his Government, that the sailing west from Cape Verde meant the certain destruction of the Spanish fleet. As early as 1895, Admiral Cervera had written a demonstration of the inability of the Spanish navy to cope with that of the United States. In January last he renewed his warnings on that head, pointing out the gross defects in the equipment of his ships. Shortly before the *Maine* was blown up, he wrote to the Minister of Marine complaining that "no charts of the American seas" were to be had by the naval commanders. As the conflict drew sensibly near, he detailed to the Government the frightful unpreparedness of his squadron. The *Colon* was without her big guns; the *Vizcaya's* boilers were foul, and she could make only half speed; the heavy guns on the *Teresa* and *Oquendo* were practically useless through defective mechanism and bad cartridges. On the very day before the fleet was finally ordered to sail, the captains held a council of war and decided that it would be madness to sail to the West Indies, and advised the Government to recall the ships to the Canaries, abandoning Cuba and Porto Rico to their fate. When, in spite of all, sailing orders came, Cervera obeyed, like the brave patriot he was, yet felt it his duty to tell his Government that "nothing can be expected of this expedition except the total destruction of the fleet, or its hasty and demoralizing return." In this opinion he was joined by Admiral Vilamil, who said he was ready to die (he did at Santiago), as a seaman should be, but that he must tell Sagasta the loss of the squadron was certain. Another of the remarkable features of the sailing of this last of the Spanish Armadas is that it put to sea absolutely without a plan. "There is no plan or concert," wrote Cervera on the eve of sailing. It was only by a kind of good luck that he even got into Santiago. It is needless to dwell upon the last act of the tragedy. Cervera made his despairing dash on July 3 only on positive orders from Blanco.

The report of the Secretary of the Navy is interesting chiefly as showing the views entertained by the Administration in reference to our future naval policy. The recommendations include three new battle-ships, of 13,500 tons each, three armored cruisers of 12,000 tons each, three protected cruisers of 6,000 tons each, and six sheathed and coppered cruisers of 2,500 tons each. The total estimated cost of this new outfit, exclusive of armor and armament, is $37,000,000. The cost of the armor and armament will bring the total up to $50,000,000. This is upon the assumption that the Philippines are to be "annexed to the United States." Without this acquisition, the Secretary says that the three armored cruisers at $4,000,000 each, exclusive of armor and armament, would be sufficient. This is only the beginning of the expenditure for Philippinedom. It does not include coast fortification or military service. It is the "entering wedge." For a nation that has had within four years a Treasury deficit of nearly $200,000,000 on ordinary expenditures, this is rather a startling programme for its future peace establishment.

Gen. Shafter's speech at the banquet of the Sons of the Revolution on Friday night was the fullest defence of the Santiago campaign he has yet made. But, from the standpoint of military science, his defence is practically an admission the his critics are right. He confessed that the whole expedition was an improvised affair, crowded upon inadequate transports with defective equipment; but he did not "complain" of this, for what good would it do? He could not take his cavalry horses, he could not take his ambulances, or land his heavy artillery. but what of that? Hugger-mugger and helter-skelter though everything was, the men were brave and uncomplaining and "got there." Gen. Shafter admits that there was very little "strategy" in his campaign. He just flung himself ashore as best he could and floundered along towards Santiago. Of course, he has the brute fact of final success to point to, but what all the foreign attachés will report is the undoubted truth that only Spanish sloth and inertia prevented an appalling disaster to Shafter's army. He will still maintain that this was a condition he fully counted upon, and that he did things in the teeth of all rules, knowing that the Spanish generals would not be alert enough to give him the punishment he deserved. But what is this except to say, regarding Santiago, what the Duke of Wellington said of a general sent to take Rangoon, "He is a fool, and a d——d fool, but he can take Rangoon"?

The crying need of reorganizing the whole army system is one thing the President's investigating committee have found out, if they have discovered nothing else. Whenever a straightforward and experienced man like Col. Roosevelt takes the stand, we get a terrible picture of a system so stupid that even the gods would strive in vain to administer it. Put incompetent men in charge, and chaos seems come again. The Circumlocution Office was nothing to our army system. Dr. Conner fairly groaned last week when once more the responsible officer evaded detection. Just as the Doctor was, as he thought, getting at the responsibility for inadequate wagon transportation at Montauk, the

witness blandly told him that all that was quite another man's affair. So it has been all through. Every suspected officer swears he did his whole duty, yet the result was confusion, and waste, and disease, and suffering, and death. The results were awful, yet nobody was responsible. Then Congress should not lose an hour in devising a system which would make somebody responsible.

It is not five months since the First New York Regiment, composed of some of our best National Guard companies and commanded by a graduate of West Point, was sent to Hawaii's capital, famed for its pleasant climate and attractive life, and equipped with several hospitals and plentiful sanitary supplies. The regiment had no fighting to do, no trenches to lie in, no hardships of any kind to endure, and yet it is doubtful if any of the regiments which went to Cuba have suffered much more than it has done from disease of all kinds. According to recent dispatches, it had no less than 162 patients on November 14, of whom 63 were typhoid cases alone, and three more deaths were reported as additions to an already shockingly large list. So bad has this state of affairs become that the War Department has confessed its inability to keep the New Yorkers there any longer, and has ordered their immediate return to San Francisco. It even assures the public that now, after all this suffering and death, the camps have been moved to high ground, and "every possible sanitary precaution taken." But still more frightful is the fact, similarly reported from Honolulu, that the "transport *Arizona* sailed for Manila, November 10, leaving about 160 men in the hospital" because of an outbreak of disease while the ship was en route from San Francisco. Yet we hear of no charges of incapacity or incompetence, no reports of inspectors-general, and no court-martials.

Our Thanksgiving Day appears to have been celebrated in a warlike manner abroad. In London the Anglo-American *entente* was made the subject of felicitation at a dinner at the Hotel Cecil, where the Lord Chancellor made a speech in which he said that England and America united could, if need be, defy the world in arms—a sentiment which was rapturously applauded. In Berlin our givers of thanks dined at the Kaiserhof, where the principal speech was made by Gen. Wheaton, U. S. A. (retired). The General hoped that Congress would now realize the necessity of an army commensurate with the needs of the greater nation—that is, a nation which includes twelve or fifteen hundred tropical islands off the coast of Asia. This sort of thanksgiving, we hardly need say, is not to our taste. We should have preferred, both in London and in Berlin and still more in every American city, the giving of thanks to the Ruler of the Universe that he has put it in the heart of the most powerful monarch in the world, the man who rules more territory and can put more soldiers in motion than any other man or nation, to call on his fellow-men to cease making preparations for mutual slaughter. It is to us a bewildering coincidence that the freest nation in the world, or rather the two freest nations, should be celebrating a quasi-alliance for what it may be worth in shot and shell, while the autocrat of all the Russias is offering to both of them and to all mankind the benison of peace.

Mr. Chamberlain's article in *Scribner's* wisely enough points out for our benefit the great lessons of English colonial administration. Everybody knows that we must copy these or make a mess of it. But what strikes one most is Mr. Chamberlain's scarcely veiled eagerness that the United States take the plunge. Of course, he repeats all the platitudes about his being a foreigner, and its being presumptuous in him to offer advice, etc.; but, as a disinterested well-wisher, he is bound to say that he sees a great career of glory and usefulness before us if only we rise to the height of our present opportunity. Now, saying nothing about the wisdom of the course Mr. Chamberlain recommends, we cannot overlook the fact that this counsel of his comes from a man who, if he saw profit for himself or his country in misleading us, would not hesitate to do so. This may be inferred from avowals of his own. In the recent Life of Parnell we have a judgment on the Irish leader from Mr. Chamberlain's pen which is even more significant as regards his own character than in respect to Parnell's. He said: "It is idle to talk of Parnell treating me badly or of my treating Parnell badly. *We acted as politicians.*" Then Mr. Chamberlain added: "Mr. Parnell was a great man. Unscrupulous, if I may say so. I do not wish to be misunderstood. I mean that he was *unscrupulous like every great man.*" Americans may well fear unscrupulous great men even when they come bearing Philippines. Time was when our protectionists would have needed no other argument against expansion than English approval of it.

Were the colonial questions now before this country to be decided by a careful study of the proposed island populations, of their social and physical status, and of the adaptability of our own institutions for the intended changes, the article by Mr. W. Alleyne Ireland in the December *Atlantic* would certainly attract widespread attention. Having been seven years a resident in the English West Indian colonies and a careful student of the labor conditions to be found there, Mr. Ireland is able to adduce unanswerable facts to prove that only those colonies have succeeded in which cheap and indentured coolie labor has been imported to work the fields upon which the natives turn their backs as long as they have waste land upon which to squat and to raise the few necessaries of life. In British Guiana, the most successful colony of all, whose exports have an annual value of $9,000,000, the coolies form no less than one-half the population and perform three-quarters of the work. These indentured East Indians are kept in a state of semi-slavery, since they must work whether or no, five days a week and seven hours a day for five years, at the expiration of which they become absolutely free and can return home. So, too, in the Dutch colonial possessions, Java, which has a system of forced labor akin to slavery, has prospered amazingly in the same period during which Surinam, with free native labor, has barely avoided bankruptcy. Of all the West Indies only one, Barbados, is successful without coolie labor, because here the laborer is under absolute compulsion to work or starve. As a final proof of the correctness of his view of the necessity of indentured labor, Mr. Ireland points to our own Hawaiian Islands, where the question of the disposition of the contract Japanese, Chinese, and Portuguese workers awaits settlement and confronts McKinley with the possibility of still another "parochial" race trouble. In conclusion Mr. Ireland takes the strong ground that "any attempt to govern the tropical possessions of the United States on democratic principles is doomed to certain failure." What then? Is the country which is founded on the belief that all men are created equal, and which sacrificed 600,000 lives and vast treasure in a four years' war to uphold that doctrine, to keep its newly acquired outlying populations in a state of semi-slavery, and to import into them those same cheap contract laborers now refused admission to its States by law?

The increase of gold continues at such a pace that the Mint Bureau can hardly keep pace with it. The Director, Mr. Roberts, says that the returns from South Africa for the ten months of the present year show that its yield will exceed that of 1897 by $10,335,000. The yield from the Yukon country promises an increase over last year of $8,000,000, and these figures lead to the belief that the world's gold production for 1898 will reach the enormous sum of $283,192,800, that of 1897 having been in round figures $240,000,000. The whole product of gold and silver together in 1888 was only $251,000,000, reckoning the silver at its coining value of $1.29 per ounce. In other words, this year's production of gold exceeds the production of both metals ten years ago by more than $30,000,000. The gold famine that many po-

liticians, and some men of scientific pretensions, predicted with such positiveness two or three years ago is as disappointing and elusive as the day of advent in the creed of Millerism.

It will probably be news to most people that the United States Government is actually digging a canal to connect the waters of the upper Mississippi River with those of the upper Illinois River. This fact is proclaimed with the outward semblance of truth in the last number of the *Engineering News*, which paper also gives the reasons, or the alleged reasons, why the work was undertaken. The principal one was that railroad freights were too high. The Chicago and Rock Island Road, which this canal (they call it the Hennepin Canal) will parallel for a considerable distance, was getting about a cent and a quarter average for hauling a ton of freight one mile. To bring down this extortionate charge the people of the United States from Maine to California must needs be taxed about $10,000,000, one-fifth of which has already been spent. But since the report on the strength of which this work was begun was made to Congress, the freight rates of this railroad have fallen to less than one cent per ton per mile. That this reduction was not due to terror engendered by the Hennepin Canal is evident from the fact that other railroads not exposed to this threatened competition have lowered their rates correspondingly, and some of them even more. The inference of the *Engineering News* is that by the time this canal is finished, there will not be a pound of freight that it can carry at a profit. That this is the probable outcome is shown by the present canal along the Illinois River from La Salle eastward, of which the Hennepin ditch is to be the continuation, which is used only by ducks and geese, the few boats there being either capsized in it or as idle as painted ships upon a painted ocean.

The projectors of the scheme of connecting the great lakes and the Atlantic Ocean at this port, by a canal from the St. Lawrence to the upper end of Lake Champlain and another from the lower end of Lake George to the Hudson River, say that a cut of twenty-nine miles in Canadian soil, and another of twenty-four miles in this State, are all that would be necessary; and their estimate is that the cut from the St. Lawrence to Lake Champlain would not cost more than from $3,000,000 to $4,000,000. The scheme has been favorably reported on by a deep-waterway commission authorized by Congress and appointed by the President, and its advocates are proceeding on the idea of having the two Governments perform the work, each doing the construction on its own side, thus making it a Government rather than a private enterprise. An effort will be made by those interested in the plan to have the Anglo-American Joint High Commission, which is now in session at Washington, take it up. It is well enough that it should be considered and discussed, but the burden of proof rests upon those who advocate the project. They must furnish convincing proof that, if their scheme be carried out now, it will not prove as great a failure as would have been the case with the Pittsburgh-Cleveland ship-canal project if that had been put through. A few years ago that looked like a most profitable investment, but now Mr. Carnegie, who broached it, says: "I do not wish to appear even by silence to be considered a party to any attempt to entice private capital to invest in building a canal between Pittsburgh and the lakes, because I am convinced that this capital would be entirely lost; if the canal were completed, the existing railroads could and would perform its service cheaper and more satisfactorily, because they can run all the year round."

The extraordinary spectacle has long been presented in the District of Columbia of a nation which at the start established the principle of home rule in local affairs, denying all share in the government of their city to the people who inhabit its capital. A fresh movement has been started at Washington for the restoration to the people of the right to vote; but it is safe to predict that Congress will lend it no favor. The experiment of letting the voters of the capital "run things" was thoroughly tried, and it proved such a dreadful failure that it had to be abandoned. The whole nation was disgraced by the scandals which forced themselves upon the attention of every visitor. The chief difficulty is the fact that a third of the men who would vote if the right of suffrage were allowed are negroes, most of whom are ignorant and corruptible. Unscrupulous white politicians would organize this force if they had the chance, and there would always be the danger of its proving a majority. Congress will therefore undoubtedly continue to make confession that the capital is incapable of self-rule, and maintain the present system of a commission of three members, appointed by the President, which has worked excellently under Executives of both parties.

Col. Roosevelt put party "harmony" on the only solid and enduring basis in the following deliverance at the Republican banquet in this city on Tuesday week:

"Whether I make a success of my administration depends on you men and on me and those whom you represent. Either of us can spoil it if we choose to be foolish. We have got to recognize differences of opinion and bury our prejudices. I appreciate the honor of my election. You are bound to me; you are bound to help me get a decent government; you are bound to subordinate your own feelings for the common cause. You recognize that Democratic and Republican rascals have got to be punished. Help me to do it."

That is a very different thing from the usual "harmony" talk, which invariably means that the Better Element of the party shall stop "kicking" at the disreputable doings of the Practical Element, and stop making a row about the appointment of shady characters to office. "Harmony" in support of decent government, in which the advocates of bad government bury their prejudices in the interest of the common cause, is something unknown hitherto in the political annals of this State, and its advent will be a cause for public rejoicing. If Gov. Roosevelt can carry that policy to success, the State will be justified in holding a jubilee.

Holland is noted for radical theology, but in the matter of international copyright she is still conservative to the point of being cobwebbed and mossgrown. The Netherlands Bookselling Union recently voted, two to one, to oppose granting copyright of any kind to foreigners, and pointed in justification to the utterances of leading Dutch statesmen and jurists. There is Mynheer Dr. J. D. Veergens, for example, who considers the "doctrine of so-called intellectual property" to be absolutely "untenable and exploded." He agrees with Mynheer Dr. J. A. Levy in maintaining that "an idea as soon as it is expressed is public property." Thought, their argument is, exists only in order to be "disseminated." Dissemination is the only way of making thought "fruitful." Hence authors ought to be glad to have their thoughts seized upon and disseminated by as many publishers as possible, and if any money is to be paid to anybody, the publishers will see to that. We believe, however, that a pretty long experience has shown that authors simply refuse to express ideas if they become public property in the act, and lock up all thoughts in impenetrable bosoms when publishers are at liberty to disseminate them for nothing. In fact, the main reason and confessed aim of copyright laws is to "encourage" authors to express ideas; and this method has, on the whole, worked better than the incontinent stealing of the ideas as soon as expressed. Our Dutchmen are on stronger ground, however, when they argue that "translation is not piracy." The reason it is not is, that it is "original work"; the translator "works in his own sphere of thought," and into it "the original author does not enter; the translator is absolute master." On translation of that sort (and a great deal of it is current) it can justly be said that the original author has no claim; the only payment he could demand would be of the nature of damages.

DEMOCRATIC FATALISM.

We commented the other day on the paralyzing effect produced on the public by the announcement that a measure is "sure to pass." This was first introduced by Platt, as a sort of warning that the boss system was firmly established, and that the efforts made by reformers to oppose his measures, during Mayor Strong's administration, were idle. One can hardly say the same thing *ipsissimis verbis* of the Philippine scheme, but another phrase of like meaning is now in much vogue, namely, "We're in for it." This has, and is meant to have, precisely the same effect on the opposition to the Philippine scheme that "It's sure to pass" was meant to have and had on the opposition to Platt's measures. One meets with it every day in the mouth of some good man, as a reason why he should not spend either time or money in making head against "imperialism." If we chose to take a very despondent view of the situation, however, we should cite it as one of the numerous, but each in itself insignificant, signs that the old American republic is in a bad way. It is assailed by the very same class of men at whose hands all republics have perished—men who admire force and who abhor discussion. They cannot openly say, "You must not talk about our enterprises; we will not permit it." This would arouse furious opposition, and make clear to the country the danger which threatened it. They attain their end by indirect, but more effective means; they make it appear that no opposition will be of any use, that the thing in question "is sure to pass" or that we are already "in for it"—in other words, that we have already gone so far that retreat is impossible.

There could not be a better way of dealing with a democracy in the condition of ours—that is, a commercial democracy, busy in making money, rather sick of "politics," and very ready to leave to any one who is willing to take the trouble the management of their affairs. To persons in that state of mind it is a positive relief to hear that something or other, which they feel they ought to resist, is "sure to pass," or that they are already "in for it." It means deliverance from labor and trouble, possible loss of business, and an infinity of talk. This is really the way republics go down and have always gone down. Anti-democratic politicians like war for precisely the same reason. War always stops discussion instantly. The old barbaric traditions of every race make fighting, or the promotion of fighting, appear the highest service a man can render to his country, so that every politician knows that if, by hook or by crook, he can bring on a war, no matter how—if, for no reason or for any reason, he can procure the use of the national force against some foreigner—he will silence his adversaries far more effectually than he can hope to do by argument. Forty thousand stump-speakers of the highest order could not do so much to silence opposition, to dispose of Christ and the prophets and philosophers, as by the firing of one shot in anger or the capture of a tramp steamer. We have seen this ourselves very recently. All the arguments that you may think fatal to a war—its causelessness, its injustice, its needlessness—can be disposed of in five minutes by the men interested in bringing it on, by simply beginning it. More than this. It was pointed out by Dr. Huntington in his Thanksgiving sermon that, the war once begun, even those who approved of it in the beginning to the point of considering it "a holy war," lose complete control of its direction; that a war begun obtensibly as a war of humanity may be turned before their eyes into an unusually brazen war of conquest, and "negotiations" so called, for distinctly predatory purposes, may be conducted for months before the eyes of the community, which will have no power to help itself even when the conquest threatens its own institutions. The reason of this is simple enough. When you let the war begin, the power passes to the commander of the army. Not only "the laws" are silent, but for practical purposes nearly every other mode of expression ceases. The "public opinion" described by Mr. Bryce as ruling America is, after a war, whatever the commander of the army—that is, the President—chooses to consider it to be.

For all these reasons and a good many others, we cannot help treating all utterances which help to leave the "good old cause," the cause of free popular government, without witnesses in this stage of its history, as treason of the worst kind. We have not, no thinking man has, the smallest doubt how this "imperialist" movement will end. The history of America under it will, in all human probability, be that of a calamity greater by far than the fall of the Roman Empire, considering what our example has been, what our religion is, what our knowledge and experience are, considering how many instruments of civilization we possess which the Romans did not. Therefore, we say that no one who professes to have convictions about this matter, should ever for one moment seem to doubt their value or their final triumph. Nothing is for us "sure to pass" until it has passed; we are not "in for it" until the Senate has confirmed the treaty. The American people will long survive the Republican party; and as long as it lives and enjoys free speech, it will be able to correct mistakes and right wrongs. The cause of civilization and liberty is eternal, and its claims on our best services are also eternal. They will never die out. Those of us who think this Philippine scheme is born in iniquity and must bear iniquitous fruit, are bound to keep saying so, no matter what the Senate or the President may do, or how much money it may make for the warriors. Nay, if it destroys this government, it will be none the less our duty to labor for its restoration, and it is our firm conviction that those who may now succeed in saving it, or who may have hereafter to work for its revival, will hold as high a place in American history as those who became immortal by founding it.

THE PHILIPPINE TYPE OF BOSS.

Our native bosses will be pleased to learn that the Filipinos have had experience with boss rule, and are likely to recognize it when American civilization carries our best forms of it among them. Samples of the Philippine variety are given in Prof. Worcester's interesting book, which we review on another page, and no one can read his descriptions of it without being struck by the similarity to our foremost American specimens. Perhaps the most striking sample given by Prof. Worcester is one Pedro Cuevas, who was the Dato, or Chief, of one of the Moro tribes in the island of Basilan. Pedro spent a considerable portion of his early manhood as a convict in a penal settlement. He conspired with two other convicts in a plan of escape which he worked out successfully. They behaved so well that they were granted unusual liberties, and, while working in the fields, suddenly attacked their guard, killed the officer in command, and escaped with a carbine in their possession. They next attacked the shop of a Chinaman, killed him, plundered his shop, and fled in a stolen boat to Basilan.

Pedro set up as a boss as soon as he landed at Basilan. He went to the nearest Moro village, asked for the Dato, and boldly entered his house. The Dato hurled a lance at him as he entered, narrowly missing him. Pedro then challenged the Dato to come out and fight, and the challenge was accepted, but as the Dato fought with a lance and wooden shield, and Pedro with a carbine, Pedro came off victorious, killing the Dato with a bullet sent through the shield. He and his three companions began war upon the tribe with such effect that they soon concluded they would rather fight with him than against him, and he led them against neighboring tribes with such prodigies of valor that they became convinced he bore a charmed life and they made him Dato.

He then set up absolute boss government. Death was the penalty for the slightest opposition to his will. "At first he did his own killing, but when his reputation was once firmly established, he turned work of that sort over to his subordinates." If he chose to drive off a herd of cattle, and the owner

objected, Boss Pedro said: "Cut off his head," and it was cut off. If he wished to add a young girl to his already large collection of wives, and the father objected, the order was again, "Cut off his head." He was too shrewd to fight the Spanish authorities, and always took sides with the Spanish Governor, sending him the head of any one of his subjects that he might express a wish for at any time. On one occasion when he was standing with a visitor in front of his house, a Moro from a neighboring village rode up on a fine horse. The visitor expressed admiration for the horse, and when Boss Pedro asked him if he would like to have it, replied thoughtlessly that he should. Whereupon, greatly to his surprise, the Boss "picked up a rifle, took deliberate aim, shot the Moro dead, and presented his guest with the mount." Which one of our bosses has the "nerve" to rule in this supreme style?

Boss Pedro is a native, but there was a few years ago at least one Spanish Governor in the islands who was his equal in firmness if not in barbarity. This was Gen. Arolas of the town of Sulu, the same man who is now administering the only kind of firm Spanish government there is in Havana. It is said that he was sent as Governor because of a desire of the Spanish Government to get him into some place from which he would be extremely unlikely to return. As soon as he arrived in Sulu, however, he made prisoners of most of its native Moro inhabitants, set them to work in improving the sanitation of the town, changing it from a fever centre to an unusually healthful place. Gradually he constructed water-works, a market, established a free-school system, and converted the natives into disciplined soldiers, with whom he marched against neighboring Moro villages, subjugated them, and extended his rule over them. He, like Boss Pedro, convinced the natives that he bore a charmed life, and they called him "Papa" and obeyed him absolutely. He punished disobedience with death. When Prof. Worcester's party of visiting naturalists asked him for permission to hunt in the woods adjoining the town, he granted it, saying that if they followed his directions, they would come through all right. His directions were: "If you meet armed Moros outside of the town, order them to lay down their weapons and retire. If they do not instantly obey, shoot them." It was one of the rules of the town that no horse should be tied in the street. One day the Boss was walking through the town when he saw a saddle-horse hitched to a tree. He had the owner summoned before him, explained the rule to him, and asked him not to violate it again. A few days later he found the same horse tied again in the same place. Calling a sergeant, he ordered him to take four men, lead the horse to the end of the wharf, and throw him over. The order was instantly obeyed. The owner found his horse at the end of the wharf dead, after a long search.

It is very clear that our bosses can give few points to these experts in the business, no matter how much similarity there may be, either in the preparatory training of their early years or in their subsequent practical experience in power. We give these citations with some reluctance, lest the attractiveness of the Philippine field encourage unduly the desire of our native boss talent to get there as soon as possible. It would, doubtless, be a gain for us here at home if they were to go in large numbers, but their doings in the islands might bring American civilization into disrepute. One of the saddest conclusions of Prof. Worcester's book is the following: "On the whole, after making somewhat extensive observations among the Philippine natives, I am inclined to formulate the law that their morals improve as the square of the distance from churches and other so-called 'civilizing influences.'"

STATE POLICE CONTROL.

It is evident that great pressure is being brought upon Col. Roosevelt to induce him to favor, as Governor, legislation taking the control of the police of this city out of the hands of the Mayor and placing it in the hands of the Governor. There are said to be two schemes with this end in view. One is the creation of a metropolitan police commission for this city alone, to be appointed by the Governor, something like what we had between 1857 and 1870; and the other is the establishment of a state constabulary system bringing the police forces of all the cities in the State under State control. The principle involved in both schemes is the same, and is nothing less than the complete destruction of the right of self-government in cities. Nothing could be more grotesque in the way of consistency than for a Republican Legislature to enact either one of the schemes this winter, only a year after our famous new charter, constructed and enacted by Republicans, was put in operation. The great merit of that charter, all its advocates assured us, lay in its bestowal upon us of a "larger measure of home rule" than we had been permitted hitherto to enjoy.

There can be only one excuse or justification for such legislation as is proposed, and that is that this city, and every other city of the State in case all are included, have shown an utter incapacity for self-government. The police power lies at the very foundation of government, and if that is taken away, why leave any other power for a city to exercise? Why not govern us entirely by State commissions? If we have shown ourselves unfit for self-government, why not take all government away from us, as well as a part of it? Are the Republicans of the State as a party prepared to take the position that the cities of the State have shown themselves unfit for self-government? Are the eminent Republicans who constructed the charter prepared to confess after a year of trial that they were all wrong in their views of its wisdom? Is Col. Roosevelt prepared to take back all he has said in favor of responsible government in this city, with especial reference to police legislation?

As is generally known, Col. Roosevelt has been a strong advocate of a single-headed police system. He advocated that method of police administration when he was a Police Commissioner, as did two of his associates, Messrs. Andrews and Grant, and he urged the new charter-makers to adopt it. Did he then urge that the power to appoint this single head should be taken from the Mayor and lodged in the Governor? On the contrary, when in March of last year Lauterbach was preparing a bill for State control of the police, Col. Roosevelt said to a reporter for the *Evening Post:*

> "The police force should, of course, be kept in the control of the city. All the legislation needed is to allow the Mayor to exercise throughout his term the power of removal he now has for six months."

The fundamental principle of a single-headed control is direct responsibility to the appointing power. Can we get that by having a single head selected by a man who is not directly responsible to the people of the city? Did Col. Roosevelt receive a majority of the votes of the people of this city at the last election? Is he their choice as the official who is to control their police force? Of course, if he favors State police control, he will insist upon a single head. How then will Gen. Tracy and the other Republican charter-makers reconcile that method of control with the following views which they put forth in February, 1897, in defence of the bi-partisan police provision of the charter?

> "The final and conclusive objection to a single commissioner is that the power over the property and liberty of the citizen, wielded by the head of such a body as the police force of the consolidated city, is too tremendous to be intrusted to any one man. The abuse of such power, when in the hands of a single individual, could only be known when the power had been exercised and the mischief had been done, and, even then, its operation would be so secret and so insidious that detection would be difficult and prevention out of the question."

If the power is too great to trust to one man, who is selected by the Mayor, whom the people of the city themselves elect, does it become any less dangerous when trusted to the hands of one man selected by a Governor who is not responsible directly to the people of the city? Then, too, suppose this power of appointment of heads of police for all the cities of the State be given to Gov. Roosevelt in 1899. Suppose, also, that he exercises it with wisdom and

discretion and puts only fit men in all the places. Will that be just government which permits a Republican Governor to exercise supreme police control over cities which have Democratic majorities? Then, too, suppose that Gov. Roosevelt's successor is a Democrat, what will be the condition of Republican cities then?

It is useless to beat about the bush in this matter. The proposal, no matter what form it may take, is for partisan legislation of the most extreme and unjustifiable kind. It would be directly contrary to the spirit of our amended Constitution, which, by giving us separate municipal elections, decreed that we should have better opportunities for securing self-government in cities. It would be as much of a step backward as our new charter-makers took when they restored to us the abomination of a double-chambered Municipal Assembly, for we have tried this method of police control and found it so unsatisfactory that we abandoned it nearly thirty years ago. It has been tried in other States, notably in Massachusetts, and the results are not such as to justify its revival here. If we are to have changes, let them be along the lines of real home rule and in accordance with the teachings of experience. Let the Bureau of Elections be separated from the Police Department entirely, and let the bi-partisan Police Board be replaced by a single Commissioner appointed by the Mayor. Then, if things go wrong, the people of the city will know whom to punish, in case they desire to punish anybody. We shall have just as good a government as we deserve, just as good as we will take the trouble to secure. It will not help matters at all to rid us of the responsibility for the kind of rule we consent to live under.

FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

PARIS, November 15, 1898.

France is awakening from a long dream. The Fashoda incident has taken her completely by surprise, and its termination has been a matter of great confusion. Ever since the war of 1870, France imagined that she had and could have but one enemy; the thought of a war with England never entered her mind. Not that there was anything between France and England like an alliance, or even the *entente cordiale* of the time of Louis Philippe; France thought that her ancient ally of the Crimea had been too indifferent to her misfortunes, and had too readily acquiesced in the hard conditions of the Treaty of Frankfort. But this sentiment did not create any ill-will, as the war of 1870 had really been provoked by the Empire, as it had been short, and as the victories of Prussia had been too crushing to give to the neutral Powers much influence in the result.

Germany remained the only objective of the party which called itself the party of the *revanche;* at the same time, Germany has become so formidable that it was not safe to quarrel with her on any point. It is certainly very remarkable that the French press, unbridled as it is, and the French Parliament, where you can count the firebrands by the dozen, have, as a rule, observed the greatest caution with regard to Germany and to German affairs. Once only has there been a real danger of serious complications between France and Germany —at the time of the Schnaebelé affair; but this was an accident, and served to make the press and Parliament even more cautious than they were before. It must be borne in mind that the system of compulsory and universal military service, established after the war of 1870, has brought home to every village, to every family, the question of peace or war. A continental war, a war with Germany, would mean the immediate mobilization of all our army corps; and, as it is well understood that on the rapidity of mobilization and of concentration depends in a great measure the issue of the war, a universal change in the country would take place in a few days. Such a prospect is so serious that even the press and Parliament have been taught some prudence with regard to Germany.

The combative spirit which has accepted bounds on the side of the Rhine has been diverted in other directions; and whoever is familiar with our press knows that it has thought it perfectly safe to quarrel with England. This paper warfare has continued for years over the heads, it may be said, of the nation, which took but a moderate interest in questions concerning the Capitulations in Tunis, the boundaries of Tonkin and of Cochin-China, the spheres of influence in Siam, in Africa, the competition of France and England in Madagascar. All these questions have, however, been kept alive in the French Foreign Office; but the great *cheval de bataille* has been the Egyptian question, in the press as well as at the Quay d'Orsay. If the country, as a whole, has witnessed with indifference the development of the colonial policy which was inaugurated a few years after the disaster of 1870, this colonial policy has found ardent representatives in the persons chiefly of the courageous explorers—officers of the French navy, of the French army, or enthusiastic civilians—who became the pioneers of France in new regions. There were also politicians who held that if France had been diminished on her Eastern frontiers, she must aggrandize herself in other places. The colonial policy, not very popular at first, became more popular after the annexation of the beautiful province of Tunisia, after the expansion of Tonkin towards China, after the conquest of Madagascar—an immense island which had been coveted by France since the days of Louis XIV.

The Russian alliance having reassured France against the fear of a war with Germany, and even with all the Powers of the Triple Alliance, France had, or thought she had, a free hand in her colonial policy. It was natural that she should think of increasing her already immense possessions on the continent of Africa and of joining them together. The partition of the Dark Continent into "spheres of influence" has been one of the occupations of diplomacy during the latter years of our nineteenth century; a work which will be some day continued by the partition of China into similar spheres. In Africa the problem was rendered the more difficult and the solution more arbitrary by the fact that the geography of the countries subject to partition is to a great degree unknown. It seemed probably safe at first to trace lines in the Dark Continent and to make generous distribution of deserts; to give to the fortunate possessors of the coast unknown "hinterlands." Some far-seeing statesmen (and Lord Salisbury was one of them), however, long ago discerned much danger in these spheres of influence when they should come to be represented by ardent explorers, liable to meet each other where they thought nobody was to be met.

The question of Egypt, and of the occupation of the valley of the Nile by England, has remained for sixteen years a thorn in the flesh not only of African explorers, but of all the French ministers of foreign affairs. The question was at times obscured by other important questions; it remained a sort of substratum to all our relations with England. It constantly remained in the foreground in some of the best French papers; it became for a few political writers a sort of "delenda est Carthago." It is to be feared that what has been a sort of academical question will assume now a more acute form. When the extravagance of the Khedive obliged the European Powers to make a liquidation of the Egyptian finances, some financial organisms were created which are still in existence, and, however strong may now be the position of England, whatever benefits the English administration may have conferred on Egypt, England has not the exclusive command of the finances of the land of the Pharaohs, and the financial questions which may be raised and must be raised from time to time assume at once and perforce an international character. The financial organisms of which I have just spoken stand between England and the protectorate of Egypt, and it is for this reason undoubtedly that Lord Salisbury, in his grave and in parts sibylline speech at the Guildhall, said that he was not prepared to assume for England all the eventualities which might be contained in a formal protectorate.

The French Parliament has shown more wisdom than was to be expected of it, in allowing the Government to abandon Fashoda without any discussion; but this reserve has its explanation in the fact that resistance to the demand of England meant immediate war, and the country was not prepared for it in any sense. The prompt acquiescence in the demand of England gave to French diplomacy a better ground for further discussions of the question of the occupation of Egypt.

I have just said that France was not prepared in any sense; the fact is, that the idea of war with England has never entered any French mind since the days of the Crimea. The relations of France and England are incessant: we copy the English fashions, read English books, are dressed by English tailors; our young people play lawn-tennis and will soon learn to play golf. We are accustomed to see the Prince of Wales in our theatres, in our streets; you cannot walk in Paris without seeing English shops on every side. Tea, which in old times was given in France only to sick people, has become as common a beverage as coffee. We have among us Anglomaniacs, young men who send their linen to London to be washed. We have learned the language of the turf; we have our bars, and jockeys, and race-horses. Paris has an English quarter, English restaurants, English booksellers. A quarrel between France and England has been hither-

to considered as a mere family quarrel; we leave diplomats to settle it as well as they can. And England has sent us, since the war of 1870, diplomats who seemed quite at home among us, who mixed with our best society, whose personal merit was recognized by everybody. Lord Dufferin, Lord Lytton were both great favorites. They never lost an occasion to manifest their sympathy for France; they both belonged to the great republic of letters, which knows no frontiers and no enmities.

It is perhaps because nobody was conscious or aware of any real misunderstanding between France and England that such a misunderstanding was fraught with the more danger. France did not suspect, when she formed an alliance with Russia, that it could not be regarded favorably by England—the Franco-Russian alliance was in her eyes a mere defence against the Triple Alliance. But England had not been accustomed to be left out in the cold; she belonged to none of the two new European constellations; she was, as it were, diplomatically expelled from Europe. Her isolation was not the easy isolation of a Power which has no enemies; Germany had become a commercial rival of hers, and the German Emperor threw his famous gauntlet in her face at the time of the Jameson raid. England was deeply offended by the unnecessary telegram sent by the German Emperor to Krüger. When the Eastern question was reopened by the war in Thessaly, England was not proud of the part which she had to play in a so-called European concert; Germany played a part which renders her the trusted adviser of the Sultan and the virtual commander of the armies of Islam. In one word, England was discontented; she felt that her influence in Europe was not in the ascendant. She found her opportunity in the new combination of forces which took place when the United States entered on the scene. While all the European Powers expressed sympathy for Spain, England took sides immediately, without an hour's hesitation, with the United States. It is needless for me to show here the importance of the great change which a moral alliance of England and of the United States may operate in the world. England feels no longer isolated, and consequently that her hands have become more free.

THE FALL OF THE JAPANESE CABINET.

TOKYO, November 3, 1898.

The party Cabinet that came into power with so much applause in June has reached an inglorious end in a shorter time even than its enemies predicted. Its supporters at the start confidently affirmed that this Cabinet would have a term of six years at least, while its enemies, the Conservatives attached to the old régime, hardly dared to limit its duration to less than two years. A tenure of office lasting scarcely four months has seen the rise, decline, and fall of the first party cabinet in Japan, together with a complete disintegration of the Constitutional party. Continual bickerings between the two wings of this party proved to be the cause of the Cabinet's overthrow. Their mutual jealousy caught at every straw of possible recrimination. Especially the Liberal wing let no opportunity of this kind escape. Count Okuma, the Prime Minister, finally came to the conclusion that he must assert the authority his position gave him, if his Government was to command any respect, or effect any real improvement over the previous Government. Upon his refusal to listen to the advice of the Liberals, the latter at once withdrew their support and the Kenseito came to an end.

The occasion of the final struggle was not a matter of great importance. On the 21st of August the Minister of Education, an adherent of the former Shimpoto, delivered an address in which he declaimed against the money-making propensities of the present generation. Among other things, he said that even in America, where the plutocracy was most powerful, the people did not elect a millionaire to the Presidency, whereas, he thought, if Japan were a republic, the people would be likely to elect the richest man to the highest office. This reference to a republican form of government, coming from a Cabinet Minister, was severely criticised by the old opponents of party government, and was attacked even by members of the Liberal wing of the Kenseito. It is hardly open to question that a good deal of underground intrigue in the court itself was directed against the Minister. The words were held to contain a disrespectful, if not treasonable, reference to the Emperor; but those who gave them this turn must have seen the sophistry of it. Had it not been that the Liberal politicians perceived a vacancy ahead and an opportunity of using it for their own purposes, the cry against this official would probably soon have died a natural death. The occasion, however, was too tempting. Count Okuma's party, the Shimpoto, held a majority of the ministerial offices. The politicians of the Liberal persuasion maintained that a balance of power between the two wings was an indispensable condition of the success of the present Cabinet. Here, then, was an excellent pretext for sacrificing the Minister of Education and giving his place to a candidate of the opposite faction. This manœuvre proved in the end a bombshell to the Cabinet and the Constitutional party.

Some days before the Minister of Education handed in his resignation to the Emperor, a meeting of the extremists of the Liberal section took place in Tokyo. The organ of this faction, a newly established newspaper in Tokyo, declared that this conference was held to suggest some definite line of conduct for the party leaders in the Cabinet. After a long debate on all phases of the complications of the present Government, the members reached the real pith and marrow of the occasion. The chief spokesman of the meeting was the redoubtable Mr. Hoshi, late of Washington, who has been one of the principal critics of Count Okuma and his party. Instead of formulating a policy of action for the present Cabinet, Mr. Hoshi and his henchmen came to the remarkable conclusion that the Cabinet, in making new appointments, must respect the balance of power. Translated into simple English, this statement meant that for every Minister of State or other high official of Progressive extraction the Liberals expected one of their own faction to be appointed. This motion had in view the possible resignation of the Minister of Education, and was clearly directed as a warning to the Prime Minister either to appoint a Liberal to the possible vacancy or to take the consequences.

Probably no demand could have more fatally injured the Cabinet in its most sensitive part. During the entire period of its administration the Okuma Cabinet has been bitterly attacked by the independent press of the country, backed by public opinion, because many of its Ministers toadied to the spoils element and did not reform abuses or establish any constructive policy. What is the use of having abolished the Satcho, said these newspapers, if the abuses of the Satcho continue to flourish? Yet in the face of all these protests the whole purport of the Liberal conference was merely to provoke the further separation of the two factions in the Government and to continue the squabble for office. Mr. Hoshi himself, the leader of this movement, dimly recognized that he was merely enhancing the peril of the situation. He semi-apologetically declared that he himself was not a candidate for any office and was not the originator of the balance-of-power theory, as it existed before he had arrived in Japan.

Just after this meeting the clamors of the Liberals, together with pressure from some court officials (the Kunaisho), succeeded in forcing the Minister of Education to resign. On the question of his successor, it was evident, the leaders of both wings of the Kenseito were determined to stake the continuance of the present Government. The Liberal leader, Count Itagaki, demanded one of his own party to fill the vacancy, while the Prime Minister was equally resolved to appoint one of his own. The Cabinet meeting held to discuss this point ended in a complete breach between the two leaders and the two factions. The Prime Minister promptly recommended his own candidate to the Emperor, who at once endorsed the recommendation. A little later, when Count Itagaki appeared before the Emperor to protest against this appointment, he found that he had been forestalled. Thereupon, on the 27th of October, the Liberal leader, together with two Ministers and other high officials of the same camp, handed in their resignations. All efforts of the Emperor to reconcile the two leaders were unsuccessful, and it was left to the Prime Minister either to reconstruct his Cabinet on party lines or resign. Count Okuma boldly took the former course. On the 29th he made up a list of candidates of his own party for the vacancies and submitted it to the Emperor.

The Liberals in the meantime had not been idle. It had been previously agreed that a general meeting of the Kenseito was to be held on the 1st of November. When on the 28th of October the resignation of the Minister of Education and the split in the Cabinet became known, the Liberal members of the committee of the Kenseito found a quorum and agreed to call a meeting immediately, at which the question of the amalgamated party's existence should be the main topic of discussion. The Progressive members of this committee who demurred did not affect the majority, and the meeting was called for the following day. At this conference only Liberals were present, but as the proceedings were legally in order they claimed to represent the Constitutional party. After listening to a detailed statement of the facts that led to the rupture in the Cabinet, the motion was made that the representatives of the Kenseito present have the power of dissolving that party. As soon as this motion was carried and the party formally dissolved, another motion was carried to the effect that a new party be organized under the same name (Kenseito) and with a new executive committee, from

which, as a matter of course, all Progressives were carefully excluded. The Liberals, probably under advice of the astute Mr. Hoshi, had stolen a march on their confrères of the opposite camp: they took possession of the offices, money, and seals of the Kenseito, and were the *de-facto* possessors of the party titles and authority.

It was just after this meeting that the most surprising turn of all was given to political affairs in the capital. The newspapers reported that the Emperor was delaying the confirmation of the nominations of the Prime Minister to the vacancies caused by the secession of the Liberals. This rumor proved too true. The delay was equivalent to a hint that a Cabinet composed entirely of Progressive elements was not entirely agreeable to his Majesty, or at least to his immediate advisers at the court. The Emperor, after the resignation of the Liberal Ministers, sent repeatedly to Count Itagaki to inquire whether he would not reconsider his determination to secede from the Cabinet. Never before has the Emperor entered so far into the arena of actual politics in order to maintain a Cabinet. When he or his immediate advisers, however, saw that Count Itagaki's decision was irrevocable, either he or they determined not to submit the Government to Count Okuma unless they were compelled by new emergencies. It is known that Count Okuma is not a *persona grata* in the Imperial household. The rather bold and uncompromising methods of the Count are not agreeable to the body of Conservatives in the court, who wish to conduct their affairs without interference from him. As soon, however, as the Emperor's hesitation to confirm the nominations of the Prime Minister was made known to the Cabinet, all the Ministers in a body on the last day of October sent in their resignations.

The only persons who emerge from the wreck comparatively clean of all weakness or intrigue are Count Okuma and some members of his party. The Liberals are the chief offenders. Their talk about the balance of power was merely a "nice" phrase to conceal a "nasty" idea—namely, the spoils of office. Clearly, the Kenseito was a party or it was nothing. If the former, all its members should loyally have worked for the united party and not for the balance of power; if the latter, better dissolution at once. The Liberals have been disunionists from the start. Count Itagaki, in his letter of resignation, writes in a way that is scarcely manly. He deplores the fact that he cannot save the Cabinet from disruption, and guard his Majesty from anxiety on this score. Count Okuma's determination, on the other hand, to appoint his candidate and so stop the continual wrangling about the disposition of the offices is one of the manliest acts that have been witnessed for a long time in Japanese politics. His letter of resignation has a sound ring in it—just the note that is needed at present. The greatest evil to-day in the administration of Japan is lack of decision and responsibility—deficiencies that are often disguised under such fine imported words as "compromise," "balance of power," and the like. Count Okuma is not a man of this kidney, and, though he has raised a clamor against himself, he will in the end be respected the more.

The court is guilty of an inconsistency in at first accepting the Prime Minister's appointment to the Educational Department, and then in refusing to back him up when he was ready to take all the consequences of this step. Some Japanese say that the Emperor was badly advised—a very significant manner of speech in Japan. For the present the forces hostile to Count Okuma are in the ascendant, but it is hardly hazardous to prophesy that the time will come when he will again be called to the helm, and when that moment arrives he will not accept until he can take the place on his own conditions. The Liberals are now joining forces with the very class of statesmen they were but so lately denouncing. Either Marquis Ito or Marquis Yamagata will probably form a Cabinet and rely for support in the Lower House upon the Liberal vote, but this compact must always be a feeble one; and when it is dissolved, Count Okuma's opportunity will have come. As Marquis Ito is now returning from China it is just barely possible that he may, on his arrival, lend his influence to the now resigned Okuma Cabinet. Should he do this, the whole trend of politics in Japan will receive a fresh and powerful impulse that will last as long as parliamentary government remains in the experimental stage. G. D.

Correspondence.

THE "OPEN DOOR."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To those who think of what Epictetus meant by "an open door" that expression is now ominously suggestive, as *national* suicide is not unknown in history, and we may reach it quickly in our land-grabbing designs on the Philippines and the Carolines and Borrioboola Gha.—Yours, etc.,

W. W. C.

Baltimore, November 24, 1898.

IMPERIAL FATALISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Has there ever been a stranger illustration of "Speech is silver, but silence is golden" than we to-day afford in our attempts to get discussion over a national policy? The Americans who realize the gravity of the undertaking which America (in its ideal sense) represents, have tried to argue with the expansionist. They have cited history, have dwelt on the principles on which our political structure rests, have exposed the bubble nature of the expansionist's plans, and yet the expansionist is unaffected. "No matter how this problem is settled, I believe the nation will prosper. I believe God has yet a work for America to do, and that we shall go on as we have gone on," said a preacher in my hearing recently. This attitude of the pious expansionist is not Christian, but that of a pagan fatalist or eighteenth-century deist. Ever since Ezekiel said, "The soul that sinneth it shall die," the religion that makes men has laid stress on personal responsibility. It has ascribed personality to its God; it has freed the conception of God from inconsistency; it has gloried in "Prove me, saith the Lord," for such a view made it worth while for men to try to be like Him. Fatalism, or destiny, as it is now called, takes no account of persons—likens them to dice thrown by a player for some end of his own. The destiny-expansionist "trusts in God," but his god is an impersonal and unknown force. He does not trust in principles of life; he does not have faith in a course of action which, followed to the end, promises some definite mastery of evil, some definite victory of good. He thinks "it" will work for him, and let him follow after and pick up the goods.

Our fathers thought our nation was founded on righteous principles, and would endure (in its original intent) so long as we were faithful to those principles. Today the pious fatalist tells us we are but playthings in the hands of destiny; that whether we "swear to our own hurt and change not" or perjure ourselves, whether we hold that government exists by consent of the governed, or that this is true only of ourselves and not of "niggers" and Filipinos—in both cases it is a matter of indifference to "Destiny."

As there is no argument for a sneer, neither is there one for fatalism. The only way to bring the expansion-fatalist to deliberate is to block his way with a human will. One emphatic "No," such as Senator Hoar has uttered, makes the fatalist who fancies Destiny overrides all human wills cast about for human means to break through the obstacle. And this entrance of the expansionist into a rational state is what is now so needed, for it brings him back to history and experience, matters that are trifles to his unpolitical mind, and in this field he may take his place—behind men of saner judgment. Let us uphold Hoar, Reed, and their associates, and the danger may be averted. Frank Drew.

Worcester, Mass., November 25, 1898.

"COÖPERATION" AND AFTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While sharing your views in regard to a policy of colonial expansion in general and the undesirability of the Phillippines as a permanent acquisition, it seems to me that certain considerations touching this question have escaped your attention.

On the 14th day of August the United States Government established order and law in Manila. For the first time in its history the city is clean; for the first time in its history merchants, European or Asiatic, are able to ply their vocations in a spirit of tranquillity, undisturbed by dread of official rapacity and spoliation. The monstrous cruelty of Spanish priests, exercised for centuries upon the rural population with impunity, is at an end; some glimmering of the meaning of personal liberty penetrates even the dull brain of the Tagal, and there is manifest a more enlightened and humane influence than this unhappy country has ever felt. Such, in brief, are the results of an occupation extending over the short period of two months.

Consider for a moment the consequences which would follow the restoration of power to the Spaniards. Encamped not two miles from the outskirts of the various suburbs lies the insurgent army, an armed rabble of twenty or thirty thousand men; it was a bitter disappointment to them to be compelled to abandon their intention of looting the city. Nothing but a wholesome fear of American marksmanship has curbed this intention and prevented them from forcing their way in. Evacuate the Intramuenta and the forts, restore the captured Mausers, and let the last troopship disappear behind Corregi-

dor, how long would the Spanish garrison, enfeebled by sickness, discouraged by defeat and inertia, be able to keep this mob at bay? It would be tantamount to delivering Manila over to pillage, to inflicting loss, suffering, and death upon thousands of innocent people. The Filipinos—not Aguinaldo's malcontents, but quiet, law-abiding tradespeople, accountants, artisans, representative of the intelligence of Manila—have sworn never again to submit to Spanish rule. To avert such a misfortune, they have no alternative but expatriation or death.

Have we, therefore, the right to desert a people whose safety and welfare depend so directly upon our resolute coöperation? The American people must decide whether the expressed determination to abstain from territorial aggrandizement outweighs a responsibility imposed upon them by the hazard of war. ARTHUR HUGH FRAZIER,
1st Co. U. S. Vol. Signal Corps.

MANILA, October 16, 1898.

["Coöperation," "The American people must decide"; these are strange terms, and, in the mouth of our correspondent, show how far away Manila is. "Military subjection" and "McKinley has decided" are now the only watchwords.—ED. NATION.]

AMERICA'S MISSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following description of the people of this country as they were when they formed the Constitution, has an interest of appositeness at this time, when they are on the verge of altering it.

M. Louis Simond, an intelligent French traveller of the last decade of the last century, says:

"Rich and populous as the United States are destined to be, in an extraordinary degree, their power [of offence] will never be in any proportion. . . . The United States will ever feel an aversion to taxes . . . or a government strong enough to make the people fight and pay. . . . Every new generation there comes into life to enjoy it—to increase and multiply in peace and obscurity, in abundance and security—and leave, at the call of nature alone, a life of content, exposed to few sacrifices, as well as spent without much glory."

It does not seem to have occurred, even to a Frenchman, and one of the Napoleonic era, that a people such as is here described would ever deliberately (if the word may be used to describe the process) forfeit such exemptions as he enumerates, to attain such a desideratum as he implies, "glory"!

Permit me to somewhat lengthen my note in order to ask a question intimately connected with it. When those who made our country spoke of its "destiny" and "duty," they had a definite meaning. What that was is clearly stated by Hamilton in the first paragraph of the first number of the first general treatise on our Constitution, the 'Federalist.' He says:

"It seems to have been reserved to the people of this country, by their conduct and example, to decide the important question, whether societies of men are really capable or not of establishing good government from reflection and choice, or whether they are for ever destined to depend for their political constitution on accident and force."

This, if "inglorious," is, at least, definite. But, when the Rev. Soandso informs us that we should not shrink from our manifest destiny by failing to grab all we can, what does he mean? That it is our duty to extend the blessings we enjoy, over recalcitrant communities, as the Inquisition extended the consolations of religion, or as we have already done over the Indians? When the Hon. Suchaone exhorts us not to fail in our high mission (also by any failure to appropriate our neighbor's property), what does he mean? That we should extend the blessings of liberty, equality, and fraternity (as understood by himself and other honorable gentlemen) *vi et armis*, as the French republicans extended them over Germany, etc.? Whatever their meaning, it certainly is *not* Hamilton's, "to decide by example that societies of men are not destined to depend for their political constitution on force," but is, on the contrary, so much opposed to that principle as to give his succeeding words the force of prophecy. "If there be any truth in this remark [as to the destiny of America]," he continues, "the crisis at which we are arrived may with propriety be regarded as the era in which that decision is to be made; and a wrong election of the part we shall act may, in this view, deserve to be considered as the general misfortune of mankind."—Respectfully, BUNFORD SAMUEL.

PHILADELPHIA, November 21, 1898.

THE SOUTH AND CHEAP COTTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The present price of cotton is the lowest on record. The money that cotton now nets is even much less than the low price of middling cotton indicates. The continued rainy weather has lowered the grade greatly, so that much cotton is now netting 3¾c. on the plantation. The cotton that is to come will average low, and its abundance will cause its relative decline in price to middling cotton. The price of cotton seed is also at low-water mark.

Five years ago such a condition of affairs would have been paralyzing, yet now the prosperity of the South is not shaken. Farmers will pay out of debt. There will be no suffering, as the country is full to overflowing with hog, hominy, and sorghum. The South's financial condition is better than it has ever been. The reason is that cotton, more than ever before, is a surplus or money crop. Farmers do not go nearly so deeply into debt to make it as they used to do. It is also true that the preceding three years have been prosperous ones.

In reality the low price will be ultimately a benefit. New impetus will be given the growing movement towards crop diversification. Especial interest prevails in regard to grasses and stock, because of the high price of cattle prevailing. Crop diversification is to a slight extent retarded by organizations of planters themselves. They meet and resolve to restrict next season's crop and diversify their products. Each planter goes home secretly resolved to plant more cotton as he believes the acreage will be restricted. They don't seem to learn; they aid what they seek to prevent. It is such a simple and well-understood economic truth, too. They can't learn from well-emphasized lessons that each one must work out his own salvation.

A vital fact in connection with the cotton crop that has not received due attention is the matter of picking. There is a limit to the size of the crop the South can pick. Last year, with almost ideal weather conditions, eleven million two hundred thousand (11,200,000) bales was gathered; it was late in the spring before it was all in. The unusual sight was presented of planting and picking in the same field. It was declared the crop limit for gathering had been reached. I believe this to be correct.

This season, except in Texas, the weather for picking has been bad. From the bottoms comes the general complaint of the great scarcity of hands. Yet the price for picking is as high as it was when cotton was worth double. It takes about 50 per cent. of the value of a bale of cotton alone to pick it now. The great amount of levee building with good wages attracts some, the outrageous tariff which the "roustabout" can tax the steamboats in the fall leads others, and the increasing timber and manufacturing interests absorb others. The scarcity of labor is a serious problem for the cotton planter. W. COLLIER ESTES.

MEMPHIS, November 19, 1898.

SHELLEY IN AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review, "Griswold and his Times," in your issue of the 17th inst., I notice that Horace Greeley, in a letter to Griswold in 1845, states that there was not a copy of Shelley's poems to be had in New York at that time, and presumably not in the (entire) country. Mr. Greeley, in this as in other instances, was more positive than accurate. I possess a copy of the poems of Shelley, published in Philadelphia in 1832 by Grigg & Elliott. Possibly in those days a period longer than thirteen years was required for literature to reach New York from Philadelphia.

If Mr. Griswold was then in Philadelphia under request to write satirical letters to the *Tribune*, he assuredly had one item supplied, though its point would likely have provoked non-poetic expletives from the seeker for spice and satire.—Very respectfully yours,
FRANK TITUS.

KANSAS CITY, MO., November 21, 1898.

M C M.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will the year 1900 be, written in Roman numerals, only MCM? In more modern times, at least, all analogies point that way; as may be seen in IV, IX, XI, and XC. To those who have toiled with chisel or graver at dates like MDCCCLXXXVIII a contrast so rarely brief would be indeed a boon; while even for MCMI, MCMV, or MCMX they could still give thanks.

Will not some correspondent who is well up in his epitaphs and inscriptions of the tenth century, or even of the fifteenth, kindly throw light for others besides? Q.

BOSTON, November 23, 1898.

WOMEN IN THE ISLAND OF COS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an account of a journey to the islands of the Ægean (in the November *Rundschau*, p. 209) Rudolf Lindau makes the interesting statement that, on the island of Cos, not the son but the daughter inherits from the parents, and, instead of the man wooing the girl, the latter has the right of choosing her husband. In a somewhat extensive list of works on the history of

woman in ancient and modern times no mention is made, so far as I remember, of such traces of gynecocracy among *civilized* peoples of our own day, and possibly this apparently well-authenticated fact is not as well known as it deserves to be. It would be interesting to learn whether this exceptional legal custom is of recent origin or a relic of ancient times. The writer in the *Rundschau* also remarks (p. 210) that women, and especially unmarried women, on the island, in spite of their being thus favored by the law, would violate social custom by appearing in public places. L.

YPSILANTI, MICH., November 20, 1898.

Notes.

A new edition of Herbert Spencer's 'Biology,' with important revision and enlargement, is about to appear in the first volume announced by D. Appleton & Co.

Maynard, Merrill & Co. have in press 'Yale Verse,' compiled by Charles E. Merrill, jr.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, will make another venture with Omar's Rubáiyát, in Edward Heron-Allen's edition, which contains a facsimile of the Persian MS. in the Bodleian, together with a transcript into modern Persian characters and a literal translation into English.

'The Divine Force in the Life of the World,' Lowell Institute Lectures by Alexander McKenzie, D.D.; 'Washington the Soldier,' by Gen. Henry B. Carrington; and 'Wishmakers' Town,' poems by William Young, will be published directly by L. C. Page & Co.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Colonial Life in New Hampshire,' by James H. Fassett, and 'The World's Painters and their Pictures,' by Deristhe L. Hoyt.

A new Boston firm, Brown & Co., starts out with 'American Naval Heroes,' by John Howard Brown; 'Where to Educate,' a guide to private schools in this country; and 'Through the Year with Kipling,' a volume of selections.

With each year a fresh reprint of one of John Fiske's historical works is to be expected from Houghton, Mifflin & Co., revised as to the text and rationally illustrated. Hence we now have his 'Beginnings of New England.' Regarding the illustrations, Mr. Fiske points out the paucity of portrait material in the fore part of the period he deals with, and he has sought to make amends for it by many interesting views of seventeenth-century houses still or till lately standing, and by numerous facsimiles of title-pages of early printed books, which literally speak "volumes" as to the times in which they appeared. We have only praise for the principle of selection observed in this new series. Occasionally we might wish (when an original canvas was at hand, as in the case of Increase Mather) that a photogravure had replaced even a recent engraving. The index is hardly up to the level of the general excellence of this edition.

The illustrations to the first and second series of Dean Farrar's 'Cathedrals of England,' as now issued by Thomas Whittaker, are somewhat heterogeneous in origin. A large number and the best proceed from Herbert Railton. They are all pen-and-ink sketches, and, though frequently concerned with architectural details, have mostly only a pictorial and decorative value.

Macmillan Co. give a beautiful dress to James Lane Allen's 'Choir Invisible,' of which the embellishment has fallen to Orson Lowell. He offers specimens of his skill both with the pen and in wash drawing reproduced by photogravure, and while these latter full-page designs are respectable, though uneven and marred at times by a forced perspective, the artist is evidently most at home in line. Mr. Lowell's vignettes and head and tailpieces are graceful and effective.

A happy journey, without accident, of nearly seventeen thousand miles, from Philadelphia to Japan, via Hawaii, and back, made between May and November, 1896, is described by Charles M. Taylor, jr., in a brightly illustrated and gayly stamped book, entitled 'Vacation Days in Hawaii and Japan' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.). The narrative is wholly devoid of literary quality.

This cannot be charged against Edward Lowe Temple's 'Old World Memoirs' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), which is yet dry as a guide-book from sheer force of cramming. The two pretty volumes are well illustrated.

Major-General Joseph Wheeler is already out with his promised history of 'The Santiago Campaign' (Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.). It is little more than a compilation of official dispatches, most of which have already been published, united by a running commentary in Gen. Wheeler's well-known vein of cheerful optimism. In fact, the book makes him out a delightful combination of Mark Tapley and *preux chevalier*. He has but one regret to express, personally, and that is that he was reported ill. To be sure, he had a nasty fever, and he had to take a lot of medicine and give up tree-climbing and riding in the sun; but he did not go off duty for two hours, and just enjoyed hearing the Mausers whiz and digging trenches **all** night. The dispatches he publishes show in what a state of daze the Commanding General found himself on July 2 and 3; but there is no doubt about Gen. Wheeler. He was the spryest, readiest, cheeriest youth of sixty-one in the whole army.

The State of New York has just issued the first volume of the Public Papers of Daniel D. Tompkins, with an introduction by Hugh Hastings, "State Historian." These papers were purchased from James Brooks, and comprise originals and copies of Tompkins's correspondence when Governor of New York and Vice-President. From the military papers a selection has been made, and this stout volume of leaded matter is the result. To any one who has occasion to study the service of the New York militia in the war of 1812, this collection will be of value. It is to be regretted that the remarkable performances of the "State Historian" should be printed in connection with it. His introduction is a good example of everything that is not history, and, together with the sensational captions to the letters, unites ignorance and vulgarity in discrediting the issues of the State made through Mr. Hastings's office. Comparison of his work with that of O'Callaghan or Fernow in the same field offers much food for reflection.

'Work and Play in Girls' Schools,' by three head-mistresses, Dorothea Beale, Lucy H. M. Soulsby, and Jane Frances Dove (Longmans, Green & Co.), aims explicitly at giving assistance to teachers in the secondary schools for girls, which are so rapidly supplanting the governess in England, and, barring its sentimental tone, is an interesting exhibition of the present status of that phase of the education of women. American teachers will be interested in noting the frequent references made to American methods and treatises, and amused by finding that England is not free from that well-known obstacle to pedagogic progress, the parent.

Volume i. of Prof. W. B. Smith's 'Infinitesimal Analysis' (Macmillan) promises a work of much merit. But we cannot express a definitive opinion until we see the whole work.

Viewed as a text-book for students, Prof. Mansfield Merriman's 'Elements of Sanitary Engineering' (John Wiley & Sons) seems an attempt to perform a hopeless task. It combines some of the elements of hygiene, bacteriology, chemistry, physics, hydraulics and other important branches of civil engineering, mechanics, street-sweeping, garbage disposal, and municipal economics, all in a little over 200 pages. The fruitlessness of carrying a student over too much ground should be kept clearly in view. It is only what he mentally assimilates that serves him in after life. The profession of engineering is so broad that the student cannot successfully be even introduced to the whole of it, and rarely does his college education determine the special field of his practice. His best equipment is a fairly liberal education, with a good knowledge of mathematics, physics, mechanics, and the broader principles of his profession, an insight into methods of investigation, a habit of close observation, and a good fund of common sense. The rest he will acquire as he has need of it. A bibliography of each subject would have increased the usefulness of the present work.

M. Charles Lenient has followed up his two well-known volumes on French Comedy in the Eighteenth Century with two others on 'La Comédie en France au XIXe siècle' (Paris: Hachette). The title, however, is somewhat misleading, for the author does not touch upon any author after Alfred de Musset, and leaves the whole of the second half of the century out of consideration. He gives abundant space to the comedy of the Empire, the Restoration, and the July Monarchy, Scribe receiving an amount of attention which compensates in some measure for the bitter attacks of which he has been the victim. It is to be hoped that M. Lenient may be spared to write the history of French comedy during the second half of the century.

A new literary venture of a rather ambitious character is the monthly journal *Der Türmer*, published by Greiner & Pfeiffer of Stuttgart, and edited by Jeannot Emil Freiherr von Grotthuss. The first number, of 96 pages octavo, appeared in October, with a good portrait of Goethe. The contents appeal to a large audience of thoughtful readers, the special aim of the periodical evidently being not so much to report the facts of modern life and thought as to understand and to interpret them. Its general tone and tendency are accordingly philosophical, and its purpose is to be perfectly impartial and scientific. Criticisms of books and discussions of the religious, political, and literary fields belong to the regular programme. The first number contains, among other things, the opening chapters of a novel by Ernst Eckstein and an article on

Buddha by L. von Schroeder. A number of lesser contributions are from the pen of the editor, who, however, writes in rather a *burschikos* and dogmatic style. In character and contents, the new journal has great similarity to *Nord und Süd*.

The regular record of recent additions to the Boston Public Library is supplemented in the November Bulletin by a list of some five hundred titles of books on landscape gardening. This is a collection given by Mr. and Mrs. James M. Codman "in memory of their sons Henry Sargent and Philip Codman, landscape architects."

The Rutherfurd Astronomical Photographs, presented by the late Lewis M. Rutherfurd to the Observatory of Columbia University, form the subject of four papers in volume 10 of the Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences. Other papers are: "The Nature and Origin of Stipules," by A. A. Tyler, and "The Ascidian Half-Embryo," by Henry E. Crampton, jr. The announcement is made that, with the issue of volume 16, the publication of the Transactions of the Academy is discontinued. The Annals will appear with new forms of typography and arrangement of matter, and the Memoirs in quarto shape will be published at irregular intervals.

Consular Reports for November contains an account of the "Financial Conditions in Chili," by our Minister, H. L. Wilson, in which he says that "the small tradesmen, artisans, and people of the working classes generally . . . appear to universally favor the gold standard, and oppose with extreme bitterness an issue of paper money by the Government." A petition of "the laborers" of Santiago presented to the President of Chili on July 20 is appended, one suggestion of which is that, "in case paper money reappears, it should not exist for a long period, and should not be of a less legal value than 18d." Some manufacturers of Austria and Hungary, a consul writes, in order to obtain a share of foreign commerce, are about to send a floating exposition of sample products to the Far East. A large steamer fitted with booths will sail from Trieste in December, and will visit, among other ports, Constantinople, Bombay, Calcutta, Singapore, Canton, Port Arthur, and Yokohama, returning in six months. The Government has granted a subsidy of $20,300 in aid of the expedition. There is also an abstract of a report on the "further-developing" schools of Saxony. These, in number 1,953, with 77,057 pupils, are for the graduates of the common schools, and are distinct from the industrial and technical schools. Attendance is compulsory, and "manufacturers, merchants, etc., are made responsible for the attendance of the boys in their employ, and the latter make a special study of the trade in which they are occupied." Attention is also called to the fact that our Government has been officially notified "that the entry of foreign Israelites into Palestine is prohibited, and that the imperial authorities have received orders to prevent the landing of Jewish emigrants."

The days of literary frauds are evidently not yet passed, notwithstanding the critical tendencies of the age; nor is it necessary to go for these to Egypt or to the Orient, where the professionals in this line of business still flourish and are so expert in their business as to deceive the very elect. The trial and conviction of a culprit of this kind in the German capital recently has demonstrated the fact that even the regular book trade can be swindled. A husband and wife were charged with having sold to the Hamburg City Library five volumes of Augustine's works as having formed part of Martin Luther's private library, his name in his own hand being written in them. On account of these historical associations the price secured was 290 marks. The same couple had managed to sell the well-known house of Ulrico Hoepli, in Milan, another similar lot for 1,000 lire. The imitations were clever, but the chemist Dr. Jeserich soon demonstrated their fraudulent character. As the woman was really the guilty party, the court decreed imprisonment of ten months.

—The third volume of the second series of the 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office' comprises the letter C in 1,100 quarto pages. As we turn them over we are impressed anew with the rare character of this unrivailed collection. In a merely bibliographical point of view it holds a high rank, and the student of early printed works will find in it a mine of material. Take Roussetus's 'Hysterotomotokia': here are editions of Basle, 1588; Paris, 1590; and Frankfort, 1601. Or take Peter Camper's Dissertation on the natural varieties in the physiognomy of mankind: we have it in his original Dutch, Utrecht, 1791; in French, the same place and year (and also Paris, but the translation is by another hand); finally, in English, a new (London) edition, 1821. So John Kaye's (Caius) 'De Medendi Methodo' may be consulted in editions at Basle, from Frobenius's press, 1544; at Louvain, 1556; and in English, 'A boke, or counseill against the disease commonly called The Sweate,' 1552. A much longer list might be cited for Celsus's 'De Medicina,' coming down from Milan, 1481; Venice, 1493 and 1528; Paris, 1529, etc. Human delusions and superstitions may be studied in John Cardilucius's 'Historische Exempel,' showing that comets too (*auch die Cometen*) must be reckoned among the causes of the plague; or in 'A certaine relation of the hog-faced gentlewoman called Mistris Tannakin Skinker,' "who was bewitched in her mother's wombe in the yeare 1618." Chocolate was described in its nature and qualities in a Spanish work of 1631, translated into Latin and French, as here recorded. In 1636 A. de Leon Pinelo proposed the 'Question moral' whether a churchman's fast was broken by taking chocolate. Yellow fever appears to have been late in acquiring its name; Mathew Cary's account of the epidemic in Philadelphia in 1795 speaks of it as the "malignant" fever. This narrative was reproduced in the same city and in Lancaster in French and in German; in 1830 it was reprinted with "yellow" in the title-page. Sociologists will find much to interest them in this catalogue: witness a work on saving-banks in Paris in 1844, Miss Frances Power Cobbe's 'Friendless Girls and How to Help Them,' and many other entries. The rubric Children fills 51 pages. Crimes, Congresses, Cookery, Crowds (thanks to Le Bon) are significant divisions. The index to periodical literature shows the course of current medical discussion to perfection. New classifications indicate the march of medical science and discovery. Cocaine, which hardly obtained a footing in the first series, here demands nine pages. Finally, we remark the extension of the previous collection of portraits, with dates, place of publication, name of engraver, etc., when known.

—'Architecture among the Poets' is the title of a little book by H. Heathcote Statham, author of the best book that has been published on modern architecture, and of other important works. It is published by Batsford in London and by Charles Scribner's Sons in New York. The subject is one which it would be easy to make ridiculous, for it involves exactly that kind of compilation which so many uninformed contributors to magazines find quite within their reach. A moderately large village library will contain all the books cited by Mr. Statham, and the enthusiastic description or purely accidental reference of a poet may easily be accepted by the amateur critic as being in itself solid criticism. Mr. Statham, however, is otherwise minded, and otherwise furnished for his task. He is for this purpose, primarily, a student of architecture of all epochs and of all styles, and, secondarily, a respectful and sympathetic reader of what the poets have had to say about it. The book is, therefore, a curious judgment on the poet and his insight, or lack of insight. One might almost say that our judgment of Longfellow, or of Lord Houghton, or of Tennyson, or Browning is to be suspended until we can note the truthfulness of the dictum which each of these poets has to offer upon some architectural monument. Thus, Lord Houghton blunders lamentably over the original suggestion of Gothic vaulting, and, on the other hand, has in his poem, "The Flowers of Helicon," a wise and curiously prophetic series of remarks about the influence of Grecian art upon the Roman and post-Roman world; and it does seem as if one ought to consider the mental process involved in the blunder, and that shown in the wiser poem, before completing his estimate of Monckton Milnes as a writer. What is said in this book about these contrasting passages and about many such passages by other writers is nearly always at once shrewd and accurate. So the remarks about Scott's appreciation of mediæval architecture are extremely intelligent, although one could wish for a little further comment upon the poet's absolute misunderstanding of certain buildings and of certain features of a building—a misunderstanding odd in a man gifted with so remarkable an imaginative insight as Scott. It was not the custom in the early years of the present century for literary men to think much or often of the practical pursuits of the builder or of the actual character of a building; otherwise Scott would hardly have represented a castle such as he makes Rokeby to be, nor, we may say, that which his prose makes Torquilstone to be, as completely destroyed and falling in crumbling ruin through the effects of fire. That part of the book which may seem the most novel to our readers is that which deals with the writers before Byron who cared about architecture and wrote of it with intelligence. These, indeed, are surprisingly numerous, and the passages here quoted are singularly interesting.

—Now that Tissot's drawings of the Life of Christ are on exhibition in New York, those who have been puzzled by their singular lack of effectiveness, and the absence of any emotion but that of curiosity with which one regards them, may be interested to recall what the greatest of critics wrote more than forty years ago on the application of ar-

chæology and local color to Biblical subjects in 'A Summer in the Sahara.' Fromentin has compared the life of the Arab to that of the Patriarchs, and so is led to discuss the modern effort to introduce exact Oriental costume into sacred art. "My opinion of the system," he says, "is this: The men of genius are always right and the men of talent are often wrong. To costume the Bible is to destroy it, as to dress a demigod is to make a man of him. . . . But as the idea must in some shape be clothed, the masters have understood that to chasten and simplify the form—that is, to suppress all local color—is to remain as near as possible to the truth. . . . Outside of what is general there is no truth possible, . . . and decidedly we must renounce the illustration of the Bible or undertake it in the spirit of Raphael and Poussin. . . . The people of the East do, indeed, possess a true grandeur, . . . but if, more often than others, they approach the epic style, it is by the very absence of all costume—that is, by ceasing in a manner to be Arab by becoming merely human. Before the half-nakedness of a shepherd I may dream of Jacob; with the bournous of Sahara or the mach'la of Syria one can never represent anything but Bedouins."

—It is true that Fromentin is speaking of the Old Testament, but what he says applies to the illustration of the New Testament also. The more we are convinced by archæology and accuracy of local color that certain events actually happened in Palestine in the first century, the more foreign to us those events are made to seem, and religious emotion evaporates precisely in proportion as the appetite for realism is satisfied. Two methods only have been found by which Bible stories may be so represented in art as to seem of importance to us, to be our religion, to be not actual but true. The one is the method of Raphael, which abstracts all local color and makes the event general and typical and true for all mankind; the other is the method of Rembrandt and of some of the early Italians, who frankly gave the event depicted in the surroundings and with the local color of the artist's own time, and made it seem to belong specifically to the spectator, and to be true especially for him. This method has been tried in our own day, but either we are not sufficiently naïve to accept it or the artist has not been sufficiently sincere to enforce it, and the results have not been happy, though perhaps Millet, if he had gone further in that direction, might have succeeded. It would seem that the method of abstract representation is the only feasible one for us, and that, of the New Testament as of the Old, it remains true that we "must renounce its illustration or undertake it in the spirit of Raphael and Poussin."

—The Norwegian poet and political leader, Björnstjerne Björnson, recently was a chief actor in a somewhat sensational suit for slander which he caused to be entered in the courts of Munich against Dr. J. A. Mordtmann, the managing editor of the *Neueste Nachrichten*, a prominent journal of that city. What made the affair assume practically international importance was its bearing on the Dreyfus case. At the time when the Zola trial occupied the public mind, the Norwegian novelist, who happened to be in Munich, wrote to Zola, with whom he enjoys a personal and literary friendship extending over many years, and congratulated him on his firmness, adding, too, the noteworthy statement that the German Imperial Chancellor, Prince Hohenlohe, when lately in Munich, had said to a prominent gentleman of that city, that Dreyfus was innocent as far as Germany was concerned, and that the Chancellor had mentioned the name of the guilty person. He concluded: "But watch; the French will never revise the trial. Dreyfus must die as did the Nazarene, for the sins of others." This letter of Björnson's made the rounds of the press and naturally excited the greatest interest, especially in Germany and France. Among the papers that censured the above statement most strongly as a fabrication was the *Neueste Nachrichten*. In bringing suit, Björnson did not hesitate to mention the painter Lenbach as his authority, and demanded that the Chancellor be cited as a witness. The trial came to a rather sudden and unexpected end through what was evidently a compromise. Björnson agreed to accept an apology from Mordtmann for the manner in which the editor had attacked his personal honor, and an acknowledgment that he had acted throughout in good faith; but Mordtmann expressly refused to admit that his criticism of the fact itself was erroneous. Björnson also agreed, under these conditions, to pay all the costs. The question whether the Chancellor had or had not made the remarkable statement in question, did not receive the airing which the public was anxiously expecting.

—Now that "1898 D Q," the so-called and as yet unnamed planet discovered by Herr Witt of Berlin last August, has been observed long enough to enable its path round the sun to be ascertained with some approach to accuracy, we note the exceptional interest with which this asteroid has been greeted by the astronomical world, chiefly because of its very near approach to our globe once every thirty years. Rather unfortunately it came to this favorable proximity about five years ago, so that the early part of 1924 is the next opportunity of this happy character—happy because the earthward approach of a truly planetary body to a distance only one-third as great as that of Mars at its nearest means a very pronounced earth-perturbation of its motion, and consequent opportunities of reducing to narrow limits the margin of error now affecting our measures of the sun's distance. The little planet consumes one and three-quarters years in journeying once completely round the sun; and its aphelion recession carries it far beyond Mars, even at his remotest from us. Variation between these wide extremes of distance suggests many important problems to the astrophysicist, among them a test of the question whether an absorbing medium pervades the solar system. It is well to call attention to a widespread error regarding the new planet. Although its mean distance from the sun is only 1.46 times that of the earth, and that of Mars is 1.52, nevertheless the path of D Q is far from lying wholly within the orbit of Mars; the reason being that, while the orbits of both these bodies are very eccentrically placed round the sun, their perihelion points fall on opposite sides of that luminary, so that only about half the orbit of D Q lies within the path of Mars. Almost visible to the naked eye, as the new planet must have been in 1894, it is rather remarkable that it should have escaped detection then. Two years hence a fairly favorable opposition takes place, the distance from us being about 31 million miles, or nearly four millions less than that of Mars at his most auspicious oppositions in 1892 and 1907. Although probably less than 20 miles in diameter, D Q will require as keen watching and as prolonged calculation as if it were one of the massive planets of our system; but it is vastly more worth this care than any others of its congeners, now nearly 450 in number, 92 of which have been found in the past eleven years by M. Charlois of Nice, the most successful of all discoverers of small planets.

STONEWALL JACKSON.—II.

Stonewall Jackson and the American Civil War. By Lieut.-Col. T. F. R. Henderson, Professor of Military Art and History in the Staff College (England), author of 'The Battle of Spicheren' and 'The Campaign of Fredericksburg.' With portraits, maps, and plans. In two vols., 8vo, pp. 550, 641. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

The constitutions of Great Britain and America make the Chief Executive the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy, but in both countries it is part of the unwritten law that he shall not take the field in person. Both constitutions treat it as of the essence of national liberty that the military shall be strictly subordinate to the civil power. Legislative control is so jealously made complete that in England the Mutiny Act, which alone keeps the army in existence, runs for but one year, and the army would dissolve but for annual parliamentary renewal. In America the dependence of Congress upon biennial elections and the limitation of appropriations work, practically, the same result. Both systems make all military organizations, afloat and ashore, depend, in minute particulars even, upon law, which is but another phrase for "civilian control." Both constitutions leave it wholly discretionary with the Chief Executive, as advised by the cabinet, how far he shall go in directing the use of armies under the law, and his commandership-in-chief is not nominal, but an important fact.

Such systems are not accidents, nor the inconsiderate phrasing of the fundamental law. They mean that the liberty-loving people of both nations hold it to be a fundamental truth that the civil control of military affairs is far preferable to the military control of civil affairs, which would be the necessary alternative. They have been educated to that creed by centuries of study in the proverbially costly school of experience. Nothing more startling in the history of the civil war came to light than McClellan's revelation, in his 'Own Story,' of the suggestions that he should make himself dictator, and the assurances that he could do so, both before he took the field with the Army of the Potomac and when he was removed from its command.

Colonel Henderson would, no doubt, declare his adherence to the doctrines of British and American law which we have stated, but they cannot stand with his unlimited demand for military control over the operations of armies and the military resources of the country. Careful writers on strategy state very plainly the principle that armies are used only to execute the political purposes of governments; and that political

reasons and policy must have controlling weight throughout. If military reasons clash with wise statesmanship, military reasons must yield. Whether statesmanship be "wise or otherwise" is matter for legitimate debate, as is also the question whether military conduct be good or bad; but disagreement with the executive as to his statesmanship does not prove that the general ought to usurp his province and his powers. Clausewitz, the Prussian military authority, puts it, that "policy embraces the employment of war for the good of the state," and our author himself repeats a common form of the same maxim in saying that the army is the servant of diplomacy. Where, then, is the trouble? Simply in this, that, in practice, Col. Henderson habitually denounces interferences by the Government as violations of the *rights* of military officers, when the matter is one in which governmental policy may properly control.

The incident which was made the occasion of the discussion was the threatened resignation of Jackson because of the recall, by the Secretary of War, of Loring's troops from the position Jackson had placed them in. It was in the winter of 1861-2. The troops had been marched in terrible weather in a condition of destitution, hunger, and exposure, which, as the author describes it, was nearly destructive, and for an object of very debatable value. Jackson's weakness for mystery had made him withhold the information which would have enabled the subordinate officers to prepare their men for the hardships, and he seems to have been himself responsible for the failure of transportation and of supplies. The suffering men were nearly in a state of mutiny. Their officers protested in writing at their treatment. Loring, who was a veteran of the regular army, expressed himself indignantly, and Jackson preferred charges against him and demanded that he be court-martialled. Jackson was as yet but little known, and some, even of his staff officers, doubted if he were of sound mind. Loring had been serving in the army while Jackson had been teaching at Lexington, was regarded as an officer of tried ability, and was a man of large influence. The Richmond Government found members of Congress and important public men greatly stirred up about the matter, and thought it wise to interfere promptly, separate Loring's troops from Jackson's, and quash the court-martial proceedings. Considering the condition of affairs in the Confederacy, they seem to have been wise in smothering the scandal by most direct action, not standing upon technicalities of formal inquiries and correspondence in usual routine. But we are not concerned in deciding who was right in the controversy; the matter was plainly one in which motives of general public policy might properly have weight, and which the President and Secretary of War had jurisdiction of. It looks like narrow partisanship to make out of it a grievous abuse of Jackson. He evidently saw that he had made a mistake before he had gone far with it, and allowed his friends to suppress his resignation. He soon learned that there is room for policy as well as rigid military rule in such a war. A few months later he undertook to change the form of the cavalry organization which the Government had authorized the noted officer, Ashby, to raise. Ashby resisted and threatened to resign. Jackson found it politic not to press the issue, just as Mr. Davis had deemed it prudent to allow the organization of Ashby's Legion, Hampton's Legion, Wise's Legion, and others. Davis knew quite as well as Jackson the objections to irregularity of organization, but looked deeper, and found it politic to use a leader's zeal and influence, even at the sacrifice of his own objections. Colonel Henderson uses the incident for another thrust at the Secretary of War, saying that he was induced to do the foolish thing because he was "dazzled by Ashby's exploits." The retort that Jackson yielded to Ashby's defiance because he was also dazzled, would be quite as just. Both were politic, in different lines.

The author follows up his contemptuous characterization of the civil authorities in several specifications in a note at the end of the seventh chapter.

He charges that in the laws of organization the advice of the generals was disregarded. As an historical fact, Scott, McClellan, and others were consulted at every step in the North, and were practically the authors of the scheme established by law.

He charges that the "Northern wiseacres" considered cavalry troops "an encumbrance," and that McClellan was always in difficulties for the want of them. The strongest opposition to a large cavalry force was from the ablest generals, who pointed out the impossibility of adequate training for men and horses in a brief period of time. As for McClellan's inferiority in this arm, he reported on July 10 at Harrison's Landing 4,720 present for duty. Lee reported on July 20 4,041. On October 20, when beginning a new campaign, McClellan reported 6,724; Lee reporting at the same date 6,556.

He charges that the same wiseacres regarded a staff as "a mere ornamental appendage." There is no evidence of it. When a cadet just from the Military Academy could hope in two or three years to command a division of cavalry, like Custer, he could not be kept in the staff. Hancock and Sheridan did not remain Captain-Quartermasters, because the way to become corps and army commanders was through the line. Buell did not remain a Major and Adjutant-General, because he could be and soon was a Major-General. Meade did not remain in the Engineers, because the command of the Army of the Potomac was waiting for him. The same influence worked in the Confederate army, and when Lee, Johnston, and Jackson, Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan were all found of their own accord filling their staff with volunteers, it ought to be clear that some cause besides the whim of the "wiseacres" was operating.

He lays it at Lincoln's door that at first the troops were raised for three months only. The statute fixing that limit to a call for the militia was enacted before Lincoln was born. As soon as he could get Congress together, he asked for and obtained authority to enroll volunteers for three years or the war.

He finally, and with much more justice, criticises the practice of raising new regiments of volunteers instead of sending the recruits to fill the depleted old battalions. Mr. Lincoln would have been the first to admit that it was bad military policy. But could the troops be raised otherwise? A Napoleon or a Wellington would not have dared resort to the conscription in 1861, in the United States, where it was looked upon as the distinctive badge of military despotism. When it afterwards was tolerated, the popular feeling was shown by the fact that it was regarded as the worst of disgraces for a county to fail to keep its quota full by volunteering. "Come in out of the draft" was the humorous byword of the time; and great sums of money were raised by private subscription everywhere, for bounties, to save the townships from shame. We wish the other course had been tried, but should feel that we were flippant if we assumed that Mr. Lincoln's unmatched instinct for practical politics did not wrestle painfully with the perplexing problem. He had more than a score of States to deal with, and the Governors and public men of each had to be conciliated, the popular sentiment in each had to be watched as the sailor watches his barometer, or the ship of state would have foundered. It looks easier in '98 than it did in '62, but it would not argue wisdom if we rushed in where Lincoln trod so cautiously.

Col. Henderson assumes that both Davis and Lincoln were fond of exercising their power by trying to be generals, and by delaying to use professional military advice in strictly military matters. In a cavalier tone he says that, "in a moment of unwonted wisdom, the Confederate President had charged Gen. Lee with the control of all military operations in Virginia," in 1862 (i. 343). In like manner he tells us that not till 1864 did Lincoln "abdicate his military functions" in favor of a general-in-chief, when he appointed Grant (*id.*, p. 255). We do not so read the history in either case. Davis put Lee in control of all military operations in Virginia immediately upon Virginia's joining the Confederacy, and the first Confederate troops that crossed the boundary of the State reported to Lee. The order was not changed till, at Lee's own request, he was sent to a department of the coasts till the question of rank between him and Johnston should be settled by the Senate. At Davis's personal solicitation, Lee returned to Richmond in March, 1862, and was put in control of all military operations in the Confederacy, as chief-of-staff to the President, in substance, and evidently to avoid, in form, the same question of rank. When Johnston was wounded at Seven Pines, Lee's assignment to command the Army of Northern Virginia was with the expressed intimation that he would soon resume his wider duties. When he found that he was sufficiently burdened with his own army, Davis called Bragg to the general direction, and kept him there till the Confederate Congress made Lee general-in-chief in form. Instead, therefore, of its being a lucid interval in Davis, it was his steady purpose from first to last.

In Lincoln's case the historical continuity is, if possible, still more complete. Scott was in due form general-in-chief in command when Lincoln was inaugurated, and continued so until he was succeeded by McClellan in the same office. McClellan was succeeded by Halleck, and Halleck by Grant at short intervals. They were all announced as assigned to command all the armies of the United States. In Lincoln's most earnest advice to his generals, he was careful to add, "This is in no sense an order"; and without following the same formula, Davis was equally careful as to substance. But both still were, as they ought to be, the constitutional and real commanders-in-chief.

The strategy of both Presidents and their War Secretaries is the cause of contemptuous merriment in our author whenever he

refers to it; but not seldom, it is sounder than that of the general in question.

Mr. Lincoln's order that the national armies should open the campaign of 1862 on Washington's birthday, while it was yet winter, is likened to the order to make on the Czar's name-day "the third and most disastrous assault on Plevna" (i., 285). His comment, in part, is "that McClellan's objections were well founded, it is impossible to deny"; although he grants that the General ought to have done some things on a small scale to assuage the impatience of the people and retain the confidence of the Administration. But the author had already noted the fact, that in the new country of the West, a wilder region, with fewer roads and deeper mud, things were already "going badly for the new Republic. The Union troops had overrun Kentucky, Missouri, and the greater part of Tennessee. A Confederate army had been defeated, Confederate forts captured, and the amphibious power of the North had already been effectively exerted" (*id.*, 261).

The order holding McDowell's corps back from joining McClellan is sharply condemned. Several considerations bear on this. McClellan had deliberately chosen the exterior line of operations by the Peninsula, against Lincoln's judgment in favor of the interior line, which would cover Washington as he advanced, and would make the army of the enemy the first objective (pp. 359-60). Here the President's strategy was better than the General's. In acceding to McClellan's urgency, Lincoln made it a condition that an entirely *specified* adequate force should be left to defend the capital. This was not done, as was reported by a board of "six generals of the regular army" (p. 306) to whom the President submitted the inquiry. He therefore stopped McDowell's corps at Fredericksburg. Our author says of this that "it was worse than folly to interfere with the General's plans when he was on the eve of executing them" (p. 307). The only interference was to call him back to the plan distinctly agreed upon before he started, and from which he could not, in good faith, depart. The event showed that it would have been worse than folly to do otherwise; for Lincoln was sagacious in foreseeing that McClellan would not "march rapidly on Richmond and seize his adversary by the throat," which the author well says was the "best way of defending Washington" (p. 308). Moreover, McClellan still had an army big enough for victory had he been able to use it. Col. Henderson often points out how the character of McClellan modified all the problems of strategy, and justified Lee in what would otherwise be condemned (ii., p. 13). To Mr. Lincoln, at the close of 1861, it was antecedently probable that a fraction of the enemy's forces could occupy McClellan and make him think he was outnumbered, while another part should march on the capital. He was exactly right, and the author asserts that Lee did exactly that thing, and in doing it proved himself "the clearest-sighted soldier in America" (i., 361). Yet Col. Henderson amuses himself with the workings of "the civilian mind" in Mr. Lincoln, in foreseeing it and trying to provide for it.

The arrangement of the forces in the Shenandoah and in western Virginia was made when McClellan was in command of them as general-in-chief; yet their dissemination is attributed to the "unaided wisdom" of Lincoln and Stanton, who had "so ingeniously isolated" them (*id.*, 360-61). It is fairly conceded that "when Jackson pressed forward to the Potomac, it became possible to intercept him, and the President did all he could to assist his generals [McDowell, Frémont, and Banks]. He kept them constantly informed of the movements of the enemy and of each other. He left them a free hand, and, with an opponent less able, his instructions would have probably brought about complete success" (*id.*, 440). Whoever will candidly read Lincoln's calm, clear, patient, courageous, and stimulating dispatches of that month, will see that, viewed purely as military conceptions and judged as military conduct, they put him above any professional military subordinate he had in the field in Virginia. Whether he got it from "the pages of Jomini and Clausewitz" in that military library over which Colonel Henderson makes merry (p. 500), we will not undertake to decide. It would be rash to say how soon his penetrating sight would reach the heart of any book and turn its wisdom into homely but most telling practical form; but we should not be surprised if some future professor in the Staff College should write a book to prove from the Official Records that Lincoln's military library was no mere ornament of the White House. We commend the thesis to aspiring young officers.

In the matter of the removal of McClellan, the proof culminates that Mr. Lincoln's military ideas were sound and his strategy sagacious. Col. Henderson's treatment of it is simply astonishing. Antietam was fought on the 17th of September, and Lee retreated across the Potomac, with a good deal of disorder. Mr. Lincoln urged that the retreating enemy should be promptly and persistently followed, and he was right. He called McClellan's attention to the fact that the best season of the whole year for campaigning was rapidly passing, and that the question of time "cannot and must not be ignored." McClellan wanted to stop and build a railroad to Winchester; Lincoln replied that this meant wasting the autumn and deferring operations to another year. Lincoln further pointed out that Lee's wagon transportation was over roads twice as long as ours, and that he probably had not half as many wagons. McClellan said his plan was to move up the Shenandoah valley. Lincoln pointed out to him that this was to operate by external lines, while internal lines were now ready for him and more available, and covered Washington in his advance, which his would not, were shorter instead of longer, and would enable the Government to reinforce him as he went forward. When McClellan finally moved he adopted Lincoln's line.

Lincoln went further, and showed that by the interior line McClellan could operate directly upon Lee's communications; that he was actually nearer Lee's base (Richmond) than Lee himself, and that it would be his own fault if he did not bring his adversary to battle in a position most of all sought for by competent strategists. Moltke himself could not have dealt out sounder doctrine. Lincoln still again made a strictly accurate analysis of the topography of the theatre of operations, of the location and distance of the gaps in the Blue Ridge, of the connection of roads, and showed that if McClellan could march as fast as his enemy, it was mathematically impossible for Lee to get back across the mountains without a battle with a superior army planted upon his communications. But Lincoln had no weak over-estimate of the value of Richmond, though our author insinuates it. He distinctly said, "If he makes a stand at Winchester, moving neither north nor south, I would fight him there, on the idea that if we cannot beat him when he bears the wastage of coming to us, we never can when we bear the wastage of going to him." Right again; the Staff College could not teach it better.

There was, however, still another contingency: Lee might again invade the North, said McClellan. Lincoln's answer is strictly *secundum artem:* "If he does so in full force, he gives up his communications to you absolutely, and you have nothing to do but to follow and ruin him. If he does so with less than full force, fall upon and beat what is left behind all the easier" (O. R., xix., pt. 1, p. 14). Our author answers that "Lee altogether failed to respond to Mr. Lincoln's strategical pronouncements," and, "instead of fearing for his own communications, he had placed Jackson in a position to interfere very seriously with those of the enemy" (ii., 363). This statement, if quite true, would admit that Lincoln's game was a good one and that Lee thought he could play it better than McClellan. But let us see what Lee thought of his communications. In writing to Jackson authorizing manœuvres and feints, he closed with the gist of his instructions: "You must always keep in view the probability of an attack upon Richmond from either north or south, when a concentration of force will become necessary" (*id.*, p. 367). So Lee himself is again the witness that Lincoln divined him rightly.

An impartial critic must admit that the strategical plan of the President was good; the real question was whether McClellan could execute it. Colonel Hay tells us from personal knowledge that Mr. Lincoln made up his mind that if McClellan "should permit Lee to cross the Blue Ridge and place himself between Richmond and the Army of the Potomac, he would remove him from command" (Nicolay and Hay's Lincoln, vi., 188). He had also been influenced by proof that those in closest relations to the General believed that the inaction was purposed, and that "the game" was to "tire out the rebels and ourselves," then let the sections "come together fraternally and slavery be saved" (*id.*, p. 187). Southern sympathizers with that view could well make strained apologies for McClellan. We do not accept it, but believe he was constitutionally incapable of vigorous generalship in the field. The intelligent comprehension of a military problem, and a just criticism of it, are *toto cœlo* different from the practical capacity to command a great army in the field. Statesmen *must* criticise. They cannot escape it if they would. They must judge of ability and of success, and must remove a general when he does not succeed. Colonel Henderson's characterization of the removal of McClellan as a "deplorable weakness" on the part of Lincoln is, as usual, answered from his own pages, when he adopts Jackson's dictum that "the service cannot afford to keep a man who does not succeed," adding: "His motto was, Get rid of the unsuccessful man at once, and trust to Providence for finding a better" (ii., 421). The author's theory that Lincoln, in 1864, told Grant to "take the responsibility and act," because he had learned his own ignorance, does not fit the facts so well as that he now knew he had in command a man whose courage, energy, and zeal matched his own, and who could be wholly

trusted "to fight it out on that line." It proved that he was no rash meddler, but was only too glad to step back into the civil duties as soon as he might. His intercourse with his generals from the very first showed his desire to trust them, and to have them succeed in their own way, if they would only act with persistent energy.

The rôle of the encomiast tempts a writer to extravagance; and, in his zeal to show Jackson always at the height of ideal generalship, the author cannot escape the temptation to belittle even General Lee. The trend of the book is to put the subordinate above his commander, as above all others on either side who succeeded in leading independent armies in the field. As he never had such a command, it seems to us that the debate is futile. The actual test of such independent responsibility is the only thing that can prove the capacity to bear it. The current of military history is choked with the dead reputations of brilliant subordinates who failed in chief command; and, in Jackson's case, as in others, it is wiser to be content with the striking things he did, and to restrain the eulogist's desire to give him rank according to the greater things he might have done if the opportunity had been accorded him.

A NATURALIST IN THE PHILIPPINES.

The Philippine Islands and their People. By Dean C. Worcester. Macmillan. 1898.

We take this to be the most comprehensive book on the Philippine Islands which has appeared since the work of John Foreman, who has long been an acknowledged authority on that archipelago. It is a rather bulky volume of some five hundred pages, of clear type, printed on glazed paper for the sake of the numerous illustrations. Prof. Worcester went first to the Philippines with Dr. J. B. Steere in 1887-88, actuated, he says, by "an interest in the study of birds as well as by a desire to aid in the exploration of a little-known country." This expedition was unofficial, and another was made to the islands in 1890, this time with the permission of the Spanish authorities. Prof. Worcester visited and worked in all of the most important islands of the archipelago, and his book consists both of a study of existing conditions, and of a very readable narrative of his life and adventures among the peculiar people with whom he came in contact. He seems never to have remained long in one place, and his twenty chapters keep the reader skipping about among the islands, across tempestuous straits, into poverty-stricken villages, up tortuous streams, through swamps and into forests, at one moment mentally soaked to the skin, and at the next parched from the heat of a broiling sun.

In speaking of the much-discussed climate of the Philippines, Prof. Worcester reports with regard to Manila that the mean annual temperature is 80 degrees, and says that, when one remembers that the air is heavily charged with moisture during much of the time, this figure leaves much to be desired. Summing up the facts on climate in general, he states that "if one is permanently situated in a good locality, where he can procure suitable food and good drinking-water, if he is scrupulously careful as to his diet, avoids excesses of all kinds, keeps out of the sun in the middle of the day, and refrains from severe and long-continued physical exertion, he is likely to remain well, always supposing that he is fortunate enough to escape malarial infection." "But with the explorer, the engineer, the man who would fell timber, cultivate new ground, or in some other way develop the latent resources of the country," our author adds, "it is a very different story," and any one really exposed to the climate under such circumstances will find it severe. In conclusion, he remarks that "it is unfortunately true that the climate is especially severe in its effect on white women and children, and . . . that we have here a serious though not necessarily insurmountable obstacle to the development of the great resources of this remarkable country."

After giving a brief résumé of the history of the Philippine Islands, a chapter on the arrival of the party in Manila and first impressions of the capital, and another on a general description of the archipelago, its resources, volcanoes, rivers, forests, soil, etc., Prof. Worcester takes up his first and second visits to the island of Palawan, which formerly belonged to the Sultan of Borneo. This island is some 300 miles long by 20 in average width, and "the greater part of its surface is covered with magnificent timber . . . among which may be mentioned ebony, logwood, and ipil." He describes the peculiarities of a weird native tribe inhabiting the central part of Palawan, called the Tagbanuas, who are primitive enough mentally to account for the tide "by saying that in a far-distant sea there lived a gigantic crab; when he went into his hole, the water was forced out and the tide rose; when he came out, the water rushed in and the tide fell." "Child marriage in Palawan is extremely common," says Prof. Worcester. "Women are in demand, and it is said that children are sometimes betrothed before birth, with the rather necessary proviso of their turning out to be of the proper sex."

From Palawan the author went to Mindanao (an island nearly as large as Luzon), about whose interior next to nothing has been known until within a short time, and whose confines are filled with wild Malayan tribes who have never recognized the rule of any one, of Spain the least. As Prof. Worcester says: "Although the island is nominally divided into provinces, Spanish control is, as a matter of fact, effective only in narrow and more or less isolated strips along the sea, and near a few of the rivers which afford the only means of communication with the interior." He goes on to describe the mode of government in the few Spanish towns in Mindanao and the character of the civilized natives, and then gives an account of the famous race of Moros whose uncivilized members have so long held the Spaniards at bay.

From Mindanao Prof. Worcester went to Sulu, where Gen. Arolas brought order out of chaos during his governorship, and was so strict with the unruly natives that he is even reported as having published an order "forbidding the trees to shed their leaves on his streets." In Panay the author stopped at Iloilo, the second city of the Philippines, and describes it as being "built on low, flat ground, much of which is filled swamp land. The unpaved streets are always dusty or muddy. . . . The church is ugly, and the public square, once handsomely laid out, was serving as a goat pasture. There are no places of amusement. One sees a few shops and some pleasant residences, but the native quarter seems to be rather mixed up with the rest of the city."

In Negros, Prof. Worcester was brought face to face with the labor problem in the Philippines, and he remarks that it is a

"serious one for all who have to employ men in large numbers. . . . In some islands laborers cannot be had at all unless they are imported, and in any event it is usually necessary to make them considerable advances on salary account before they will do anything. . . . In many parts of the Philippines nature has done so much for the people that they have little trouble in obtaining food, clothing, and shelter. What more do they require? Why should one work and accumulate money only to be robbed of it? Their logic is unanswerable under present conditions."

In Cebu the author found that corn grows better than in any other part of the Philippines. The island has almost been denuded of trees, the soil is shallow, and the climate on the whole exceptionally healthful. From Cebu, Prof. Worcester went to Samar, then to Masbate, and then to Mindoro, which the natives refer to as "white man's grave." Mindoro appears to be noted for the unsavory character of its people, the heaviness of its rainfall, and the deadliness of the miasma in its fever-smitten lowlands. The interior is broken up by mountains, clothed with heavy forests which shelter a race of primitive savages called Mangyans, who go without clothes and without permanent shelter during the dry season. A hand mirror given by the party to one of the men caused him to act like a monkey. He did not recognize his own reflection. In Mindoro Prof. Worcester had some capital hunting, and killed a timarau—an animal something like a small buffalo, rarely gotten at by foreigners.

Luzon was the last island visited, and had not the author been taken down with a fever serious enough to necessitate his departure from the Philippines, he would have investigated the unknown table-lands and unexplored districts of North Luzon. As it is, Prof. Worcester gives some interesting information about this island, with its 42,000 square miles and enormous natural resources, and describes his visit to one of the smallest but fiercest volcanoes in existence—that of Taal, not far south of Manila, which in 1754 completely destroyed four towns and threw cinders into the capital, thirty-four miles away.

In concluding his observations on the government of the Philippines by the Spanish, Prof. Worcester says the home authorities have long been in the habit of employing one set of officials to watch another. Misappropriation of the public funds is found in every quarter, and "from the beginning until now the archipelago has served the horde of hungry Spanish officials as a plundering ground. . . . The whole financial administration is rotten to the core." As to the population of the islands as a whole, the author considers it to be divisible into more than 80 distinct tribes, which may be conveniently grouped as Negritos, Mohammedan Malays, pagan Malays, and civilized Malays. The Negritos stand at the bottom of the scale, and seem to be incapable of civilization. The Mohammedan Malays or Moros are savages who must be held in check with a strong hand, and the nation who would get on peaceably with them must let their religion strictly alone. The pagan Malays are composed of tribes both docile and warlike, and might be ultimately made use of

by converting them into soldiers, as has been done with similar peoples in India. The civilized Malays, to the amount of five millions or more, on whose character depend the questions which concern the future of the Philippines, have many good qualities which offset certain bad traits. The civilized Filipino is hospitable, accommodating, cleanly, and fond of home life. He is a kind father and dutiful son, and usually slow to anger. But with all these amiable qualities, the civilized natives are utterly unfit for self-government. "Their universal lack of education is in itself a difficulty that cannot speedily be overcome," says Prof. Worcester, "and there is much truth in the statement of a priest who said of them that, in many things, they are big children who must be treated like little ones."

Prof. Worcester's wanderings in the Philippines were, as we have intimated, brought to a close by a serious attack of typhoid fever at Manila, and on his recovery he was obliged to give up further exploration and return home. The material in his book is certainly highly interesting. Neither the scientific nor the statistical portions will repel the average reader, who is bound to be entertained by the lively adventures and anecdotes related in a simple, straightforward style. The book is plentifully sprinkled with some 60 illustrations taken from photographs by Dr. F. S. Bourns, who was one of Prof. Worcester's party, and contains a good map of the archipelago.

The Romance of the House of Savoy, 1003-1519. By Alethea Wiel. Putnams. 1898.

Mrs. Wiel has, we must allow, chosen an excellent subject for the sort of light historical work which many women excel in. The chronicles of no other great house in Europe are more packed with striking or strange incidents than are these of Savoy, and the almost legendary heroes of the early centuries are more than equalled in interest by the strong characters whose features are verifiable in the recent annals of the family. Humbert of the White Hands remains, after all is said, rather a dim, mythical personage beside his very human descendant, Emanuel Philibert; and although the Green Count may be—for those who regard armor and castles and portcullises as the true basis of romance—more "romantic," he is certainly less remarkable than Prince Eugene, not to mention Victor Emanuel. We believe so firmly that no previous age approaches our own in real romance that we are a little suspicious of writers who dive into the past to bring up from its depths only "romantic" pearls—as if they were all, or the best, the past could produce. But, granting the desirability of writing light history of this sort, we may say that Mrs. Wiel seems, in the main, to have done her work well; certainly there can be no question that the early history of the House of Savoy is worth writing, or that it is full of interest. So far as we have observed, she is never far wrong, and never very vividly right—that is, she never makes you feel that her account of persons or events is final and conclusive. Her publishers make a mistake in advertising her work as an addition to our knowledge of the House of Savoy, as if it contained revelations not hitherto published by Piedmontese historians; whereas, its value is that it presents, in popular, rather gossipy style, well-known matter for the entertainment of those readers who turn away from formal history. And is it quite honest to state that the illustrations are "reproduced chiefly from contemporary sources," when there is not a genuine portrait of any of the early Savoyard princes? These portraits here reproduced are from an interesting imaginary series made recently by F. L. D. Lange. If Mrs. Wiel had spent ten minutes in the Royal Armory at Turin, she would have seen that the beautiful helmet and ostrich plumes and other trappings in the imaginary portrait of Count Oddo are anachronistic by at least 500 years. What should we say of a person who, having announced portraits "from contemporary sources" of William the Conqueror and the early Plantagenets, should exhibit fancy pictures of those heroes in the full-bottomed wigs and indubitable costumes of Queen Anne's time? Fortunately, not all the illustrations in Mrs. Wiel's book are of this kind; more than half have genuine historical value, and all are beautifully printed. The work, as a whole, may be commended to persons who take their history with as much "romance" as possible, and who trouble themselves little about perfect accuracy or "authorities"; but even readers of a stricter taste will find here a good many passages from old chroniclers who are not easily accessible in English. The volumes are quite worthy of a place on the same shelf with Mrs. Oliphant's 'Makers' of Florence and Venice. There are several slips and inaccuracies, *e. g.*: Louis XVI. was not the son of Louis XV.; Charles Albert did not renew the war on March 24, 1849—that was the day *after* his complete rout at Novara. By an odd mistake, Mrs. Wiel writes of the Chapel of the most holy *Sudario* at Turin, as if Sudario were the name of a saint, instead of being that of the piece of shroud in which Christ was buried, and which has long been Turin's holiest relic.

Human Immortality; Two Supposed Objections to the Doctrine. By William James. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 70.

Although Prof. James's Ingersoll Lecture is neither dull nor lengthy nor abstruse, it is not scientific, and contrives in a dainty little volume of seventy pages to make a distinct and substantial contribution to a subject which has for centuries been involved in all the insincerity, obscurity, and prejudice which the passions of men can engender. As might be gathered from the title, Prof. James supposes himself to be addressing an audience willing, if not anxious, to believe in immortality, and so his lecture takes the form of a reply to "two supposed objections to the doctrine"; but he makes his points so simply, clearly, and candidly that he need not fear lest what he says should be treated merely as a sermon convincing only to those already convinced.

His first and foremost argument deals with the materialistic objection that consciousness has been shown to be the accompaniment of cerebral changes and is a function of the brain, so that it is an absurdity not worth discussing to fancy that it can persist after the brain has ceased to function. The "fangs" of this "cerebralistic materialism are drawn" by Prof. James very neatly. He admits all the facts that have been (or can be) proved, but shows that the inference does not follow. Consciousness may be a function of the brain in another way than materialism supposes. That organ need not *produce* consciousness—it may only *transmit* it from some supernal source of truer reality. Brains may be "thin and half-transparent places in the veil" that break and strain and distort the spiritual radiance which they half reveal. This explains the facts to which materialism makes its appeal equally well, and it explains certain other facts much better. It avoids the necessity of having to generate consciousness inexplicably out of matter in "multiplied miracles." It accords with the idealist objections which philosophy makes to materialism. It interprets the psychological notion of a "threshold" above which consciousness rises and below which it sinks when exhausted. And lastly, it dispenses science from the growing embarrassment of rejecting *a priori* the evidence of supernormal phenomena which the psychical researches continue to accumulate.

Such are the arguments on which, with a characteristic allusion to his doctrine of "the will to believe," Prof. James bases his declaration that logically we may believe in immortality henceforth, whether we care to profit by the permission or not. It is to be hoped that among the multitude of those who disagree with him, a champion may speedily arise to take up the challenge, and to set forth with equal or greater courage and candor why he prefers not to believe, how he would prohibit the belief, and what he would substitute for an argument which has so clearly been shown to be unsound.

In the second place, Prof. James considers an objection which is of an æsthetic rather than of a scientific character, and based on "the incredible and intolerable number of beings which we must believe to be immortal, if immortality be true." Formerly, while the world still appeared "a small and snug affair," the imagination could contemplate without dismay and disgust the eternal bliss of an aristocratic élite, but now we shrink from the overcrowding of a Heaven which must be thrown open to Chinamen, Hottentots, and Australians, nay, to animals and whatever has life, and would rather perish in the privacy of the grave than live in so mixed and unsavory a society. To this difficulty, which has probably been felt by all who have given the matter any serious thought, our author's reply seems less original and convincing than in the first case. It consists merely of an appeal to the wider-hearted instinct of democracy, to the belief that to God all life is precious, to the fact that we cannot presume to decide against alien claims whose grounds we are not able to appreciate. That seems the old reply of religious sentiment to the apprehensions of human humility as well as to the exuberance of human conceit, but it scarcely sets at rest the doubt as to whether, in the eyes of God, all worth is equally great or equally small. On the other hand, it may be pointed out that an alternative method of meeting the difficulty has commended itself from the very beginnings of human reflection on the mystery of life. It has always been believed that the vile and contemptible forms in which the spiritual veiled its glory were neither true nor final, and that the reward of strenuous aspiration might reveal itself in a proportionate and gradual rise in the scale of being. And, in our time at least, the faith in a spiritual evolution can find strong support in the fact of a physical evolution.

The great interest of Prof. James's argu-

ment will be readily apparent from the foregoing sketch, and it may safely be predicted that if the Ingersoll Lectures maintain this level, they will go far to realize the purpose of their founder.

History of American Politics. By Alexander Johnston. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged by William M. Sloane. Henry Holt & Co. 1898.

A new "down to date" edition of this valuable little manual should have been marked by some alterations in the body of the work, as well as additions at the end. It has a few mistakes due merely to oversight. For instance, the reënactment of the Sub-Treasury system, after its repeal by the Whigs, is not recorded. Again, a footnote on page 213 states that only the Fortieth Congress met immediately after the adjournment of its predecessor, in accordance with the law passed by the Thirty-ninth. This is, of course, neutralized in the text by the accounts of the extra sessions held under this law in 1869 and 1871, but the error of the note should be corrected. Also, two different dates are given in different places for the admission of West Virginia to the Union. The date in the body of the book, page 200, is wrong. In a few cases of a somewhat different nature the words of the book are certainly liable to unfortunate interpretation, if not absolutely wrong. The opening statement of the Introduction, that "the Government of the United States, in its original form (in 1777), was an extreme Democracy," is too inexact to be of value. The class of students who use this book need careful definition of such terms as "Democracy," and if it is left to the teacher to supply those definitions, the terms should not be so loosely used in the book as to counteract his work. It is certainly misleading to charge the defeat of a proposition to arm American vessels, in 1798, to "the Republican disposition to tolerate almost any treatment from France," when the Federalists were in the majority in both houses of Congress. When, under Van Buren, the Secretary of the Treasury was directed to receive the notes of specie-paying banks in payment for public lands, the "Specie Circular" was not "annulled," as the book puts it, but modified. In a footnote on page 137 the words "at the next session" should read "in the next Congress" to be correct. On page 151, in treating of the Mexican war, we find the words, "it was certain that any newly acquired territory would swarm with slaveholders." In view of subsequent history, *certain* is not the word. Very few slaves were ever taken into any part of the Mexican acquisitions. The first page of the chapter on Lincoln's first administration describes the condition of affairs at the close of the Buchanan régime in a way that few would have questioned twenty years ago, but historical research has advanced since then. The page should be rewritten in the light of the evidence adduced by James Ford Rhodes and others, during the past decade or two. Buchanan has enough to answer for, without exaggeration. Again, the corruption in the War Department during the first year of the war should not pass entirely unmentioned. Here, too, Rhodes will furnish some valuable suggestions for a revision. And as the book aims to trace the party currents of our history, another edition should not be prepared without a careful study of Van Buren's position as a party leader.

Perhaps the general method of the book is not beyond question. To follow in rigid chronological order the successive administrations and sessions of Congress results in such a chopping up of topics as is scarcely consistent with the desired impression on the mind of the reader. Might it not be better to break loose from these shackles altogether in the body of the work, and give in an appendix a list of important acts of Congress, and other notable events, arranged by administrations and sessions of Congress? We make these suggestions because the book has, and deserves to have, a wide use in our schools and colleges, and hence should be as perfect as it is possible to make it.

Manual of the History of French Literature. By Ferdinand Brunetière of the French Academy. Authorized translation by Ralph Derechef. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1898.

M. Brunetière's work is one of the noteworthy additions to the history of French literature which the latter end of the century has produced. Even had the author not made a reputation as a dogmatic and combative critic before the publication of his Manual, the book itself must have brought him favor and authority. There is nothing to compare with the admirable synthetical review of the literary movement in France which constitutes the major portion of the work. That certain portions of the literature are not treated as fairly as they merit, is true enough—the mediævalists have just ground for complaint on this score; but, taken as a whole, the view of French literature from its origins to the present day is excellent and instructive in the highest degree. The application of the doctrine of evolution to literary productions has not before been made to the same extent or with the same general success. The book is one to be read—that is a matter of course—and frequently consulted whether one agrees with the author or not.

It is, therefore, not surprising that a translation of it should have been called for. Many persons must have wished to derive profit and pleasure from the perusal of a new work by M. Brunetière, of one, especially, in which he had not to touch on burning questions of contemporary politics. M. Brunetière's style does not lend itself readily to translation, but that does not account for the utter unintelligibility of more than one passage of importance in the present version. Nor does it account for the use of expressions which, whatever they may be meant to convey, are not English. At the very outset we encounter "If there be any originality in this Manual it is constituted by this attitude," and "Whether we study these writers in their works, or whether in their works it be they themselves that excite our preference, what interests us in them is what distinguishes them from all other writers, or what in them is irreducible and incommensurable." The distinction between the tenses and moods of the English verb is often ignored by the translator, and the meaning of the original consequently perverted. He (or she, for "Ralph Derechef" is a pseudonym) has evidently sought to revenge fair France on perfidious Albion by maltreating the tongue of the hated "Goddams." The object is surely attained when "what is it diversifies," "still . . . nevertheless," . . . "only . . . merely," "the first edition of them [Commyne's Mémoires] appeared in 1524 . . . and as to the last portion in 1528," "a language is not merely an algebra," "by 'art' it is to be understood," "it is scarcely possible to distinguish between what of them should be attributed to d'Urfé, and what of them is the work of Baro," "there is something specific or unique in its class about the pleasure derived from literature as about that derived from music," "Rousseau's two first Discours," "he made the idea his own, his very own property, and at his epoch his sole property."

All this is bad enough, but the worst of the work is to be found in the biographical and critical remarks on the chief writers which are at the foot of every page. The punctuation adopted by the translator, in faithful imitation of M. Brunetière's use of the dash and the semi-colon, is fearful and wonderful indeed. How any one can be expected to make out the author's meaning without referring to the French original, passes comprehension. One or two instances of this, on page 355, or on pages 41 and 43, in which Voltaire, Clément Marot, and Marguerite de Valois are criticised, will suffice to illustrate this point. Why, finally, has the proofreading been done so carelessly? And why, in the selection of portraits, has a place been given to Béranger, whom M. Brunetière expresses the utmost contempt for, when Racine and Bossuet, the latter the Brunetière fetish, are not honored with a photogravure reproduction of their seventeenth-century features?

Radiation: An Elementary Treatise on Electromagnetic Radiation and on Röntgen and Cathode Rays. By H. H. Francis Hyndman. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 307.

Somewhat more than half this book is devoted to the properties of electromagnetic radiation—that is, of light, of the discharges of Leyden jars and oscillators, and of various other kinds. This part of the book answers its purpose; but we shall say no more of it, because the chief interest of the work lies in its collecting all that is essential in our knowledge of the newly discovered kinds of radiation.

The discussion necessarily begins, just as the history of discovery does, with the so-called *negative* rays of Crookes. These rays can exist only under pretty high exhaustions. The negative rays can pass through glass; but if they are focussed on a part of the tube where thin aluminium, and not glass, is the material of the wall, a faint glow will be perceived outside. In fact, there are there, not negative rays, but another kind of rays, called cathode rays. These rays are susceptible of reflection and refraction; their interference is a disputed question; their polarization has never been effected. They do not affect the eye. Their velocity of propagation is less than that of light, suggesting that they reside in a substance similar to, but distinct from, the luminiferous ether. When the current, instead of being steady, is rapidly intermittent, then, without any piece of aluminium, but with some focussing, X or Röntgen rays are emitted. These rays can be reflected, especially from zinc; but no interference or polarization of them has ever been discovered. Differently produced X-rays differ greatly in their penetrative power.

Becquerel rays are rays having peculiar properties, which are emitted by salts of uranium and of other metals. The metals copper and platinum are readily transparent to them; silver and tin are less so; zinc and lead are opaque. Becquerel rays are readily polarized; which shows that they are only ultra-violet-light rays. And the contrast to the X-rays in this respect ought to throw a light on the nature of the latter. "Le Bon's rays" are rays by which photographs can be taken from which the light is shut off by a sheet of iron. "Discharge rays" are rays emitted by an electric spark. They are, no doubt, merely ultra-violet rays. The light of fire-flies, glow-worms, etc., is known to be peculiar, but there is no reason to suppose it other than ordinary light peculiarly sifted.

We cannot say this book is skilfully written. A certain number of facts are overlooked, and it seems almost a matter of chance as one reads whether anything will get mentioned or not. It has evidently been composed by taking all the memoirs on each branch in chronological order, and making an abstract of each; but unless every single statement of every memoir is included, this procedure will result in omissions. If all statements are included, the abstract must itself be digested with pains and skill to make a thoroughly good book. However, the present work is not very faulty in its omissions.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, Mrs. G. R. Reuben's Hindrances. Boston: Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Ames, Prof. J. S. Prismatic and Diffraction Spectra. The Free Expansion of Gases. [Harper's Scientific Memoirs.] Harpers.
A Very Seasonable Kalendar. 1899. Boston: L. C. Poole & Co. 85c.
Barr, Mrs. Amelia E. Maids, Wives, and Bachelors. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Birdsall, Anna H. A Conflict of Sex. F. T. Neely.
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Brooke, Stopford A. The Gospel of Joy. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Bross, E. C. God's Pay-Day. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Canton, William. W. V.'s Golden Legend. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
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Chamberlin, Rose. Advanced Sight Translation (German). Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 15c.
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Demolins, Edmund. Anglo-Saxon Superiority. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Dixon, Mrs. Archibald. The True History of the Missouri Compromise and its Repeal. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $4.
Dumas, Alexandre. Twenty Years After. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Dunlop, Dr. J. D. Forest Lily. A Novel. F. T. Neely.
Eliot, Henrietta R. Laura's Holidays. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. 50c.
Emery, M. S. How to Enjoy Pictures. Prang Educational Co.
Emory, Allan. Within White Walls. F. T. Neely.
Fawcett, Edgar. New York. A Novel. F. T. Neely.
Filon, Augustin. De Dumas à Rostand. Esquisse du Mouvement Dramatique Contemporain. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Flattery, M. D. Wife or Maid? F. T. Neely.
Fowke, F. R. The Bayeux Tapestry. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Garcia, Lester M. del. Two Washington Belles. F. T. Neely.
Geikie, James. Earth Sculpture; or, The Origin of Land-Forms. London: Murray; New York: Putnams.
Gerard, Dorothea. The Impediment. Appletons. $1.
Gibson, C. D. Sketches and Cartoons. R. H. Russell. $5.
Golm, Rudolf. The Old Adam and the New Eve. G. H. Richmond & Son.
Hall, F. C. A Country Tragedy. F. T. Neely.
Hamm, Margherita A. Manila and the Philippines. F. T. Neely.
Harrison, S. F. The Forest of Bourg-Marie. London: Edward Arnold.
Hedin, Sven. Through Asia. 2 vols. Harpers. $10.
Hemment, Dr. J. C. Cannon and Camera. Appletons. $2.
Holman, Prof. S. W. Matter, Energy, Force, and Work. Macmillan. $2.
Howe, M. A. DeW. American Bookmen. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Hume, Fergus. The Rainbow Feather. G. W. Dillingham Co.
Jahrbuch für die Deutsche Frauenwelt. 1899. Stuttgart: Greiner & Pfeiffer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Jameson, C. D. Portland Cement. Its Manufacture and Use. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Kaven, E. T. A Duel of Wits. F. T. Neely.
Keenan, H. F. The Conflict with Spain. Philadelphia: P. W. Ziegler & Co.
Kemble, E. W. A Coon Alphabet. R. H. Russell. $1.
Ketcham, Minnie W. Driftwood. Sketches in Poetry and Prose. F. T. Neely.
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Laughton, Prof. J. K. Memoirs of the Life and Correspondence of Henry Reeve. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $8.
Le Bon, Gustave. Psychologie du Socialisme. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Lee, Sidney. A Life of William Shakespeare. Macmillan. $1.75.
Leibold, C. E. The Woman Proposes. F. T. Neely.
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Lodge, H. C. The Story of the Revolution. 2 vols. Scribners. $6.
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Rice, Cale Y. From Dusk to Dusk. Poems. Nashville, Tenn.: Cumberland Presbyterian Co.
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Storke, F. E. Mr. De Lacy's Double. Continental Publishing Co. $1.25.
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Symons, Arthur. The Confessions of St. Augustine. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 40c.
Taylor, C. M. Vacation Days in Hawaii and Japan. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $2.
Taylor, M. L. A Yankee Volunteer. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Temple, E. L. Old World Memories. 2 vols. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $3.
Thayer, Prof. J. B. A Preliminary Treatise on Evidence at the Common Law. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
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Thorp, F. H. Outlines of Industrial Chemistry. Macmillan. $3.50.
Twenty-two Years' Work at Hampton. Hampton, Va.: Normal School Press.
Van Pelt, Daniel. History of the Greater New York. 2 vols. Arkell Publishing Co.
Waterman, Rev. Lucius. The Post-Apostolic Age. Scribners. $2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 8, 1898.

The Week.

About one-half of the President's message relates to the war with Spain, and this subject is divided into three parts. The first is a justification of the war itself, the second a narrative of the progress and ending of the war, and the third a glance at the relations existing between the United States and the colonies of Spain that have fallen into our hands. As regards the Philippines and Porto Rico, he makes no recommendation and indicates no policy, but cuts the whole subject short with the following paragraph:

> "I do not discuss at this time the government or the future of the new possessions which will come to us as the result of the war with Spain. Such discussion will be appropriate after the treaty of peace shall be ratified. In the meantime, and until the Congress has legislated otherwise, it will be my duty to continue the military governments which have existed since our occupation, and give to the people security in life and property, and encouragement under a just and beneficent rule."

As to Cuba itself, he does not contemplate its union with this country in any way whatever or at any time whatever. Her people must provide a government for themselves. "Until there is complete tranquillity in the island," he says, "and a stable government inaugurated, military occupation will be continued." Necessarily, under the President's plan, the "open door" policy will prevail—that is, the United States tariff will not apply to Cuba, but all nations will be treated alike in matters of trade. Steamship communication with Hawaii, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, "encouraged by the United States," is recommended, however. This means steamship subsidies, and the example of Spain is cited to justify them. Of course the lobbyists at the door of the committee on appropriations will approve this suggestion.

Turning to domestic affairs, the President repeats his recommendation that when greenbacks have been once presented to the Treasury and redeemed, they shall not be paid out again except in exchange for gold, and also that a portion of the gold in the Treasury be set apart expressly as a trust fund for the redemption of the legal-tender notes. Under the present law, the existence of a greenback-redemption fund is an inference drawn from the wording of an act passed in 1880. These recommendations of the President are wise as far as they go. He hints at the need of amendment of the national banking law to the end that our domestic paper currency "be kept safe, and yet be so related to the needs of our industries and internal commerce as to be adequate and responsive to such needs." This seems to be a guarded approval of the plan of currency reform initiated by the Indianapolis convention, but without any committal as to details. On the subject of the Nicaragua Canal, the President draws attention to the fact that a new concession has been granted by the Government of Nicaragua, to take effect on the expiration of the old one. He makes no recommendation to Congress in view of this fact, but expresses the opinion that such a maritime highway is now more than ever indispensable to us.

The only novelty in Secretary Alger's report is his large and easy recommendation that the United States at once set about building a railroad from one extremity of Cuba to the other. The cost he casually reckons at $20,000,000, but the money would all be spent in giving employment to poor Cubans. "Humanity," says Mr. Alger, using a word which we seem to have heard before, demands that we come to the aid of the unemployed in Cuba; and what better way than to set them all to work building a great trunk railroad? Hardened sceptics may suggest that Secretary Alger is trying at the same time to be "humane" to the Senate, and not cruelly asking it to ratify a treaty without seeing where railroad and other Senatorial enterprises will come in. We repel all this indignantly, but we should like to ask why Mr. Alger made no reference to existing railroads in Cuba? Does he or does he not know that all but about 200 miles of the east-and-west extension of the island is already traversed by a railroad? Does he or does he not know that the remainder of the route has been surveyed, and that concessions to finish the line through to Santiago will doubtless be held valid by the courts? Is he aware that all the principal seaports west of Santa Clara are connected with the main line by branch roads? Has it been brought to his attention that the capital embarked in the Cuban railway system is largely English and German? Does he propose to parallel existing lines, or to spend the money giving them the improvements which they need so urgently, or what does he propose? We think it safe to say that Secretary Alger has not given a moment's thought to any of these considerations. He is eminently a "happy-thought" statesman, and his proposal is only a happy thought which will not bear an instant's examination.

It was a curious coincidence that the trial of a United States Senator for complicity in the wrecking of a bank should be set for the same day on which the United States Senate met in regular session. The seat of Mr. Kenney of Delaware at Washington was vacant on Monday, because he must appear in the Federal Court at Dover to let a jury decide whether he ought to go to the penitentiary. Mr. Quay of Pennsylvania was able to appear in the Senate chamber on that day, because it is not until next Monday that his trial on the charge of stealing State money is set. A jury was promptly secured at Dover, and good progress was made in the submission of evidence. The prospect for prompt proceedings at Philadelphia is not so promising. The trial of Quay was originally appointed for this week, but was postponed by the judge until next week, in order to enable one of his counsel to take part in the defence of one Steele. The latter's trial was fixed for Monday, but was then postponed until Wednesday. This promises to continue the trial over the time for which the Quay trial has been set, and make necessary a second postponement of the latter. The great aim of the Senator is to push the thing over until after the close of the year, when a new District Attorney will come in, under whom the boss hopes that he might fare better than at the hands of Mr. Graham.

The official returns of the vote in Pennsylvania last month confirm the first indications that Quay won solely through the division of the forces opposed to him, which the boss had so cleverly managed to secure. Stone, the man whom Quay named to head the Republican State ticket because in case of success he would "have a Governor that I own," received 469,834 votes. This was 117,612 more than were polled for Jenks, the Democratic candidate, whose nomination Quay secured, through his allies in the management of the opposition organization, because he would not attract the support of the Independents whom the boss feared. But the Rev. Dr. Silas C. Swallow also polled 131,537 votes, so that the Quay candidate, despite his large plurality, lacks almost 14,000 votes of a majority. Had there been only one candidate opposed to Quay, and that candidate a man who would have inspired the opposition to vigorous and united efforts, not only would he have been elected, but the enthusiasm and confidence developed in such a canvass must have made his majority overwhelming. Even as it was, the Quay candidate for Governor received only 469,834 votes, while 532,848 were cast for Galusha A. Grow, the veteran who ran for Congressman-at-large and commanded the unanimous support of his party. But Dr. Swallow had 131,537 ballots for Governor, against only 58,423 for the Secretary of Internal

Affairs on the ticket of the Prohibitionists, which bore the name of Swallow at its head. More than 60,000 Republicans who went to the polls and were ready to support a good Republican candidate, refused to accept the choice of the boss for Governor, and gave their votes to the Independent nominee. In all this there is certainly reason enough for the crusader to keep up his fight, on the "Thou shalt not steal" platform, especially with Quay himself awaiting trial on the virtual charge of stealing State funds deposited in a bank which he controlled.

The McKinley Administration has acted with commendable promptitude and efficiency in the matter of the outrages committed upon citizens of the United States on and immediately after election day in the State of South Carolina. The newspapers had no sooner published accounts of these outrages than the President, through the Attorney-General, directed the United States Marshal and the United States District Attorney of South Carolina to proceed at once to Greenwood, and to report forthwith to Washington by wire the conditions prevailing there, with a view to deciding whether the situation required action by the Federal Executive. At the earliest possible day the matter was brought before the United States District Court for South Carolina, and on Wednesday week, upon indictments presented by the District Attorney, true bills were rendered by the grand jury against nine persons, prominent citizens of the section where the outrages were committed, under section 5518 of the Revised Statutes, for having prevented James W. Tolbert, an employee of the post-office at McCormick, from discharging his duties, and under section 5508 for having driven him from the town. The latter section clearly covers Tolbert's banishment.

President McKinley, who was so quick to interfere in behalf of the rights of citizens of the United States in the Democratic State of South Carolina when they suffered from a mob, has refused to discharge his duty when the Executive of Illinois nullified the Federal Constitution in a Republican State of the North; and it had begun to look as though the anarchistic course of this Governor would pass into history as an unquestioned precedent. But the State authorities have been more faithful than those of the United States. The various issues growing out of the riots at Virden were recently submitted to the grand jury of Macoupin County, and that body on Thursday returned a number of indictments, among them one against Gov. Tanner. The charge against him is "wilful neglect of duty as an officer," in not taking action to prevent the rioting; and his own confessions make his guilt clear. The Sheriff repeatedly besought the Governor to assist him, his last appeal before the battle of October 12 stating that "1,000 armed men, mostly from points outside Macoupin, are unlawfully assembled in this city, bloodshed and loss of life of citizens is liable to occur at any hour, and the situation is absolutely beyond my control." To this the Governor replied, "As long as the coal company persists in importing labor, I will not furnish troops unless rioting occurs." All that Tanner has ever had to say in defence of his refusal to enforce existing laws, under which the Virden employers had the right to hire the Alabama negroes and demand the protection of the State in bringing them there, was that he thought a law ought to be passed forbidding such "invasion of the State," as he called it, and that he proposed to enforce this unpassed anti-invasion law before its enactment.

The new tariff for Cuba, which it will be necessary for our military governors of that island to put in force after January 1, is to be based upon the Spanish minimum tariff, with special reductions in the case of food products and other prime necessaries of life. This will doubtless be equivalent to a vast remission of taxation on the industries of Cuba, at the same time that the customs revenue will be ample to warrant large appropriations for public works and for schools. When once the two items of interest on the debt and provision for the Spanish establishment are stricken out of the Cuban budget, there should be left sums to be expended for the benefit of the people greater than they have ever known in all their history. But what, for Americans, is the most striking thing about the new Cuban tariff is that it is to be an "open-door" tariff—that is, it will apply to American goods equally with those coming from any other nation. It will furnish a fair field to all and no favors. The fearful competition of foreigners which American industries cannot endure for one day on their own soil, they are going to meet in its full fury in Cuba. And everybody knows that they will snap their fingers at it. Everybody knows that the Cuban trade will be practically monopolized by Americans without a particle of discrimination in their favor. The open-door policy is the only one we can in decency adopt for Cuba, but it is an awful recantation for a protectionist President to make.

The gratifying success which Gen. Wood has already achieved in his government of the province of Santiago can be paralleled all over the island of Cuba if the work of administration is put into the hands of men like him. In fact, the opportunity in Cuba for an almost magical transformation is obvious from a glance at the situation. Things could not be worse than they are, as the Spanish withdraw. In addition to the desolation wrought by three years of cruel war, the country is prostrated by the accumulated effects of many years of bad government. Taxation has been something frightful, amounting, for the general Government alone, to more than $20 per capita, or about three times what it has been in Spain, or four times what it is in the United States, both so much better able to bear it. One-half at least of this crushing burden can be at once removed, and still leave far more money to spend on public works than the Cubans have ever known. There never was a better chance to achieve a brilliant improvement than is afforded the United States during the military control of Cuba; and if it is thrown away, the disgrace will only be so much the deeper.

Mr. Carl Schurz's challenge to the advocates of imperialism that they refer that question to a popular vote, is well worth attention. It is true that such a vote would not have any binding effect or legal validity either way, but its moral effect would be irresistible. Here, if ever, comes a question which ought not to be decided without popular discussion. It is proposed to reverse our national policy, to change the whole character of our republic, to take a step beyond recall which may send us on the downhill road of proconsular government, at the end of which the Roman republic chose despotism as the lesser of two evils. And this mighty change is to be wrought in a hurry in the name of the people and on the plea that the people want it, yet without referring it to them in any way whatsoever. Perhaps the people are not so much in favor of it. Perhaps those who are in favor of it would not be so after a public discussion. If the friends of imperialism are so sure that the majority of the people are with them, why should they not accept Mr. Schurz's challenge? This would be the very best way to experiment with the referendum, which so many people favor as a governmental policy. Congress could without any infraction of the Constitution fix a day for voting yes or no on the question to be formulated by itself—voting in all the States and Territories. The decision, as we have said, would not be binding in law, but no Congress would be likely to disregard it.

Lou Payn is undoubtedly the most perfect specimen of the "no-cant-or-humbug-about-me" politician that we have. He has always the courage of his convictions, and acts accordingly. It has been more than suspected that he and Aldridge and Gov. Black "put the knife" into Roosevelt as far as they were able to thrust it at the last election. The figures of the returns from Monroe and Rensselaer Counties leave no room for

argument on this point. The Governor and Aldridge are weak enough to deny that they did anything of the sort. Payn makes no such denial, and he goes further: he admits the truth boldly by discharging from the Insurance Department, of which he is the head, four employees who were active in Roosevelt's behalf during the campaign. If anybody doubts where Payn stands, he'll show them. As for the hostility of the new Governor, he probably feels safe against that until the expiration of his term in February, 1900, for there seems to be no power of removal in his case that the Governor can exercise.

Superintendent Aldridge's conduct in resigning "while under fire" is likely to strike the machine politicians as pusillanimous. Why did he not hold on until his term expires on January 1? He says the inquiry which was made into his doings was "purely ex-parte in character," that he is conscious of entire innocence, and that he courts now, as he has from the beginning, the fullest and freest investigation. Yet he resigns. It is said that he makes light of the proposal to have him indicted and prosecuted for criminal negligence of duty, and so does Mr. Adams, the State Engineer. At present there does not seem to be much reason why either of them should feel alarmed at the prospect of prosecution. There is little chance of the present Attorney-General's finding time, during the few remaining weeks of his term, to prepare the case for the grand jury. Whatever is done is not likely to amount to much till Gov. Roosevelt comes into office. He is pledged to punish Republican and all other kinds of political rascals, and he will have a chance to keep his pledge, without doubt.

The Mayor's eagerness to spend large sums of city money in the construction of bridges over the East River is easily comprehensible. He is acting in accordance with Croker's determination to keep us so near to the constitutional debt limit as to make impossible the use of city money for the construction of an underground transit system. Why the boss desires this policy to be pursued is sufficiently obvious. Whether or not he is under obligations to the Elevated Company to defeat the tunnel project, is not essential to a comprehension of his course. The fact that, if city money is spent in constructing an underground road according to the Rapid-Transit Commission's plans, Tammany will have no hand in its distribution, is sufficient reason for Croker's unalterable opposition. Bridge contracts would be certain to fall into the hands of Tammany contractors, and what is the use of possessing the government of a great city if you cannot control all its contracts? This is the sentiment which has converted, in the twinkling of an eye, our Commissioner of Correction, Mr. Lantry, from a mere butcher into an expert on beams and girders. Lantry knows at a glance that a girder which is authorized by an architect who is not a Tammany man, is so weak as to endanger the safety of any city building into which it is put.

The severe storms along the Atlantic Coast during the past fortnight have furnished an object-lesson as to the value of civil-service reform. The bright side of the dreadful story has been the uniformity with which every report from whatever quarter has recorded the remarkable efficiency of the Life-Saving Service. From station after station have come thrilling accounts of the courage, persistence, and success with which the men in this service did all that human force could accomplish to save the lives of those who had been wrecked. There was nothing exceptional in all this. It was simply the maintenance of a standard which was established long ago, and which enabled the superintendent of this service to state, in his recent report, that during the last fiscal year more than 3,000 persons were brought safely to shore from more than 400 vessels which had fallen into peril, while only 12 persons on all these vessels were lost. The Life-Saving Service has been for a great many years under the charge of Mr. Sumner I. Kimball, who enforced the principles of civil-service reform in his department before there was any civil-service law, and who has succeeded, through many struggles and with great difficulty, in keeping his force out of the hands of the spoilsmen, who have over and over again made desperate efforts to capture it. Its high state of efficiency to-day is the best vindication of the merit system in our Government.

The sudden breakdown of the Central American Federation after it had been only a month in existence, is a fresh illustration of the soundness of the position which we took, some months ago, that, if we feel the need of "civilizing" and "building up" for our own development, Central and South America are our proper field. They lie at our own doors; it has been officially announced by our State Department that "our fiat is law" in their whole area, and only three years ago we prepared to go whooping to war with a powerful nation in defence of this position. We are, therefore, in a peculiar degree responsible for the condition of these countries. Moreover, the reason which a convention of the Methodists gave for taking Cuba from Spain last spring, that both Spain and the island professed the abominable Catholic religion, applies equally to the rest of the American continent. The brazen effrontery with which Popery is professed from here to Cape Horn is actually sickening. How is it that the bellicose pastors do not call attention to our duty to South America more frequently? As good fighting for the development of our young men and for the display of valor can be had in Nicaragua or Salvador as in Cuba, if not better. We might to-day employ an army in Central America in which every drunkard and scalawag and ne'er-do-weel in the United States could get commissions, thus relieving a large number of respectable families from much shame and anxiety. At present, Central and South America do us no good except to furnish consulships for a few broken-down fellows.

It was an *annus mirabilis* in which Francis Joseph ascended the Austrian throne, fifty years ago last Friday; and Austria did not escape the upheavals which spread like an earthquake from capital to capital of Europe. The fall of Louis Philippe and the rioting in Paris seemed to be a signal to let loose the forces of discontent and agitation everywhere. Greville has a striking passage describing the consternation in London as the news came from country after country—mobs in Berlin, insurrection in Vienna, rising in Rome against the Pope, who had to flee for his life to Gaeta; revolutions in Sicily and Lombardy; Hungary in arms. In England there was the dreaded Chartist movement, and the Irish rebellion under O'Brien. It was about this time, if we remember, that Matthew Arnold gave the English aristocracy six years more to live. But the season of universal madness was speedily followed by a long period of universal reaction. Though the Emperor Francis Joseph consolidated his power in this reaction, and by force of arms, his long reign has been, after all, that of a kindly and very successful monarch. For years it has been felt that only his personality has held the conglomerate empire together, and predictions of its bursting into fragments on his death have been freely made and credited. If his reign began in troubled times, his jubilee cannot be said to have fallen on tranquil days. In addition to his cruel personal sufferings, he has had to see the empire torn in the last few years by the fiercest race struggles. Such passions have been aroused that it is certain that the political constitution of the country will be profoundly modified when Francis Joseph's moderating influence disappears, even if outright disruption does not occur. The threatened quarrel with Germany just now hints at a line of cleavage which seems one day sure to open. With Germany preparing to welcome the Austrian Germans, and the Hungarians and Bohemians bidding them go, no wonder the Pan-Germans, with William at their head, are pricking up their ears.

THE PROSPECT FOR MONETARY LEGISLATION.

The greeting extended by the Chamber of Commerce to Mr. H. H. Hanna on Thursday was worthy of the cause which this gentleman represents. It was also a spontaneous public testimonial to the citizen-leadership which Mr. Hanna has so long and so admirably borne in the movement for currency reform. It is a new encouragement to find that the Chamber is not disposed to cry peace when there is no peace, or to rest satisfied with one election, but is determined to carry on the war until there is no longer an enemy in sight. It was very gratifying also to learn from Mr. Hanna that President McKinley "stands thoroughly for monetary legislation, and is determined that every pledge the Republican party ever made along this line shall be kept."

These are weighty words which Mr. Hanna pronounced as coming from the President's mouth on Tuesday week. Mr. McKinley may not be able to control Congress, but he can call an extra session of that body next spring to consider currency legislation, and that will be more than half the battle, because it will force a discussion both in Congress and in the country. Some legislation we shall undoubtedly get by that means. It will be a step forward, and will make the next one easier. What is it that the Republican party is pledged to, "along this line"? It is pledged by the St. Louis platform to maintain the gold standard. Any monetary legislation which it adopts must be in that line and in furtherance of that end. It is not enough to say that the gold standard is maintained by doing nothing; that, the balance of trade being in our favor, gold flows this way and keeps the Treasury plentifully supplied with the yellow metal, and that the surplus revenue which the Government is now receiving is a guarantee of its ability to redeem its legal-tender notes at all times. All those conditions may be reversed at any time. We had the balance of trade in our favor before 1890, and we had a larger surplus revenue then than we have now. We have had good crops in the last two years, but we may have bad ones in the next two. We may have an era of wild speculation to be followed by a crash and hard times. Nobody can either foresee or prevent such hallucinations, still less avert their consequences. What has happened in this sort before is quite certain to happen again. The question of the present hour is whether, when it does happen, it will find our currency and standard of value in the same unguarded condition that they were in when the panic of 1893 came. It is of prime importance that the present interval of financial strength and peace shall be wisely used to put our monetary system in an unassailable position. This is the cause and the contention that Mr. Hanna represents, and it is most gratifying to know that he has the concurrence of the President of the United States and support of the New York Chamber of Commerce.

Some discussion has arisen in the newspapers lately over a premature publication of the report of the Comptroller of the Currency, which seems to be at variance with the views heretofore expressed by the Secretary of the Treasury on the subject of monetary legislation, and still more at variance with the bill favored by the banking and currency committee of the House. For one thing, the Comptroller was reported as saying that it would be an injustice to give noteholders a preference over depositors in the distribution of the assets of failed banks. This is a very queer position to be taken by an official who is appointed to execute the national banking law, which is actually based upon the principle of giving the first lien to noteholders. It does this in two ways. The bonds deposited with the Treasury as security for the notes are a part of the bank's assets. Upon these the noteholders have the first lien, only the residue after paying the notes being turned over to other creditors. But the law provides further that if the proceeds of the bonds should for any reason be insufficient for redeeming the notes, the Government shall redeem them and shall have the first lien on the remaining assets to reimburse itself for redeeming them. The rule or principle which Comptroller Dawes combats was in force in the banking laws of the States before the national banking system was devised, and the latter adopted it as one of the undisputed axioms of banking science. If Mr. Dawes has put any such nonsense as this in his report, it is fortunate for him that there is still time to take it out.

His contention that the issuing of banknotes against general assets ought not to be allowed is open to fair argument. Some of the best authorities on banking science are of that opinion. Others hold that what Canada does successfully and acceptably we might do with equal safety and satisfaction. What is wanted at the earliest possible time is a fair and free discussion of this and kindred questions. To this end Mr. H. H. Hanna is nobly devoting his time and energies, and we rejoice to see that he has the coöperation and sympathy of the Chamber of Commerce.

THE ARMY AND NAVY AT SANTIAGO.

Admiral Sampson's supplementary report on the operations of the navy at Santiago, published last Thursday by the Secretary of the Navy, completes the official story. We are not likely to get further light on the conduct of that remarkable campaign until a congressional committee extracts more information from the participants. Such a committee of inquiry is imperative, for purely military reasons if no other, because there are many mysteries in the account as it stands. These can never be cleared up by long-range correspondence or newspaper discussion. The only way is to get the responsible commanders of the troops and ships before a committee with power, ask them why they did this and why they did not do that, and so discover reasons and motives as well as acts.

The great mystery of the campaign, as we have before remarked, was the failure of army and navy to coöperate actively and heartily. Admiral Sampson goes far towards establishing the truth that the failure was not due to the navy. He stood ready at any and all times to use his ships to their full power in joint action towards a common objective. But an admiral cannot coöperate with a general if the latter violates his agreements and goes off on a line of his own wholly out of touch with the navy. Now this, so far as appears, is exactly what Gen. Shafter did. Admiral Sampson renews his assertion that a joint plan of attack had been agreed upon in advance. It was what any man would call the natural plan, under the circumstances. Army and navy were to keep closely in touch; were to move steadily along the shore up to the mouth of the harbor, the forts and outworks of which were to be carried, the navy doing the shelling and the troops and marines the storming. This would have admitted of a resolute grip on the Spanish fleet and the town alike; the army would have kept nearer its supplies on the transports and would have had the best artillery in the world, in the shape of the guns on the ships, to prepare and protect its advance. It seems only reasonable to affirm, as Sampson now does, that an adherence to this plan would have led to a quicker surrender of the Spanish, at the cost of a smaller loss of life to the Americans, though, of course, the navy would have suffered more than it did.

This was the plan of campaign which was laid before Shafter on his arrival. It had been worked out by the naval officers who had been on the spot for more than a month. Admiral Sampson declares that Gen. Shafter "cordially consented" to this plan, and to this day he does not know why Shafter abandoned it. The navy was left very much in the dark as to what the army was doing. It was requested to shell the fort and rifle pits at Aguadores, and did so till not a man was left in either; but the Michigan volunteers, under Gen. Duffield, found it inconvenient to occupy the deserted works. The next communications Sampson had from Shafter were messages telling of the great losses of the army and asking Sampson why on

earth he, too, couldn't go ahead and lose a lot of men.

The only explanation, so far as we know, which Gen. Shafter has ever given of his reasons for abandoning the original plan of attack, was made in a speech out West. In it he declared that he did not push the troops in along the shore and assault Aguadores and the other harbor forts for two reasons. One was that he could not have found a good water supply by that route; the other that the woods in that direction were filled with a terrible and poisonous undergrowth through which the men could not have made their way. As to the water supply, what he did find by the Siboney route was allowed to become foul and poison the men, and could not have been much better than what he could have got from the transports and the San Juan River, which comes in at Aguadores. However that may be, Gen. Shafter's other reason is no reason at all in his mouth, for it is in evidence that he afterwards proposed to send troops over the very ground and against the very forts which, he said in the West, he should have deserved to be court-martialled and shot if he had attempted to carry.

A significant bit of evidence is that given by Gen. Wheeler in his book on the Santiago campaign. He prints the dispatches which passed between him, as General in command of the left wing, and Gen. Shafter at headquarters. Among these was the following:

"Headquarters Fifth Army Corps.
"July 2, 1898.
"My dear Gen. Wheeler: What do you think of the idea of sending a division in rear of the left division to clear out the forts along the entrance to the bay, so as to let the navy in and have the business over? Can it be done?—Very respectfully,
"WM. R. SHAFTER."

Gen. Wheeler instantly replied that he regretted to say he did not think infantry could "take the forts along the entrance of the bay. I would like to do it, but the effort would be attended with terrible loss." This dispatch of Shafter's is "significant of much" as regards his state of mind at the time; but its main bearing on the controversy between the army and navy is evident. Gen. Shafter thereby practically confessed that his arbitrary departure from the first plan of campaign, agreed upon between the army and the navy, had been an entire mistake, and that, when it was too late, he wished to retrace his steps.

Into the other matters in controversy between Sampson and Shafter we do not enter. Nothing that has come to light diminishes in the least the good opinion of the navy in general, and of Admiral Sampson in particular, which the public has formed. As for Gen. Shafter, the more his campaign is studied, the more just seems the general disposition, even in the face of his having apparently won an almost unexampled victory, to regard him as a man for whom nature had done little, but fortune everything.

AN INEVITABLE RESULT.

The opinion which ex-Judge Countryman, as special counsel, has rendered to the Governor on the report of the Canal Investigating Commission, may be said to remove the "if" which played so prominent a part in the late Republican campaign in this State. This was the function which the special counsel was brought into the case to perform. No intelligent person had a particle of doubt, after reading the Commission's report, that Aldridge and Adams were guilty of criminal neglect of duty. The report made that as plain as Mr. Countryman's opinion makes it now. In fact, there is very little in the opinion that is not in the report. There is not a lawyer in the State who could not, within a week at most, have given the Governor as comprehensive and as sound an opinion upon the matter as the ex-Judge has been nearly four months in preparing. If the Governor had been as desirous of punishing Aldridge as he was of protecting him, he would not have needed twenty-four hours to become convinced of his guilt.

The sum and substance of the ex-Judge's opinion is that Aldridge and Adams are shown by the report to have been so neglectful of their sworn duties as to be proper subjects for criminal indictment and prosecution by the State. He cites in support of this opinion evidence which was set forth with perfect clearness in the Commission's report, made public on August 3, and upon which the Commission based this conclusion:

"The greater part of the abuses which we shall point out were effected through the agency of the engineers, but most of these would have been nullified in their effect under proper and corrective inspection and administration. The certificates made from month to month by the Engineering Department, supplemented by proper reports from the inspectors, would have furnished the information necessary, in many instances, to remedy or nullify such abuses. *The failure to so act unites the Superintendent of Public Works with the State Engineer in a common responsibility.*"

Why did not the Governor suspend Aldridge and Adams at once when he received this report? Why did he feel obliged to refer it to a special counsel for an opinion which it would require four months to prepare? Simply that the whole scandal might be side-tracked till after election, and that Republican candidates and stump-speakers might have something upon which to base their "if"—their assumption that there was still doubt as to whether or not there was any scandal after all. Not only had the Commission placed the responsibility for the misuse of the public money squarely upon Aldridge and Adams, but they had declared plainly that the amount of money "improperly expended" reached at least one million dollars. They also declared that Aldridge had used improperly a million and a half more in extra repairs, that he had "improperly expended" $80,000 in advertising, and that the entire $9,000,000 which the people had been led to believe would be sufficient to defray the cost of the improvement, "has been expended, and the improvement has not been half done." All that the opinion of the special counsel amounts to is a confirmation of these findings and a recommendation of criminal indictment and prosecution of Aldridge and Adams.

In accepting the opinion as conclusive and in acting upon it, Gov. Black makes public confession of Aldridge's guilt, and of Aldridge's complete failure as a public official. The Governor might well accompany this confession with another embracing the breakdown of his own system of politics and official conduct. Less than two years ago he entered upon what might have been a great career with the public announcement that he would not recognize character as an element in his conduct of public affairs. He will go out of office and out of political life with one of his own appointees who, with the single exception of Lou Payn, most completely personifies his political theories. Aldridge was a perfect specimen of the boss type of public official when Gov. Morton, at Platt's request, put him in his present position. He had been, as the *Tribune* said of him at the time, "the local boss of Rochester, and had built up his power with the local aid of mercenary Democrats." That is the true Platt type—the leader who makes "deals" with the rascals of the opposite party, as Platt made his "deal" with Croker last year in this city, whenever he finds it necessary to do so for the furtherance of his plans. No sooner had Aldridge got into office than he defied the civil-service laws and made his appointments of subordinates without regard to their requirements. Nothing except the decision of the Court of Appeals convinced him of his error in this direction. He was endeavoring, all by himself, to "take the starch out of the civil service," as Gov. Black subsequently took it out by the aid of the Legislature. It was after he had been baffled in this effort that Gov. Black reappointed him. He saw in him a public official after his own heart.

Some stress is laid in the special counsel's opinion upon the fact that the people of the State were deceived into thinking that $9,000,000 would be sufficient for the proposed canal improvement. This is not new. In January last, Mr. Adams, the State Engineer, who is now said to be criminally liable for the improper use of the money, declared:

"During the canvass of 1895 I was asked to write a letter saying that $9,000,000 would do the work, but I declined to do so. I did write a letter stating my belief as to what it would cost, but that letter was returned to me unpublished, and I tore it up. I said

in that letter that the work would cost more than $9,000,000. The letter was not printed, because it was believed by the supporters of the canal-enlargement scheme that its publication might cause the defeat of the proposition."

Who were these "supporters of the canal-enlargement scheme" who, when the amendment to the Constitution was pending authorizing the expenditure of $9,000,000, did not wish to have the people know that that sum would be insufficient? Whose "word" was it that caused Mr. Adams to tear up his letter? Was it not that of the same boss who induced Gov. Morton to put Aldridge at the head of the department which was to spend the money? Aldridge and Adams are the victims of Tom Platt and his system of government. They have made themselves criminally liable by doing what he put Aldridge in office to do, and what Aldridge beguiled Adams into acquiescing in, or at least into keeping still about. We hope that both men will be prosecuted, and that when they get into court they will "squeal" on the Old Man so loudly that he will be driven out of politics, and will be made so odious that all our "harmonizers" will say of him, as Cornelius N. Bliss said of him in 1896, that "he deliberately acts so as to make it impossible for self-respecting men to be allied with him even for a good purpose."

VOLTAIRE AND DREYFUS.

What has surprised foreigners most during the Dreyfus affair is not so much that the army should have been unfair and summary in its processes, as that such a very large proportion of the French public should see nothing to condemn in them—nay, more, should have defended them with a fervor approaching fanaticism; that so many of them should have been preaching respect for the *chose jugée*, without appearing to care in the least whether the judgment had been properly obtained. But the thing which excited most surprise and horror, at least in Anglo-Saxon communities, was the general readiness to sacrifice an individual to any popular cause or even prejudice, without regard to facts as long as the end obtained seemed a desirable one. There have been times during the Dreyfus case when it seemed as if what we call "the sense of justice" had never secured any lodgment in the French composition.

A good deal of light is thrown on this subject by the life and writings of Voltaire. He is mainly known to the general public as the fierce antagonist of the Catholic Church and the merciless critic of the Christian religion. But the fact is that he was a many-sided man who played many rôles with success, and it is not generally known that the most successful of them all was that of a law-reformer. We do not mean that this was the rôle in which he did most for the reform of French jurisprudence, but that in which his great qualities of head and heart were best brought out, and in which he most contributed to diffuse grace, wisdom, and understanding among the French people. It is not his diatribes against the Roman Church, "l'infâme," which most excite our admiration for his genius; it is the ardor with which he struggles to pierce the thick hide of French feudalism and bigotry with ideas of common sense and toleration, and to introduce modern science into the making and giving and execution of the law. In fact, his chief work during the latter part of his life was the observation of the criminal proceedings in the various courts, and the merciless exposure of their ignorance and barbarism and superstition. The Calas case was by no means the only one which brought his scathing sarcasm and furious passion of humanity into the field for the righting of wrong and the blasting of cruelty and oppression. There was hardly a week from 1765 until his death when he was not engaged in gibbeting unjust judges or in saving innocence from robbery or torture. He raged against parliaments and priests and kings with an enthusiasm that reminds one, by its fierceness, of Tertullian, but with a scorching contempt to which none of the "fathers" could lay claim. His reply to an advocate who asked him by what right he interfered in a certain criminal proceeding might have been written by Zola: "The right of every citizen to defend another citizen; the right I get from the study of the ordinances of our kings and the laws of my country; the right given me by prayers to which I have yielded; the deep conviction which I hold of M. de Morangie's innocence; my indignation against the tricks of chicane by which innocence is so often overwhelmed."

Among the cases which he took up besides the Calas case was the one known as the "Méprise d'Arras," in which a respectable father of a family was accused of a murder near his house without a particle of probability. There was one witness to identify him, but he failed to do so. The poor man exclaimed thereupon, "Thank God, the witness has not recognized me." There was no other evidence, but on this exclamation the judge sentenced him to be tortured first and then broken on the wheel. Another case in which Voltaire had to fight what he calls "la démence de la canaille" was the Montbailli case. Here a young married couple lived with the husband's mother, peaceably and affectionately, although the mother was a hard drinker. One morning she, when getting out of bed after a drinking bout, falls in a fit of apoplexy, cuts her head in doing so, and dies. Her son and his wife find her dead on entering her room. The doctors when called in have no doubt about the cause; nobody speaks of any other. She is duly buried. Some days later, gossiping women spread the report that the woman and her daughter-in-law were on bad terms, and that she and her husband probably killed his mother. There is no evidence of anything of the kind, but the popular clamor grows. The judges feel they must do something to satisfy it. They accordingly seize the young couple, examine them separately and in secret, without discovering any proof. But they are still afraid of the "canaille." So they order them to be kept in prison for one year so that further inquiries may be made. All this was at St. Omer. A higher court at Arras thought it could make more out of the case; so the procureur made what was called an appeal *à minima*, a device of the devil by which the prosecuting officer could appeal against a sentence because it was too light, and thus put the unhappy prisoner twice in peril for the same offence. The Montbailli case was heard over again. There was no more evidence than ever, but the higher court, to gratify the "démence," sentenced Montbailli to be broken on the wheel and then burnt, and his wife to be burnt alive. The sentence on him was executed, two monks tormenting him to confess while he was being broken. His unhappy wife had her execution postponed until her delivery, she being at the time *enceinte*. This gave a delay of five months, during which Voltaire got hold of the case, and, with his usual ardor, brought it before the King and raged over it with such zeal that he got a free pardon for the woman and had the judges of Arras dismissed from their office.

In other cases, such as that of the Chevalier de la Barre, he was not in time to prevent the tragedy, but it became, in his hands, a weapon before which bigoted priests and rascally judges trembled and slunk into obscurity. In the Barre case a young man of nineteen, going home at night from a party, made use of some irreverent expression in passing a wooden cross the priests had set up on one of the bridges in Abbeville. For this the courts, to oblige the local bishop, condemned him to have his tongue cut out, then to be broken on the wheel, and then burnt; all this was done. Voltaire was engaged in several other cases of the same kind. When one reads of them and finds that they occurred so late as 1770, one almost loses one's horror of the Revolution, and feels that both priest and king met their deserts.

He did not, however, by any means confine himself to attacks on the *chose jugée*. He went behind the concrete horrors of the courts, and labored incessantly to show the French lawyers that the root of all their iniquities was their want of legal rules of evidence.

This was the most curious feature of French jurisprudence, and the one which has done most damage to the character of the people. In the absence of such rules, questions of guilt or innocence were settled by the impressions or prejudices of the judges, and, of course, there was no mode of calling a judge to account for the way in which he formed his impressions, or of compelling him to justify them. The practice of having judges decide under influences which they were not obliged to reveal, having prevailed through long ages, the people became accustomed to it, and remain so to this day. It is this which made the French public see no absurdity in having officers come into court and give their word of honor that Dreyfus was guilty, and expect to have it accepted as proof. Even such men as Brunetière, the editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, thought it presumptuous for a few "intellectuals" to object to this. It is this, too, which makes them see nothing wrong in having an accused person sacrificed for some good cause—religion, or the army, or to justify popular prejudices or beliefs. Voltaire cites many cases of this, the most flagrant being the dragooning of the Huguenots by Louis XIV. in return for votes of money from the clergy. The result is, that if to-day you show the average Frenchman that good will come to some important cause or interest, as in the Dreyfus case, by condemning some one on suspicion, he will think your scruples trivial.

This concern of Voltaire's about proof was not confined to adjudged cases. He wrote many papers on the administration of justice—in which he treated the question of proof and probability most exhaustively—on proof, on crime and punishment, on toleration, on justice. Considering that he wrote in the middle of the last century, and was surrounded by persons who were crazy and prejudiced about judicial and religious questions, they are really wonderful productions. In his day, persecution was the favorite method of showing piety. At Toulouse, in the Calas day, there was a municipal festival every year to celebrate the massacre of some thousands of heretics two centuries previously. To have one's head free of cant, to "think clear and see straight," in the midst of such crowds of bigots and lunatics, indicated more greatness than Voltaire has ever received credit for. He undoubtedly supplied the Revolution with most of its rationality. The Dreyfus case is a great tribute to him. Without him we should probably not have had even the "intellectuals."

THE ROMAN FORUM.

ROME, November 1, 1898.

There are good tidings for those who care for the Eternal City and desire the proper preservation of the scanty relics of her past. If work now in progress goes on well, it seems probable that in a few months we shall be much less justified than we are at present in saying of Rome, as Clough did, almost fifty years ago, in his 'Amours de Voyage':

"Rubbishy seems the word that most exactly would suit it."

For a long time the condition of the Forum has been a disgrace to a government that pretended to have a care for its archæological history. Such excavations as have been made within its limits have been casual and unsystematic, and those who have been charged with the conduct of them have, in general, either slighted their work or carried it out with a distinct *parti pris*. This was bad enough, but still worse was the treatment of what was found. Fragments were massed together without regard to their character, utterly insufficient records were kept of the places where objects first came to light, and no attention was paid to the reërecting of stones whose original position was known with absolute certainty, or even to the placing of them in comparative safety from relic-hunters or from accidental damage. But this is now changed. The present Minister of Instruction, Signor Baccelli, is much interested in all that pertains to the ancient city. He it was who, during a previous occupancy of his present position, directed the excavations of the Atrium Vestæ, and those around the Pantheon. The work that is being carried on to-day under his direction is in charge of Signor Boni, a Venetian, who "from that pleasant country's earth" has drawn so sympathetic a love for the beauties of the past that it would be difficult to find a hand more careful than his in the regard for and replacement of the scattered fragments that, heretofore, have littered the heart of the ancient city.

The first bit of work that was undertaken, and which was completed only a few days ago, was the setting up of the base, columns, and entablature of the *ædicula* which stands at the northwestern entrance of the Atrium Vestæ. Those who hold to the correctness of Ruskin's views concerning the restoration of works of art must not suppose that the work now going on in the Forum is restoration of the nature of that to which he objects; it is merely legitimate reconstruction. In the case of the *ædicula*, the base, one of the two columns with its capital, the entablature with its inscribed frieze, and one of the two pilasters at the back, lay where they had first fallen. There could be no possible question as to their true position; they were liable to many kinds of damage as they lay on the ground, but as they now stand they give to the intelligent observer a very complete impression of their original appearance. The missing column and other lost portions have been replaced by brick, used with such frank simplicity that it is in no degree offensive.

The next undertaking, one that is not yet complete, is the resetting of some of the columns and part of the entablature of the Temple of Vesta. This necessitated the exploration of the mound of dirt left long since by previous workers on the site of this temple. Why such a mound had been left has never been explained. Certain authorities have stated that it was of two periods, the lower part resulting from the construction of the Republican period, and the upper from the reconstruction carried out by Septimius Severus. It was, however, evident on careful inspection that the so-called remains of the time of Septimius Severus were in truth nothing but the accumulated rubbish of later ages. This has been finally proved by the finding, day before yesterday, of several potsherds of mediæval make in this "Septimian" mound. The work is by no means finished, but interesting results have been already obtained—in the discovery of the steps of the temple, of one complete column, of fragments of the coffered ceiling, and of numerous pieces of the entablature.

One minor point of some interest has been settled by this investigation of the Temple of Vesta. It concerns the Puteal Libonis. Recent writers mention a circular curb, between the Temple of Castor and Pollux and the Temple of Vesta, as being remains of the famous Puteal, and on common maps of the locality one may see a neat circle drawn in this spot. That so many students should have been misled in regard to these stones shows the confusing tendency of tradition, for the theory respecting them was (the word is not too strong) absurd. The blocks were absolutely plainly cut into their present form and placed in their present position by some mediæval workman. What his purpose was in making this curved *but not circular* enclosure, it is not easy to say. These stones being now turned up on edge to examine their bottoms, it has become evident that they were taken from some ancient monument to be put to their present use. Until some new discovery is made, archæologists can theorize at will regarding the Puteal Libonis. The ground lies cleared before them.

Another bit of work that is on the road to completion is the reërecting of the colossal marble and granite columns which originally stood opposite the Basilica Julia, on brick substructions similar to that of the Column of Phocas. Two of the seven substructions are nearly perfect, lacking only the original marble veneer. The work to be done to render the others safe supports for the columns is of the simplest description. The construction of these substructions is as follows: On a floor of large square bricks, the stamps on which date from Diocletian's reign, were piled large blocks of tufa taken from earlier structures. Around these, and joined to them by concrete, were four simple brick walls, and on top were laid marble slabs upon which rested the base of the honorary column. Those of the substructions which have been broken down need only to have more tufa blocks, of which there are quantities about Rome, inserted in place of those that are gone, and the brick walls rebuilt. Then the columns can be reërected, and the interest and picturesqueness of the Forum will be greatly increased. It might be suggested that unless we know on which base each column stood, the work should not be done. Fortunately this is just what we do know, for photographs taken at the time of the excavation show the columns lying as they were found, and their positions make it evident upon which bases they originally stood.

After these undertakings have been accomplished, the attempt will be made to find the foundations belonging to a mass of exceptionally well-preserved and delicately carved remains that lie between the Temple of Castor and the Atrium Vestæ. Most writers have maintained silence as regards these stones. Middleton, however, in the revised edition of his work on Rome, speaks of them, and says that Ligorio published designs of them and told where they were

found. In this Middleton was mistaken. The designs in Ligorio do not answer to these blocks. What he drew had been found on the northern side of the Forum, near St. Adriano. What the true explanation of the stones is cannot as yet be told, but there is an excellent working hypothesis. On the ancient stone plan of the city one can observe a *sacellum*-like building in exactly the spot where the stones lie. Furthermore, the 'Curiosum' and the 'Mirabilia' mention a Temple of Pallas as being near this spot. May not these remains be of this temple? The near future will show.

It is not only by such replacements of ancient monuments that Minister Bacelli is earning the gratitude of all students who take more than a mere archæological interest in the work of past generations. He is also undertaking to cancel certain mistakes made, with good intention but unfortunate result, by eager but thoughtless workers of earlier days. The first of these to disappear will be the pier of the Basilica Julia, built by Comm. Rosa out of entirely new material. Rosa desired to hint by this work of his at the ancient grandeur of the basilica, but he failed to notice either the form or proportion of the members of the building. Although several bases of piers were lying about him, he paid them no heed, and built a pier with no base. This will be done away with, and, so far as may be, the existing fragments will be put in their true positions.

One of the most interesting discoveries made during this recent work in the Forum is that of a large metope block, decorated with a *bucranion* carved in the best style of the Roman Republic. It was found built into the wall sustaining the road that bounds the north side of the Forum. The special interest of the block comes from the fact that, in all probability, it belonged to the Basilica Aemilia, a building that is still buried below modern houses. It is greatly to be hoped that this discovery will convince the Minister of the wisdom of buying up the few houses (they are little better than hovels) between the Temple of Faustina and the Church of St. Adriano, and then of excavating this extremely important part of the Forum.

We must all most sincerely hope that nothing will occur to interfere with Minister Bacelli's intelligent work, and that he will soon turn his attention to the Palatine, where the condition of the most interesting part, that around the "House of Romulus," would be a disgrace to any government that had assumed the charge of the national antiquities. The sympathy and support of every lover of ancient Rome are due to the Minister, and are required to enable him to secure the means for the carrying out of his projects. The work is of special interest to the members of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, and to all its friends in America.

R. N.

Correspondence.

REVOLUTION AND APATHY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: According to Bagehot, prolongation of national life and liberty is largely dependent upon a healthful amount of national stupidity. What, therefore, the *Evening Post* calls "apathy" may really be deserving of a gentler term. But even Bagehot would probably agree that there may be too much stupidity to be healthful. In the crisis now upon us the people at large do not realize the situation nor its gravity. And for this the press of the country is mainly responsible. From the beginning, for some unaccountable reason, Mr. McKinley, by both his own and the opposing party, has been strangely flattered, until he and his followers think they may do as they please. Even the anti-imperialist press seems afraid to speak out frankly and plainly, for if right words are forcible, how ineffectual are wrong ones. Are "expansionist" and "imperialist" right words? No; *revolutionist* and traitor to country and Constitution are the true ones. These revolutionists, if they know anything, know that they are deliberately violating the Constitution, and are imperilling the lives and liberties of their fellow-countrymen. These revolutionists and their successors can no more maintain a double standard of government—one for the Northern and Middle States, say, and another for the Philippines—than they can maintain a double standard in the currency, or a double standard of morals. Whatever the revolutionists may say, in order to hold the Philippines and all else we shall have to hold them by armed force. The plea is, and will be, *political expediency*. Political expediency is usually a convenient general term for inconvenient particular ambitions. The doctrine of political expediency once admitted, what is to prevent this or any other Administration from applying that doctrine as freely to any set of men in Massachusetts, New York, or Virginia as to the Cubans and Filipinos?

The political boomerang we send out is bound to come back. In stretching out force to Hawaii, Cuba, and Porto Rico, and the Philippines, that force will surely come home, like a curse, to roost. We are but teaching bloody instructions which, being taught, will return to plague us. If the press— in brief, plain ways—will put this vital matter before the people, such a storm of popular indignation will arise as may well cause these revolutionists to pause. Vanity, vainglory, and hypocrisy may now be running riot, but they cannot always prevail. The "sovereign people" often needs an object-lesson and a severe one. When the country groans under insupportable military taxation, and the people see their young men being drafted or conscripted in order to swell the "armies of occupation" to a size requisite for holding eight million of savages and semi-savages in check, then the eyes of the people will be opened; and for the revolutionists who have so deceived and betrayed their countrymen there will be worse than execration and contempt. But that day may be prevented by plain speaking, by mass-meetings, and by a forcible, timely, easily understood treatment of the question.

D.

Baltimore, December 3, 1898.

ANNEXATION OF THE PHILIPPINES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am an Englishman, but am strongly opposed to the annexation of the Philippines by the United States, although such an annexation would, apparently, be to the advantage of my own country. I say apparently, because I believe that good cannot come out of evil: an alliance won by a machiavellian diplomacy, by urging a kindred nation on to an immoral and ruinous course of action, cannot, surely, ultimately benefit England. I also believe that right, justice, and the interests of the whole human race should take the precedence even of patriotism. The United States has hitherto been, at least theoretically, a kind of haven of refuge, in which the oppressed might be safe. It has been a free nation, and, above all things, a nation which seemed secure from oppressive militarism. Here no man was forced into the army like a slave, drilled into a machine, and then taken out to be shot in a quarrel with a neighboring nation as to which should rob the other of some portion of its territory. The United States was understood to be opposed to all such wars of aggression; her army was so small as almost to be non-existent; she was to be the nation by whose example all disputes were some day to be submitted to arbitration, and the centre from which the blessings of universal peace were to spread. For such a nation to be suddenly changed into a common, aggressive, throat-cutting, land-grabbing empire would be a disaster to herself, and a calamity to the whole world.

Yours faithfully,

Bertrand Shadwell.

Chicago, December 3, 1898.

WHAT THE PHILIPPINES MAY DO FOR US.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If we *must* take on the Philippines, with their Negritos, Malays, and degenerate Spaniards, and if we refuse them the ballot, what then is going to become of the good old doctrines of liberty, fraternity, and equality, of universal suffrage, and of the brotherhood of man, etc.? Who knows but that a new party may arise in the United States and say that what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander, and that there are within our present boundaries also political Malays and Negritos who ought not to be allowed to vote? Expansion of territory and contraction of suffrage, set forth in proper flamboyant style in a political platform, would catch some votes undoubtedly. After turning our backs on Washington, the saner man, surely we should not mind ignoring Jefferson!

E. L. C. Morse.

Chicago, December 3, 1898

"THE LATIN PLIGHT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Especially to a Protestant living in a Catholic country does the article under the above title in a lately received number of your paper suggest interesting considerations. The truth or the contrary of Catholicism need have no part in the discussion. If our state through eternity depends upon the acceptance of a particular belief, the influence of that belief upon the material life of men or nations is of the smallest consequence. Many of the arguments by which the superiority of Protestantism for this life was maintained were unsound. Thousands, resting their objections to Catholicism mainly on such grounds, have, upon recognizing their flimsiness, thrown themselves into the arms of the Church. Catholics are as conscientious, as kind, as accomplished, as well-mannered as other people. Their clergy are well educated and thoroughly sincere—here at least, in Ireland, there is not a fleck upon

their morals. Conventual establishments are not the constrained abodes of sloth and ennui, but in the main of cheerful, well-ordered endeavor. The order and completeness and arrangement of Catholic philanthropic institutions surpass those of most Protestant ones. There is a beauty in the lives of many Catholics that I cannot perceive in Protestants of the same class and opportunities. Statistics show that the Catholic portions of Ireland are more moral than the Protestant portions.

Clear as these facts appear, the longer I live, the more intimately I become acquainted with different phases of life and of politics, the more clearly do I recognize the weakening influence of Catholicism upon character. Catholics make first-rate scholars and civil-servants. But wherever independence of thought and action is demanded, they, upon the average, fail. It is deplorable, the small degree to which our people strive to live among their fellows above their class. Over and over again I have heard Nationalist Protestant employers exclaim at having to bring foremen and managers over from England or from the north of Ireland, instead of being able to rear them from their own hands. Lately I knew a case where a man was offered a foremanship at increased wages; but he preferred to remain one of his old set, not to be placed above them. There is a disinclination to the exercise of individual opinion. Within the leading-strings of the Catholic environment and system, all may go well. But out of it, in new circumstances, in new countries, my experience has been that Catholics are at a looser end morally and otherwise than Protestants. So far as I can learn, there is among the Catholic students who come up to Dublin to live and study away from their families, more wastage than among Protestant students.

The pursuit of political and national aims by Catholic communities is much hampered by the requirements of the Church. As to whether a district is earnestly for Home Rule or not, as to whether a particular diocese is for Mr. Healy, or Mr. Redmond, or Mr. Dillon, very much depends upon the opinions of the clergy or the bishops there ruling. Were Ireland Protestant and for Home Rule in the like degree she professes to be now, she would long ago have achieved Home Rule. Irish Protestantism is in the main as a forged bolt against the change; Catholicism, an amorphous mass in its favor. The wonderful success of England has largely been due to her holding the general interests and independence of the country before every other consideration, ecclesiastical, dynastical, or sentimental. Three hundred years ago many Catholic nations appeared to take the lead—it was then but a competition between Catholic nations or nations lately Catholic. Now that Protestantism has had time to work, the difference becomes apparent. Ireland has made wonderful strides in prosperity within the last thirty years, but her people at large have not derived the benefits that would have been reaped by a Protestant people under like circumstances. Immense sums are drawn into the coffers of the Church. There is scarcely a town or parish in which evidences of the lavish expenditure of money for religious purposes are not evident. The houses of the people remain much the same. One has only to turn to the law reports and contests about wills to realize how much capital goes even to masses for the dead—a purpose that cannot add to the comfort of the living, except those who say them. Those among the brightest and the best in every Catholic circle, instead of handing on the virtues and capacities of their ancestors, and helping to influence society generally for good, and to continue and widen mercantile and manufacturing traditions, are condemned to a life of celibacy. This reversal of the "survival of the fittest" cannot but affect the fortunes of Catholic communities. Catholic ecclesiastics, holding fast to the spiritual truth and necessity of their religion, have to me admitted the different influences of the systems. "Yes, you are for this world; we are for the next," said one. "I can go into any school in Ireland and pick out the Protestant boys by their fearless look," said to me a Catholic clergyman whom I met by chance on a country road, and with whom I talked over Irish affairs.

But, upon the whole, the outcome of affairs should make us Protestants humble and watchful of our goings. Protestantism is certainly showing an ability to lay the foundations of great states, to render the earth capable of supporting the largest populations in the highest and most advancing civilization. But it is ruthless in the means by which it accomplishes its purposes. It so worships civilization as an end that it is drawing lines against the admixture of what it believes inferior blood, such as were little considered in past ages, and which cannot but continue in the United States, in Africa, and in India to confront the world with problems of appalling gravity. We may feel confident as to which system is the best, and which is likely to prevail; but we cannot hold our heads high when we think of the hundreds of wounded Spaniards writhing upon the heated decks of their wrecked vessels on the coast of Cuba, and of the all but safe slaughter by machine-guns of ten thousand Sudanese on the Nile.

Truly yours, AN IRISH PROTESTANT.

DUBLIN, November 23, 1898.

PROVERBS IN THE SUDAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am an inveterate newspaper reader, and when fresh news fails I return to graze upon the old. Turning over some out-of-date sheets lately, I came across a "Central News Special Service" account of the Khalifa's effort to plant explosives in the path of the British gunboats. Of course he failed, and his infernal machine (home-made) blew up in his own face. But the cream of the story lay in the concluding paragraph: "Much elation," the correspondent writes, "is felt in camp at the failure of this *dastardly plan*."

Next to hand came a *Standard* of later date, wherein a certain "painful feature" of the fight of Omdurman is thus delicately touched upon:

"Some of the Sirdar's Sudanese were cautiously making their way across the field of battle, their duty being one which, however hateful it may seem to the theoretical humanitarian, warfare against a savage horde," etc., etc. "There is no need to dwell on such incidents."

In short, the Sirdar "did not want any prisoners"; and it is evident that the old adage, "Sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander," does not hold good in a case of civilized warfare against barbarian hordes.

Faithfully yours,

THEORETICAL HUMANITARIAN.

BRIGHTON, ENGLAND, November 25, 1898.

Notes.

We learn, with a pleasure which our readers will share, that this century, which has made such brave efforts to introduce earnestness and method into the study of literature and art, will, before it comes to an end, witness no less an event than the almost unhoped-for publication of all such letters in the Buonarotti archives as concern Michelangelo. These letters, amounting to about eight hundred, written either by Michelangelo himself or to him or concerning him—letters which will throw light on a thousand obscure points in the career and character of that great Italian—are now being prepared by Signor Biagi for publication. They will appear simultaneously in Italian, in French, and in English, in the course of 1899. The English translation is being made by Miss Helen Zimmern, and will be published by Harper & Bros. As we understand that these publishers intend bringing out an illustrated edition, also, we express the hope that they will make the illustrations as apposite to the text and as excellent in manufacture as possible. We venture to suggest that perhaps nothing would be more welcome to the reader than the reproduction in absolute facsimile—paper no less than script—of one or two of these letters. Such facsimiles, scarcely less than the originals themselves, make one feel as no printed page can the presence of the writer; and here the writer was Michelangelo.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly publish 'A Life for Liberty: Anti-Slavery and Other Letters by Sallie Holley,' edited, with introduction and closing chapters, by the Rev. John W. Chadwick.

R. H. Russell has nearly ready a book of verse by Ingram Crockett, entitled 'Beneath Blue Skies and Gray.'

In our recent notice of Frederic Remington's 'Crooked Trails,' we fell into an error respecting the publisher of this work, which is from the press of Harper & Bros.

Lawrence & Bullen, London, issue this month the 'Sportsman's Year-Book,' edited by C. S. Colman, sub-editor of the 'Encyclopædia of Sport,' and by A. H. Windsor. The work will give succinctly as complete an account as possible of the events in every branch of sport during 1898. Thus those who possess the larger work will be enabled to keep their information up to date. The large volume will also include a review of the sporting books of the year, an obituary, and a diary, giving the chief features for next year.

'Tennyson, his Homes, his Friends, and his Work,' by Elisabeth L. Cary (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is frankly a compilation, the object of which has been to give the general reader "a fair view of the life and work of the Laureate, a view possibly somewhat more detached and varied than that which may be gained from the official Life." The result of this "detached and varied" view is an indefinable sense of denigration, the many criticisms quoted leaving one with a wonder if this were so great a poet after all. The illustrations are also largely "compiled," the most interesting of them be-

ing reproductions on a smaller scale of some of the admirable portraits, after Mrs. Cameron's negatives, displayed in 'Alfred Lord Tennyson and his Friends' (T. Fisher Unwin), reviewed by us upon its appearance in 1893.

Thomas B. Mosher, Portland, Me., adds to his series of reprints a limited edition of *The Germ*, beautifully got up and printed on hand-made paper. The historical importance of the original, and the handsome appearance of this reproduction, make it a desirable acquisition, but the book is disappointing to those in search of light upon the real doctrines and purposes of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. The little formal criticism it contains is meagre and juvenile, and leaves the impression that the young authors had really no well-defined principles, and mistook for such the naturalistic attitude common to the earnest art-student of all periods. They vaguely felt that the art of the day was conventional, and that an infusion of nature was needed, and they did not see that a renewing of convention and the substitution of one artificiality for another were all that was possible. It is odd, and yet perfectly natural, that the best outcome of a movement for rigid truth to fact should be the essentially decorative and anti-natural work of Burne-Jones. Besides the text, Mr. Mosher's reprint gives the original illustrations (all but that by Holman Hunt being ludicrously feeble), and facsimiles of the original wrappers.

'The Life of Our Lord in Art,' by Estelle M. Hurll (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is a sort of sequel to Mrs. Jameson's 'Sacred and Legendary Art,' of which Miss Hurll has acted as editor, and is built upon a similar plan. The incidents of the life of Christ which have been made the subjects of painting or sculpture are taken up in chronological order, and in each case an account is given of the first appearance in art of the incident in question and of the manner of its treatment by various artists down to the present day. The book will have a use, and will doubtless become more complete with succeeding editions, which are pretty likely to be called for. An omission we have noted in a hasty survey is that of any mention of the most modern form of treatment of the Flight into Egypt, by such artists as Merson, in which the sculptured remains of the religion of ancient Egypt are effectively contrasted with the beginnings of Christianity.

One would expect the drawbacks to the illustration of one book by several artists to be minimized in the case of a work illustrated by three brothers, as is the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' with designs by the brothers Rhead, issued by the Century Co. This has not, however, been done, and one is surprised to find that the three artists have agreed upon nothing—neither style nor costume, nor the types of the principal characters. Whether Christian was bearded or clean-shaven, what kind of clothes he wore and the approximate date of his armor, what Giant Despair looked like, and whether the young women of the House Beautiful wore costumes of the seventeenth century or of some indefinable period in the Middle Ages—these are questions upon which the brothers are hopelessly at variance. Young readers will be unable to follow the identity of the characters through these disguises, and the proper charm of a well-illustrated book will be lost for them. The drawings themselves are of various degrees of merit. Much the best of them are those by George Rhead, which greatly resemble in style and nearly equal in excellence the work of Walter Crane. Those by Louis Rhead are inferior in every way, while most of those by Frederick Rhead pass beyond the boundary line of positive badness. Even with the drawings by George Rhead it is noticeable that their merit is greatest when their size is most restricted, and that the full-page designs are comparatively empty and uninteresting.

That charming edition of 'Cranford' brought out seven years ago by Macmillan with Hugh Thomson's apt and jolly illustrations is now revived; and somewhat arbitrarily a portion of the pen-and-ink sketches are treated in colors thinly applied. Occasionally the effect is very much heightened; we do not know that it is ever marred. But either edition should satisfy the lover of this classic.

J. B. Lippincott Co. give an American imprint to the 'Marie Corelli Birthday Book' compiled by M. W. Davies. It is a dainty thing externally. The extracts are something less than elegant, either in thought or style.

The defective continuity of Landor's thought has favored a collection of his 'Aphorisms' such as has just been made by Mr. Brimley Johnson (London: George Allen; New York: F. A. Stokes Co.). This, too, is a small and pretty volume, but the contents have a real distinction, even if the platitude is not always barred out, and are not open to Landor's own condemnation (Aspasia *loquitur*): "Certainly the most part, even of careful collection, is mere trash."

Shakspere is again drawn upon by Andréa Jonsson and Louella C. Poole (Boston, 457 Shawmut Ave.) for "A Very Seasonable Calendar" in loosely corded sheets, handsomely printed, and sketchily illustrated by Fannie S. Montague.

A practised hand, Rose Porter, compiles "an every-day book" from 'Alfred Lord Tennyson's Men and Women' (New York: E. R. Herrick & Co.). Under each date, the two sexes are characterized by poetic extracts. These naturally have no relation to the seasons, as a rule, but we should, for our part, have avoided putting an extract from and about the "Progress of Spring" under December.

Edward Penfield's "Golf Calendar" for 1899 (R. H. Russell) is clever in the colored poster vein, and is commendable to all lovers of the sport. Nine designs (plus that on the cover) present a varied interest for landscape or character. The same publisher's 'Shakspere's Heroines Calendar' depends for its illustration on a dozen portraits of well-known actresses, including Mme. Ristori, Sarah Bernhardt, Modjeska (whose face and costume have quite a Wagnerian aspect), Ellen Terry, Mary Anderson, Julia Neilson, Julia Marlowe Taber, etc.

Mr. James Barnes's own "Modern Navy Songs," in the collection of 'Ships and Sailors' edited by him for Frederick A. Stokes Co., do not line up well with the "Old Sea Songs" and "Patriotic Songs" which he has borrowed from Gay, Dibdin, Kingsley, Caroline Gilman, and others. Perhaps the later subdivisions will commend this oblong folio sufficiently to some, and Mr. R. F. Zogbaum's illustrations will overcome a doubt with others. These, both in black and white and in color, are pleasing, but, in spite of this artist's nautical predilection and experience, are more interesting for the figures than for the ships.

'Commercial Cuba,' by William J. Clark, which the Scribners have just published, is a thoroughly good and useful book. Except for a slight but (for his purpose) sufficient account of Cuban manners and customs, especially as affecting business habits, the author holds himself strictly to his task of describing the actual and potential commercial and industrial condition of Cuba. We should not know where to find within another pair of covers so much and so carefully sifted information bearing on this subject. With the necessary warnings against pinning too implicit faith to statistics drawn from Spanish sources, which notoriously make of statistics one of the most inexact of sciences, the tables of debt and revenue and trade and production which Mr. Clark has compiled may be studied with real profit. His painstaking account of the railway and telegraph systems; of highways and harbors; of rivers and water-supplies, and lighthouses; of sugar and tobacco-growing; and his detailed description of each province and of every city of any size, together with a "business directory" for the whole island, make his book one of great value for reference as well as for practical guidance. In the present situation of Cuban affairs it should command a wide sale. Its accuracy is certainly of a high order.

'A World of Green Hills' is the sixth volume of a series of pleasant outing books written by Bradford Torrey and published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Its subtitle, "Observations of Nature and Human Nature in the Blue Ridge," gives a fair idea of the character of the book. Mr. Torrey is well known as a quiet observer who always writes of his saunterings in good form and good taste, making agreeable reading for the many who share his love of nature. The volume chats of a tour in North Carolina and Virginia, tells of the birds, flowers, and people he found there, describes a day's ride in three States, a search for ravens, a nook in the Alleghanies, and the Natural Bridge in Virginia. The author has a vein of his own, and this latest writing shows no falling off in the qualities which have gained him many admiring friends. He writes carefully as well as entertainingly, and has been at the pains to index his book. Those who possess his former ones will be glad of this addition to the series.

Part iii. of 'The Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass.' (Providence: David W. Hoyt) reaches into the letter M. It embraces the Lowell family, headed by the familiar and still current name of Percival Lowell; that Thomas Macy who founded the famous Nantucket Quaker family, and who, though not a Friend himself, sheltered four members of the Society "about three-quarters of an hour one rainy day," at the cost of a prosecution and a fine. Here also occurs Widow Susanna Martin, who had the fatal gift if not of beauty at least of neatness, so that her passing from Amesbury to Newburyport afoot in a "dirty season" without being drabbled weighed against her in the charge of witchcraft which brought her to the gallows. Here, too, are the Greenleafs, to remind us of the poet Whittier, with many other prominent New England tribes.

Those who watch with interest the woman movement in Germany will like to have their attention called to the "Jahrbuch für die

Deutsche Frauenwelt' edited by Elly Saul and Hildegard Obrist-Jenicke (Stuttgart: Greiner & Pfeiffer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It is a handy little volume of about 250 pages, consisting of contributions on the central theme in its myriad aspects. Dr. Käthe Schirmacher, for instance, describes the Paris woman's daily, *La Fronde*, edited by Mrs. Marguerite Durand, with colaborers wholly of her own sex; Dr. jur. Anita Augspurg treats of woman's claims to a share in the common acquisitions of the family; and Helene Lange of right leads off with a statement of the aims of the woman's movement. These three ladies are honored with portraits, and so are E. Vely, whose portion is a tragic little tale, and Minna Cauer, whose theme is woman in trade. All these faces are full of character.

In 'Der Anarchismus und seine Heilung' (Leipzig: Friedrich) the writer, who calls himself Emanuel, argues with much plausibility that the only rational and effective way of punishing the anarchist assassin is to lock him up in an asylum for the insane. If vanity, desire for celebrity, be the motive of the senseless crimes of this class of men, it is pretty safe to assume that the prospect of being considered and treated as lunatics would be no inducement to those of anarchist propensities to kill a king, or president, or empress; and, taking this view of the matter, Emanuel may quite logically maintain that a dead anarchist is more dangerous than one living behind the bars of a madhouse.

That the Greek classics lend themselves to the inculcation of the highest ethical principles is well shown by Prof. Dr. Heilmann's address to the *Abiturienten* of the gymnasium of Rossleben (published in *Lehrproben und Lehrgänge* for October last), in which the speaker takes the Sophoclean "character-tragedy" of "Philoctetes" for his theme. On the other hand, a vigorous protest against the belief that the highest standards of all virtues and ideals are to be found in antiquity is uttered by Prof. Dr. Schmeding in 'Die neuesten Forschungen über das klassische Alterthum' (Osterwieck: Zickfeldt, 1897), a pamphlet intended to spread and popularize the results of Prof. Schvarcz's investigations as published in his 'Die Democratie von Athen' (Leipzig: Friedrich). The havoc which these iconoclasts make of the character and civic virtue of nearly all the great men of whom Greek history boasts, must be provoking or disheartening to any one accustomed to view them in the halo with which venerable tradition and the enthusiasm of scholars have surrounded them.

The Paris *Nouvelle Revue*, edited by Madame Adam, has become the medium of a novel agitation, namely, that of "Decentralization." In certain circles of French thinkers the conviction has been brought home that the all-controlling influence of the capital in the life and thought of the nation is an element of weakness and danger, and that accordingly it is the part of wisdom to give prominence to the provinces and increase their influence as much as possible. In the old saying and fact that "Paris is France," this coterie of writers have found one of the causes why France no longer occupies the position in the council of nations that she formerly did. The *Revue* has accordingly introduced two new departments, one headed "Décentralisation," and the other "Provinces," which are devoted especially to the interests of the provinces over against Paris. In a recent issue Emmanuel Vion describes the goodness of provincial libraries; another correspondent demands a greater degree of self-government for the provinces; another protests against the exportation of all the best agricultural products to the capital city, which, he seriously maintains, has gone so far that in the provinces only stale and second-grade food can be had.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November contains, in addition to the presidential address of Col. G. E. Church on Argentine geography, an account of an expedition into the wilds of Venezuela, by Major S. Paterson. This is noteworthy, as indicating the extent of the absolutely unexplored territory in the basin of the Orinoco. The object of the expedition, which was frustrated by the porters' fear of the Indians, was to ascend Icutu, a mountain about 11,000 feet high, whose top "curls over like the head of a fungus." In one district "the compass was quite useless for surveying purposes, the needle varying at times as much as forty degrees, owing to the quantity of ironstone in the rocks."

A striking indication of what England is doing for the material welfare of Egypt is to be found in the report of the Under-Secretary for Public Works. Although the Nile flood last year was poor and late, yet the development of the "regulation system" in Upper and Middle Egypt limited the area of actually unwatered land to less than 10,000 acres. To the extension and development of the whole irrigation system is due the steady and rapid increase of the cotton crop, the yield for 1897 having been 64,000,000 pounds, or more than twice the crop of 1888. An important part of the work of the department is the construction of "agricultural roads," of which there are nearly 1,100 miles throughout Egypt. They have proved so useful that the native provincial councils are "continually voting large sums for extensions."

The latest circular of Harvard College Observatory reports the study of November meteors. More extensive observations were made this year than in 1897, and the especial results will be published in the Annals; but a brief account of the work undertaken is presented in the circular. To determine the density of different portions of the meteor stream, a number of stations all around the earth were selected, counts of the number of meteors visible being made during the entire time the earth traversed the stream. These reports are, of course, not all in as yet. Thirty persons at the home observatory recorded 800 meteors on the night of November 14. In half-an-hour, about three o'clock in the morning, 61 meteors east of the meridian were counted. The radiant-point was carefully studied, and 227 trails charted, while similarly at the Ladd Observatory in Providence, forty miles south of Cambridge, ten observers watched the radiant-point, counting about 400 meteors. This point was selected as suitable for determining the parallax visually. Ninety-six photographs were taken at Cambridge, with the Draper telescopes, and eleven smaller ones; two cameras were taken to Tufts College, two miles north, and twenty-five photographs were made simultaneously at both stations, for a photographic determination of the parallax. The light of the meteors attained a maximum and then diminished as rapidly as it increased, and this change is shown on the plates, as well as sudden changes due to explosions. The trail, sometimes surrounded by a sheath of light, was in one case photographed after the meteor causing it had passed. That meteors can be studied to advantage by photography is clearly proved.

As is well known, Mr. Percival Lowell of Boston, during the spring of 1894, put up an observatory at Flagstaff, Arizona, 7,250 feet above the level of the sea, for the special purpose of studying the planet Mars under the best available conditions. Observations were made almost every night from the 22d of May to the middle of December, 1894, and at intervals afterwards until April, 1895. The results are now embodied in the initial volume of 'Annals of the Lowell Observatory.' In part i. are "Physical and Micrometric Observations of Mars, and the Development and Significance of its Phenomena," including descriptions of the south-polar cap, the seasonal changes, the "canals" and oases, together with measurements of cusps, longitudes, and diameters. Professor William H. Pickering contributes to this portion an account of his observations of the seas of Mars. In discussing the "Meaning of the Canals," Mr. Lowell eliminates the various explanations that have been suggested, and gives his reasons for believing them to be artificial waterways for the purposes of irrigation. Part ii. contains "Canals in the Dark Regions and in the Light Regions of the Southern Hemisphere," by A. E. Douglass, as well as his description and discussion of terminator observations made in 1894-'95, and a brief study by Mr. Lowell of the satellites, Deimos and Phobos. Part iii. is devoted to an account by Mr. Lowell of the maps of Mars. The volume is illustrated by excellent plates, many of them from drawings by Percival Lowell.

Augustana College and Theological Seminary at Rock Island, Illinois, has begun the publication of a serial entitled "Augustana Library Publications." The first number consists of a memoir on "The Mechanical Composition of Wind Deposits," by Johan August Udden.

The Ottawa Literary and Scientific Society, whose origin goes back a little more than half a century, has just begun a series of Transactions, which are partly drawn from an annual lecture course. Number 1 is mostly occupied with a discussion of Canadian place-names. The introduction to this periodical states that the Dominion capital is as yet without a public library.

We have received the thirteenth number of the valuable 'Statistical Year-Book of Canada for 1897,' issued by the Department of Agriculture at Ottawa. It concludes with the personnel of the Dominion and provincial assemblies. In thirty years, Parliament and courts together have granted but 240 divorces. While Nova Scotia has obtained 84, New Brunswick 64, Ontario 4, and British Columbia 34, Prince Edward Island has obtained and possibly sought none. In twelve years the Chinese Immigration Act has produced $909,073 in collections from all sources, at a cost of $28,395.

Ornithologists are perennial, and their Union continues to flourish. Its sixteenth annual congress was held in Washington last month, with a day devoted to business by its council and active members, three days of session open to the public, and nearly a week's secret operations of its leading committee—that on classification and nomenclature. The public meetings were more largely attended than ever before; the average grade of the technical papers read was higher

than usual, and a larger number of popular subjects were illustrated with the stereopticon. One novelty was introduced by Mr. Sylvester Judd, whose graphophone rendered the song of the Thrasher. The social side of the affair was enjoyable; about sixty members and guests sat at table each day. The authorities of the United States National Museum, of the Army Medical Museum, of the public schools, and of the Cosmos Club, all placed halls at the service of the Union. One new member was elected to the jealously guarded list of active members, and more than a hundred to associate membership. Mr. Robert Ridgway of the Smithsonian Institution was chosen president to succeed Mr. William Brewster of Cambridge, who declined reëlection on the ground of ill-health; the only other change of officers was Mr. Charles B. Cory's succession to Mr. Ridgway's vacated vice-presidency. An exceptionally large number of technical points were considered in committee meetings, affecting the Union's present Check-list in nearly 200 proposed cases of additions and corrections, showing that the end is not yet in the highly contentious matter of nomenclature, aside from the increment ordinarily incident to the progress of the science. Next year the Union will meet for the first time in Philadelphia.

Carl Steen Andersen Bille, one of the leading public men of Denmark, died November 11. He was born July 1, 1828. After studying law, he entered journalism, and as editor and later owner of a Copenhagen paper he exercised a decisive influence in raising the general tone of the Danish press. For several years he was correspondent of the London *Times*, and he wrote also for German and French journals in the cause of Danish national integrity. In 1880 he was appointed Chargé d'Affaires and Consul-General to the United States, and the following year was promoted to Minister, remaining in this country until 1884. One of the fruits of his visit was a book recording his impressions, which were of a very unfavorable and biassed character. In 1886 he was appointed "Amtmand" (Sheriff), the position he held at the time of his death. Bille was distinguished as an occasional speaker.

—*Scribner's* has lately devoted itself a good deal to decorative illustration. An example may be seen in the current number, in Maxfield Parrish's designs, accompanying F. J. Stimson's rendering of the "Ring of the Nibelung," and may pass as a Christmas novelty. "John Ruskin as an Artist," by M. H. Spielman, with illustrations from his paintings and sketches—"many unpublished"—is a paper worth attention. Some of the originals can be seen only in private houses. "Recognition" as an artist "it was never Ruskin's ambition to obtain; his love of art was too passionately disinterested to draw public approval upon his own performances. His mission in life, he held, was to proclaim the beauties in the works of others —not his own. He had, according to his lights, to make reputation for some painters and upset that of others who were in unjustifiable enjoyment of it; and to equip himself for the task—but in no wise to exalt himself—he placed himself under the best masters of the day, and, by dint of hard work and intense application, he became a draughtsman of extremely high accomplishment." "Stevenson at Play" is an entertaining account of an intricate "Kriegsspiel" invented by the novelist for the amusement of a boy's holiday hours. The game, we fear, cannot be generally introduced, as it required Stevenson's imagination to keep it going properly. It not merely simulates the tactics and strategy of a campaign, but also parodies the war-correspondence and editorial writing which a war produces. An amusing incident of the war is the execution of the editor of the Yallowbally *Record* by General Osbourne, amid deafening applause, and another is the "accidental capture of the accomplished soldier whose modesty conceals itself under the pseudonym of Napoleon." Imperialism and expansion are dealt with by the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, in an article on "Recent Developments of Policy in the United States," and by Mr. Lodge in the concluding chapter of his "Story of the Revolution." The reader will search the first in vain for anything original, but the second contains an important announcement—that the Monroe Doctrine is in full force and effect and keeps Europe's hands off America, while Washington's doctrine prevents us from meddling in the affairs of Europe; but as neither Washington nor Monroe said anything about Asia, we can do what we like there. There is a difference, however, between either Washington or Monroe and Mr. Lodge in the fact that the former discussed what we had better do; the latter discusses what we might do if we "took a notion to." In practical questions the distinction is important. We can, if we please, make Mr. Lodge President of the United States; but this does not show that it is advisable to do so.

—In the *Century* Mr. Jacob A. Riis gives an account of "The Passing of Cat Alley," the pictures being furnished by Jay Hambidge. Cat Alley was one of the "slum alleys" of New York swept away by sanitary reform, together with Bottle Alley, Bandits' Roost, Bone Alley, Nipsey's Alley, and Gotham Court. The description of these alleys and other slums, such as "Hell's Kitchen" (which still persists), feebly recalls the old New York of 1850, when Five Points was in its heyday. It would probably now be impossible for any quarter of the city as considerable as that to be entirely abandoned to vice and crime, but the history of the alleys shows that slums continually tend to be produced. Mr. Riis depicts some of the characters of Cat's Alley, and gives an anecdote of alley life which brings it before the reader more vividly than could any description. The Irish children of the alley are playing see-saw with a plank laid across a lime-barrel; a little Dago girl is watching them with hungry eyes, longing, but not daring, to join them. Big Jane, the leader of the Celts, sees her, and at once stops the game. "Here, Mame," she says, pushing a small girl from the plank, "you get off an' let her ride. Her mother was stabbed yesterday." S. D. Collingwood contributes a paper on "Some of Lewis Carroll's Child Friends," illustrated by a picture of the original Alice. The glimpses we get of Dr. Dodgson are worth having; indeed, his character as revealed in his letters to his little friends forms the staple of the article. The author of 'Alice in Wonderland' was sure to be an eccentric man. Those who like to trace in books the moral and mental traits which have led to their production will be interested to know that Dr. Dodgson never wore an overcoat, but always wore a tall hat, whatever the weather; his gloves were invariably of cotton, and he had for his dinner table, instead of mats, small pieces of cardboard, which, he said, answered as well, and saved a waste of money. He was, however, when children were concerned, lavish of money, being, in fact, a man of great generosity. He always wrote standing, and was fond of walking up and down the room while telling anecdotes, "waving the teapot." After church he was careful not to speak for several minutes, so that the return to worldly things might not be too sudden. Above all, he was extremely fond of paradox, absurdity, and nonsense, while his forte was mathematics. The one trait that runs though everything is unworldliness and modesty. He loved children, and for their sake created a world apart in which he and they could live together.

—Perhaps the best-illustrated article in *Harper's* is "How the Other Side Laughs," by John Corbin. The East Side is described, and Mr. Corbin gives some account of Yiddish life. The artistic existence of what is here called the Ghetto is not confined to playwrights and actors, but includes composers, musicians, and singers. There are five Yiddish (*i. e., Judisch* or Jewish) theatres, and even novelists, whose tales are hawked from tenement to tenement; their great man, Schorner, has to keep three or four stories under way at once. Then there is a poet, Morris Rosenfeld, of whom our readers have heard. The only obstacle which hampers the progress of the arts is that the purity of the Yiddish tongue is increasingly contaminated by the influence of American life. The children, except at home, discard Yiddish, and "talk United States." They call their parents "Dutchmen," and say, "What hell good the Old Country? This here is United States." The reader should not overlook an article called "The Coming Fusion of East and West," by Ernest F. Fenollosa. One objection to the lucubrations of such publicists as Messrs. Chamberlain and Kidd is that they write about "the East" and "the Tropics," as if it were all one place. The result is that their discussion of the problems of the day is a little vague. This vagueness pervades Mr. Fenollosa's pages also, but is relieved by the fact that a long residence in Japan has given him some understanding of the questions of expansion and fusion as they look in Oriental eyes. His idea is, that the new birth of Japanese civilization is to be followed by the same sort of thing in China; that China is now learning from Japan, and will shortly astonish the world by a *renaissance* as important as that of five hundred years since in Europe; provided, however, that those who are filled with the new ideas are backed up by the free, progressive nations of the West, and China is not allowed to fall a prey to Russia, France, or Germany. Mr. Fenollosa declares that "the key to the situation is that China *has already waked*." She is not merely authorizing the construction of railroads, but introducing, via Japan, Western ideas and standards. The influence of the coterie of mandarins who have intrigued with Russia is waning, and Japanese universities are being employed to instruct selected bodies of Chinese students in the new learning.

—The name of Kidd is one just now to conjure with. He is deferred to as an authority on "the control of the tropics," not only by Mr. Chamberlain, but by the editor of the *Atlantic*, who prints an article of

his on the relation of this country to the tropics. There is no evidence in it that he has any real acquaintance with either the tropics or the United States, and he repeats here the astonishing assertion first made in his book on the subject, that "the white man can never be acclimatized in the tropics." By definition his "tropics" is the whole of the earth's surface between 30° north and 30° south latitude. We advise the gentle reader to make his globe revolve, and look for himself. Per contra, an article on "European Experience with Tropical Colonies," by W. Alleyne Ireland, is of some practical value, as Mr. Ireland has had real experience himself of tropical life, having spent six years in the West Indies and in British Guiana. We have already commented on this. Prince Kropotkin's "Autobiography of a Revolutionist" continues to be most entertaining. He has the true Russian art of making us see through his eyes—the art of Turgeneff and Tolstoi, and, indeed, of all real narrators and describers. In the current instalment he gives an account of an institution thoroughly European in origin, and probably deliberately acclimatized in the Russian court as part of the process of occidentation—the Corps or Academy of Pages. "Only a hundred and fifty boys—mostly children of the nobility belonging to the court—received education in this privileged corps, which combined the character of a military school endowed with special rights and a court institution attached to the imperial household." Prince Kropotkin's description of the life in this school and his sketches of the different teachers bring the whole boys' world before the reader with great vividness, and in the end we see, possibly by the design of the writer, that the little Russian page was not so utterly unlike a boy anywhere else, even an Anglo-Saxon boy. Horrid doubts arise in the mind as to whether Adam-Zad can be quite such a ruffian as he is made out when his children are so like our own.

—Mr. Francis Marion Crawford knows his Rome full well; he can discourse upon the glories and infamies of its past, and upon the problems that beset its present—nay, he can even foreshadow its future—with epigrammatic familiarity and artistic lightness of touch. His new book, 'Ave Roma Immortalis' (Macmillan), will be a joy to those who have, like him, absorbed the legends of the "lone mother of dead empires," and plodded their way "o'er steps of broken thrones and temples"; but to the seeker of guide-book knowledge, to the craver after systematic description, it will be an *inextricabilis error*, a maze without a clue. Allusion, than which the initiate finds nothing more charming, becomes to the uninitiate illusion, evasive as will o' the wisp, though hunted ever so hard among the pitfalls and in the darkness visible of dictionary of antiquities or handbook of phrase and fable. *Procul, o procul este profani!* Let the elect enjoy for once a book about Rome which contains not a single explanatory footnote or appendix—not even a preface—and in which the very illustrations in the text are from sketches made by an evident artist, and not those process cuts from photographs to which we are so often condemned by the modern craze for exactness in unimportant detail. Photographs, indeed, are here—some two-dozen full-page ones; but, well made as they are, they seem ashamed of their naked truth, and hide themselves modestly behind the tissue-paper veils with which the publisher has kindly provided them. At first sight, too, there might seem to be some system of the guide-book sort in the arrangement of the reading matter; for, after four introductory chapters on early, imperial, and mediæval Rome, the next fourteen bear the titles of the Regions. And the last three chapters are entitled Leo XIII., The Vatican, and St. Peter's. But nobody need be alarmed, for Mr. Crawford roves at will, unconfined by any barriers, like the bee that takes its sweets from every side. In a word, here is a man, bred up in Rome, who has drunk in its history at every pore, who has pondered long over classic and mediæval tomes, and who now gives us the refined essence of his lore in one of the most thoughtful books which the lover of Rome ever read.

—Brewer's 'Reader's Handbook' has for nearly twenty years proved a great convenience for ready reference, subject to the usual limitations and defects of such cyclopædias. We are glad to get the revised edition of it now issued by J. B. Lippincott Co., reset in the same measure, and showing 1,243 pages against the former 1,132. This is evidence of very considerable additions, which are even greater than appears, in view of omissions including the appendices. These last, "Authors and Dates of Dramas and Operas" and "Dates of Poems, Novels, etc., referred to," were worth retaining and perfecting. Dr. Brewer died last year before he could finish correcting his proofs, but is presumably responsible for the contents. No explanation is given of the capricious setting of some rubrics in capital letters, nor of the principle of revision, especially in the dropping of old titles, for some of which one would like to keep the former edition still at hand. It was well to insert the 'Henriade,' and Shakspere's plays "Henry IV." and "Henry VIII."; but ought not old Omar and his 'Rubáiyát' to have found a place, even by allusion under Giamschid (Jamshyd)? Would not Musset naturally have been mentioned in connection with Namouna? Two new American items have attracted us. One seems to have strayed from its proper fold, Brewer's 'Historic Note-Book,' and is called "Olney's Doctrine." (For the Monroe Doctrine we must resort to the Note-Book.) The new-fangled Doctrine is accurately enough defined, but not there left. A caustic line below asks: "How does this apply to Canada and British Columbia?" How, indeed? But also how does this pertinent criticism creep into a Handbook? So much for editorial vagary. For editorial carelessness we need explore no further after coming upon this delicious confusion of Richard Henry Lee and Patrick Henry:

> *Henry* [Lee], member for Virginia, on whose motion (July 4, 1776), the American congress published their declaration of independence, and erected the colonies into free and sovereign states.

Henry, the forest-born Demosthenes,
Whose thunder shook the Philip of the seas [Great Britain.]

Byron: Age of Bronze, viii. (1821).

Yet we must add that the reader is gravely referred on page 1 to the omitted appendices.

—Two of the recent volumes of the *Ladies' Home Journal* Household Library, little books nicely stitched and bound at a cheap price, deal with house-architecture. One of these is William L. Price's 'Model Houses for Little Money,' and the other, William Martin Johnson's 'Inside of a Hundred Homes,' each illustrated by a number of half-tone prints. The former has also plans of houses which the author can hardly be said to have required. It is, of course, the more general of the two, treating as it does of the whole house, its plan, its arrangement, its proper and expedient decoration, its cost, etc. Chapter iv., for instance, deals with a city house costing "from $1,800 to $2,400 anywhere in America." The plan of this house, to a New Yorker's eye, calls for five stories, but the exterior admits of two stories only, besides a cellar without separate entrance from the street, and such garret as may be in the roof, but without windows in the front. This two-story house, then, has three living-rooms and a kitchen on the ground floor; four bedrooms and bathroom on the second floor, the rooms being all very small, and the total width of the house apparently sixteen feet, including the walls. The author's remarks on the plan are interesting, and one can agree with most of them, but the estimates are not easy to guarantee. The most expensive house dealt with in the book is one at $4,000. The book on interiors furnishes the reader with a wonderful series of views of actual and actually furnished rooms of all sorts; and the wonder is that the author should not have realized how absurd is the result. Is it not generally recognized—the ugly effect produced by a photograph of the modern room crowded with tables, chairs, lounges, standard-lamps, cabinets, rugs, tiger-skins, portières, curtains, and jimcracks generally? The room itself may be endurable because of the pleasant color which a person of taste will instinctively obtain for himself, and because, also, one moves about among the objects of utility and never stops to look at the room fixedly from one point of view. The photograph, however, whether of the simple little sitting-rooms shown in this book or of the most princely modern interior in New York or London, gives always the idea of intense disorder and of abounding bad taste.

MORE NOVELS.

The Day's Work. By Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday & McClure Co.

The Two Magics. By Henry James. The Macmillan Co.

In the Cage. By Henry James. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Antigone, and Other Portraits of Women (*Voyageuses*). By Paul Bourget. Translated by William Marchant. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Heart of Toil. By Octave Thanet. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Blindman's World, and Other Stories. By Edward Bellamy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The World's Rough Hand. By H. Phelps Whitmarsh. The Century Co.

The Adventures of François. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. The Century Co.

Mr. Kipling's latest volume of tales, entitled 'The Day's Work,' shows no unsuspected qualities. The force with which he captured the Western World years ago—force of purpose and imagination—has taken no new direction; has, on the contrary, more and more concentrated itself on the narration of incidents generally picturesque and always throbbing with physical life. Mr. Kipling has grown, but not in grace or wis-

dom, as some quiet people, appreciative of his great talent, hoped he might. His judgment has not matured, his taste in matters of sentiment and in vocabulary has not been chastened by the passing years, and his attitude towards persons whom he does not like (the powers that govern India, and rich Americans) is as childishly ill-tempered and uncivil as ever. His growth is in practical, technical knowledge. His patience and industry are endless in the acquisition of knowledge about ships and how to build and sail them, about the construction of bridges and locomotives, about tail-shafts and cranes and cylinders and piston-rods. He is tremendously interested in these things, and he means that all who look at his pages, including the grossly ignorant and the shamelessly indifferent, shall share his interest and understand. He lets you know at once that he has managed his story so as to spoil it for you if you should dare to skip.

This intimidation of the public is an amusing illustration of his force of purpose. His day's work is to entertain a multitude having conflicting tastes and capricious preferences for which he doesn't care a straw. He scorns pandering; he doesn't need to curry favor. He has only one notion of how to do his work, or at most two, definite enough, strong enough to compel admiration and make suggestion appear foolish. His first notion is that the only stories worth telling are stories about what men (and sometimes beasts and machines) will to do and suffer to accomplish; the second, a sort of moral corollary, is that to do is to live, that the Lotos-eater (unless Lotos should be opium) is inferentially a coward and a sneak, and that any dauntless climber up a climbing wave, however obscure, is a hero who, if he, Mr. Kipling, catch sight of him, shall not go to his grave unhonored and unsung. These notions of his work's aim are so vigorous, so comprehensively right, that depreciatory criticism is crowded into the assertion that they are primitive, and that the tales in which they are so convincingly impressed are necessarily objective.

This means that the thought, feeling, general character of the actors must be inferred from the action and the way it is performed. You may, and often must, assume that the actor's heart is desolate, his mind tortured, but Mr. Kipling doesn't help you to realize the degree of desolation, the kind of torture. Sometimes, indeed, he seems deliberately to withhold his aid and comfort, not suggesting thereby that he is incompetent to succor, but rather that you who need more light are a dull fool—humanly speaking, of no more account than an Egyptian mummy. It is only on reflection, after a second reading (and most people do not read even Kipling's tales twice), that, in some instances, the first intention is seen to suffer, the chief interest to flag, through failure of subjectivity. "The Bridgebuilders" would be a more impressive tale, artistically more complete, if Mr. Kipling had more minutely set forth Findlayson's thoughts and feelings as he watched "Mother Gunga" doing battle for her freedom, rushing in a mighty flood against the piers of his great life-work, the Kashi bridge. But Findlayson's reflections are curtly summarized; then he is permitted to take an opium pill and is borne off in a cockle-shell on the bosom of the flood to an island where the ancient gods, in the shapes of beasts, discourse obscurely and allegorically until the opium fever passes, and Findlayson awakes in his right mind to see the flood abating and to know that the Kashi bridge still stands. The opium vision is not in the line of the first impulse; it is an independent imaginative excursion, and has no bearing on the critical moment in Findlayson's existence. In "William the Conqueror," a story of famine in India, the description of activity in mitigating suffering leaves Miss Martyn, the heroine, a very sketchy person. The mystic strain of "The Brushwood Boy" is not intensified by accounts of the admirable Georgie's methods for keeping his regiment in a dazzling state of efficiency.

But against these instances of inadequacy in his method may be set the perfect characterization of the Scotch engineer, McPhee. McPhee is a type, a creation, solid as Mulvaney, and more subtle. He makes another reason for believing, after every qualification, that Mr. Kipling is the greatest literary force of his day, and that his very limitations, his prejudices, and self-complacence, and lack of sensibility, strengthen his hand and help him to hold and rule.

In the contemporary popularity of Mr. Kipling and Mr. James there is an interesting suggestion of the influence of democracy on the production of literature. Not that Mr. James's popularity is, or has ever been, of so comprehensive and clamorous a sort as Mr. Kipling's, but always of the best quality and lasting and loyal. Until the nineteenth century begins to grow old, there is not much difficulty in chronologically grouping English literature without any assistance from the date of an author's birth. Each period has its hall-mark. When the reading public was small, taste had only one standard, a point of view was established. The men who wrote for the pleasure of their generation took little into account a hydra-headed, self-assertive mob, and all did their work in very much the same way—the way that would please a small circle with a degree of intellectual equality, with similar aspirations and congenial prejudices. It is the presence of a large democracy eager to read, fairly competent to estimate the worth of what it reads, of independent and very confident judgment, that makes possible the success in imaginative prose literature of two men who, in purpose, method, and manner, are so far apart, so widely and so minutely different, as are Mr. Kipling and Mr. James. The difference goes so far that, though each is strong in the vernacular, even here they don't meet, but pasture, as it were, in separate and remote provinces of the mother-tongue.

Mr. James has never used colloquial English with better literary effect than in his latest volumes, entitled 'The Two Magics' and 'In the Cage.' The action in these tales (they are genuine tales) is, of course, the action of mind on mind, of spirit on spirit. Things are brought about through the contact and clash of sensibilities and impulses and desires and passions. Many men discuss the complexities of human nature in exact and formal English, leaving us cold and dull, still not understanding; but Mr. James pursues the elusive impression till he nails it with a familiar phrase, watches vague intimations of consciousness until they assume coherence and positiveness, then flings a conclusion at you, irresistibly convincing, in the form of an innocent irony or even an apparently unpremeditated flippancy. In a word, he converts into vivid, exquisite, immensely amusing pictures of life stuff that has long been the property of formal and tedious philosophers. The material is inexhaustible, and Mr. James's latest stories remind us how easy it is for him to avoid that poverty of motive which sooner or later overtakes authors who depend chiefly on adventure or remarkable incident.

In the 'Two Magics' there are two stories, one illustrating a magic that is supernatural, and the other a magic charmingly natural, of a power that is never disputed. In the first, one sups full of horrors. Whether the story of possession by very evil spirits is probable, is a question for persons without imagination. To others it seems, for the moment, appallingly true. The gayety and grace of the second tale make an effective contrast. Never has a finer tribute been paid to the surprising charm of the American woman who unaffectedly smacks of her native soil. The situation of 'In the Cage' is so ticklish that only the nicest perception of literary effects could save it from collapse into vulgarity or from attenuation to inanity. So far as we are permitted to follow the acute telegraphist (the girl in the cage), a delicate balance is maintained, but speculation hovers about what might happen if, after she has married Mudge, the grocer, the inarticulate Captain Everhard should come (as he almost certainly would) and sit on Mudge's doorstep and murmur irrelevantly, "Only, I say—see here!"

In none of his translated romances does M. Paul Bourget make such an agreeable impression on the English reader as in 'Antigone, and Other Portraits of Women.' These women, known but slightly through the chance of travel, attracted him by a hint of some rare nobility or grace of nature, and touched his imagination to weave about them romance of delicate texture, glowing with sentiment, yet not sentimental; pathetic, even tragic, yet with no forced, unhealthy, morbid note. The scenes which the presence of these women made an imperishable memory (in most instances a bit of the Mediterranean coast) are described with a genuine feeling for natural beauty and for artistic harmony between picture and frame. Incident and place are so closely related that to think of one is to remember all.

In the tale entitled "Two Married Couples" Americans may find several things for serious reflection. The woman here, Mrs. Tennyson R. Harris, is very commonplace, and it is her husband and his attitude to his wife that excite M. Bourget's lively curiosity. The incident is a picturesque discussion, without definite solution, of questions which M. Bourget asked himself while dining at the Harrises' Newport villa—questions which every observer of American society is frequently asking and which may be summed up thus: "What does Harris, the worried, taciturn, abstemious 'millionaire day-laborer,' get for his work; and what, under heaven, is his feeling for the woman, his wife, whom he surrounds with insane luxury, who apparently gives him neither love, esteem, nor service, and whom, as a matter of fact, he rarely sees?" M. Bourget's translator has done his work respectably, but he is often pedantic, stiff, and incapable of getting rid of the French idiom.

Octave Thanet's excellent tales of Amer. can day-laborers who are not millionaires

lead justly to the inference that in America the phrases "working people" and "common people" are not synonymous. The men whom she draws so clearly and sympathetically in 'The Heart of Toil' are mostly average Americans, capable, courageous men, intelligently good, intelligently bad, always intelligent, beyond the corresponding class of any other nation. One gathers (and again the inference may be correct) that if the mass of day-laborers in America were all or half of American birth and breeding, strikes would long ago have been generally successful, or would have been abandoned by the strikers as a hopeless method of getting what they want. The author has an intimate acquaintance with the people of whom she writes, and her sympathy appears always to be the sympathy of affectionate equality. She seems to look neither down nor up, but to stand hand in hand with calm eyes and clear judgment and a warm heart for her own. She is herself a good American to be proud of, and her stories are especially to be commended to those who but vaguely and indifferently know the mass of their fellow-citizens.

One of the reasons of Mr. Edward Bellamy's immense popularity in America was that he spoke not only for, but with, the people. This aspect is to-day the only really interesting feature of the literary work which he has left to keep his name for a little while alive. He had no effective literary talent, and his political and economic theories were visionary rather than ideal. The volume of tales entitled 'The Blindman's World' is interesting only in relation to the author, giving the impression of a plain, honest, sincere man, the last person in the world to strive for notoriety or to disturb society in his own interest. Mr. Howells's introduction is a tribute of esteem, not a literary criticism.

'The World's Rough Hand' is an admirable book for inciting boys to stay at home and take their share of foreign adventure on rainy afternoons by the fireside. It shows no sign of being "made-up," has no studied plot or artificial coincidence, but is just a scrappy, natural account of several years of life, during which the writer, with equal soul and a heart for any fate, roamed about Australia and the Southern Seas. Unlike most adventurers, he was really fond of work. Wherever he found himself, he besieged the population for work, moving on only when he couldn't find it, or when, through some misfortune, he lost what he had found. So we see him as sailor, grocer's boy, miner, beach-comber, pearl-diver, sometimes commanding, sometimes serving, always immensely interested in the affair of the moment, still with eyes wide open for better luck. Besides being entertaining, the book has a lot of odd information about queer countries and queerer people. Its literary merit is that it has no pretension and, though always plain, is never dull.

In 'The Adventures of François' Dr. Weir Mitchell combines the frivolous adventures of a juggler, buffoon, and thief with sketches of Paris during the Revolution. It is not quite possible to persuade the airy spirit of comedy to keep close company with the savage tragedy or infernal gayety of that hour, but Dr. Mitchell has contrived a lighter tale than most of the story-tellers who have been tempted by the picturesque contrasts of the period. The adventures of François are exciting, at times thrilling; and though he is careless of the minor morals, he bears himself nobly in many situations for which true respectability would have been grossly inadequate.

OUR FOREIGN POLICY.

America's Foreign Policy: Essays and Addresses. By Theodore Salisbury Woolsey. The Century Co. 1898.

Mr. Woolsey is professor of International Law in the Yale Law School. This book consists of a number of essays and addresses, many of them reprinted from magazines and reviews, and most of them called out by public events during the past four years. Taken together, they give a good idea of the foreign policy of the United States from a thoroughly practical point of view. On several subjects of great importance, such as the Monroe Doctrine, the Nicaragua Canal, and the Philippines, they deal with questions of policy. Questions of policy are, however, involved with questions of international law, especially in this country, and the book discusses so many recent questions of international law that, for the last few years, it serves very well as a popular guide in that study. It summarizes in a convenient form the history of matters such as the Barrundia affair, the attempt to hold the *Itata*, the various questions relating to Cuba which arose before the war, the Bering Sea arbitration. The volume closes with a paper on the Declaration of Paris, in which the author urges the importance of immediate assent on the part of this country to the Declaration as a preliminary to the international exemption from capture of all non-contraband private property at sea.

The author's view of the Monroe Doctrine, which was first published in 1896, shortly after the Venezuela message, substantially agrees with the view expressed then or since by most lawyers and publicists conversant with the matter. So far as we know, Mr. Cleveland's use of the Doctrine to justify his intervention in the Venezuela boundary dispute as affecting the interests of the United States has never received much substantial support except from active politicians, or their followers in the press, who had something to lose or gain by it, and from Lord Salisbury, whose weakness or good nature lent color to the idea that we were in the right. Mr. Woolsey has no difficulty in showing, first, that the Doctrine is no part of international law; second, that it is founded solely on the self-interest of the United States; and consequently, third, that, to invoke it, it is always necessary to show that some interest of the United States is involved. We may add to this that, even for any one who undertakes to argue that, by the acquiescence of other Powers, the Doctrine has become part of the law of nations, the result is precisely the same, because in that case the principle of international law under which it would come would be that of the right of self-defence, a right inherent in all States; and this right we can enforce only by showing that some interest of the United States is attacked which seriously affects our own status—our peace or safety, our institutions or form of government.

This is exactly what we thought was threatened in 1823 by the Holy Alliance. Monroe and Adams considered, and there is every reason to think that they were right, that the subversion of the republican governments in the new South American States, and their return to the control of Spain, would seriously affect this country. Consequently, we laid down the principle of what may be called reciprocal non-expansion. If Europe would not *extend* her system on this side of the world, we would not interfere with the European system as then existing. We may add, though it is not necessary to Mr. Woolsey's argument to do so, that the suggestion that the Monroe Doctrine involved a pledge on our side applicable only to this hemisphere is a mere pretence; its language, taken in its natural sense, precludes us from extending our system to European colonies. It is absurd to contend that we meant only colonies on this side, and that we reserved the right of taking as many colonies as we pleased in the East.

But, whatever view is taken of this, the one matter about which there can be no dispute is the fact that in the boundary controversy between Great Britain and Venezuela we had no interest whatever. The interest alleged to be interfered with was an interest that no European government should "extend its system" in this hemisphere. But a precisely similar question had previously existed between ourselves and Great Britain as to the Maine boundary; we always insisted there that England was encroaching on us. Under the Ashburton Treaty we surrendered part of the disputed territory. Did this effect an extension of the European system? If so, it would seem as if by this precedent we had admitted that the surrender of territory claimed as our own might be innocuous, notwithstanding the Doctrine. If not, *cadit quæstio*. Mr. Cleveland, it will be remembered, as if for the purpose of anticipating this difficulty, conceded in advance that Venezuela and Great Britain might by agreement settle the boundary for themselves; but if it were true that any extension of a boundary is extension of a system, this position is untenable. If, wherever a European boundary is pushed forward in South America, there is an extension of the European system, it can make no difference to us whether it is done by agreement or by force. Under the Monroe Doctrine, it is the extension which hurts us, not the means by which it is accomplished. In short, the Monroe Doctrine has nothing to do with the case.

The articles on "An Interoceanic Canal in the Light of Precedent" and "An Interoceanic Canal from the Standpoint of Self-Interest" will well repay examination. The author has unearthed a passage from Mr. Blaine's dispatches to Mr. Lowell which seems to exist only in manuscript, and which both friends and enemies of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty will find interesting. In a letter written in 1881 (the citation is "November 29, 1881. MSS. Inst. Gr. Brit. For. Rel. 1881") Mr. Blaine says:

> "I am more than ever struck by the elastic character of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and the admirable purpose it has served as an ultimate recourse on the part of either government to check apprehended designs in Central America on the part of the other, although all the while it was frankly admitted on both sides that the engagements of the treaty were misunderstandingly entered into, imperfectly comprehended, contradictorily interpreted, and mutually vexatious."

This cuts from under the feet of those who attack the treaty the chief ground on which they had to stand—that the treaty resulted in British aggression. Mr. Woolsey also gives a history of the diplomacy which resulted in the neutralization of the Suez

Canal by the Powers, and points out that the "neutralization" of a maritime highway by the United States has no meaning. Neutralization involves action by several Powers strong enough to enforce their decrees by action in common. The alternative is protection and control by the United States, and this practically gives the United States the right to close or open it when it pleases. A point which Mr. Woolsey might have added is, that no matter under whose protection the canal is opened, the moment it is opened it becomes as much a highway of commerce as the Suez Canal, or for that matter the English Channel, and its control will ultimately be settled just as that of all other highways of commerce has been, by the general interests of all the nations which make up the commercial world, and not by those who own or protect the coast line. In former times the English Channel was claimed as being under the jurisdiction of England, and all this talk of exclusive control of the canal by the United States is but the revival of arguments and conceptions which belong to the period when the constant occupation of nations was conquest and war, when towns were sacked and prisoners murdered in cold blood, and the laws of nations hardly yet existed.

One cannot read such a summary as this of our later foreign policy without seeing that that policy is marked by a spirit of adventure strangely at variance with settled principles. Positive international law is in great part the work of American lawyers and diplomats; its principles have been expounded by such men as Wheaton and Kent, much as the Constitution was by Webster. Its main outlines remain to-day what they have been for fifty years, yet our later public men's efforts seem chiefly directed to introducing confusion into it. When we wisely provided for an interoceanic canal by a treaty, the wisdom of which is proved by the subsequent history of the Suez Canal, we now threaten to tear it up, although, as Mr. Woolsey shows, it is for our interest to enforce it. Although we maintained the rights of neutrals until they were embodied in the law of nations by Europe in the Declaration of Paris, we omit for forty years to sign the Declaration, on the ground that it does not include immunity of all private property at sea, and then refuse ourselves to recognize that immunity. On the other hand, we stick to privateering after it has become of no use to us, at the same time, fortunately, proving that it is of no use by abandoning it in practice. The Monroe Doctrine is turned into a burlesque by an Administration representing one party. The right of legation asylum (in revolutionary states), which we formerly endeavored to restrict, an Administration of the other party endeavors to enlarge. Whichever way we turn, we see confusion introduced, not as the result of any clearly defined new policy, but as the result of ignorance, misconception, and want of principle. If, thus far, we have not succeeded in altering any of the fundamental principles of our foreign policy, it is really because that policy was so wisely made to tally with our best interests and with the permanent requirements of our situation, that hitherto the ventures made in new directions have not succeeded in upsetting it. But how long will this last? Certainly, no man can predict with confidence. International law and even the Monroe Doctrine were made by man for his own convenience, and by man they may be destroyed. It hinges, Mr. Woolsey would be inclined to say, upon whether we wholly change our status by establishing a great military colonial empire—that is, on the Philippine question.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

The story of a strictly ordinary boy is 'Johnnie,' by E. O. Laughlin (Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.). Though it shows marks of an unpractised hand, and indeed makes no pretence of being anything but a first attempt, there are in it many touches which appeal to the ordinary boy, whatever his age. Who, for instance, has not known the time when he "wished longingly for a younger brother" as Johnnie did when, having been thrashed by an older cousin, he had to content himself with venting "only a small portion of his resentment by throwing pebbles at the chickens"? No doubt it is true that, "to the average boy, being sick stands next in enjoyment to a fishing excursion." Even death he looks upon "from the pathetic but impersonal standpoint of his grief-stricken friends or remorseful enemies." It is small wonder, then, if the heartless response, "Bully for you!" to the tender bequest of the would-be dying boy "somewhat marred the pleasantness" of that youth's departure, and even caused him to postpone it for the sake of demanding the gift's return. "The untold comforts of the ague," of which the only bitter memory is that of quinine, furnish, probably, one of the least appreciated joys of life. Even the ague's time is well chosen, for, according to Johnnie's biographer, malaria "sometimes attacks a boy during holiday—but not often. Usually its onset is identical with the beginning of harvest." Perhaps the last pages, telling of Johnnie's marriage and the advent of Johnnie II., might have been spared.

'Sir Jefferson Nobody,' by Effie W. Merriman (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), glories in being anything but an ordinary boy. This street waif, christening himself with a title of nobility, and then feeling strong upon him the obligation to live up to his name; the wretched tramp received, supported, and nursed for years by a poor boy who never knew till the old man died that it was his own father, and a man of rank and wealth (though an inveterate miser), whom he had befriended; the orphan boy and girl living in great misery until discovered and claimed by a long-lost uncle, and raised by him to the height of wealth and luxury—these are a few of the frantic expedients employed (and not for the first time) in the attempt to escape commonplace.

A little boy's visit and conversation 'With the Dream-Maker' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) is by John Habberton. Doubtless it may be gratifying to the youngsters to see a thing so like their own dreams all printed out in black and white, but on the whole this little book gives no occasion to amend the nearly universal decision that dreams are best left to the uncritical temper of sleepers. They do not usually bear the daylight well; and this mock dream, too, seems thin and prosaic, and its humor not very funny when dragged into the unfriendly definiteness of print.

One of those comprehensive stories warranted to outlast the longest rainy day of vacation, while carrying an entire family of young people from infancy safely through their honeymoons, is 'Everyday Honor,' by Fannie E. Newberry (George W. Jacobs & Co.). Here is something for all tastes—if we may except the literary taste: a talented, naughty boy; an ugly-tempered, a sweet-tempered, and an angelic girl; a saintly, careworn father; a sensible, crisp, managing aunt; a returning prodigal; and, finally (not to attempt a complete enumeration), a baby boy who tries hard, though unsuccessfully, to be as funny and endearing as the real article. Surely the young person would be hard to suit who could not find his fit in this assortment. When we add that two or three of the characters are on the constant watch to improve every occasion in a religious sense, we hope the book's fitness to relieve some long Sunday afternoon is demonstrated.

Published by the same house, and, we shrewdly guess, with intent to improve that same Sunday vacuum for sucking up a moral, is 'A Little Turning Aside,' by Barbara Yechton. Briefly, the moral is that sometimes "the longest way round is the shortest way home," and it is enforced by the story of a girl so intent upon studying art that she allowed no other thought to distract her even for a moment from that aim, treated all her friends with unkind neglect and some with cruel ingratitude, and took no care even of her own health, till her overstrained eyesight gave out. In months of blindness she had time to open her inner eye, and see that form and color were not the only excellence. Needless to say that her sight returned and ambition revived, but not again to exclude all other feelings.

The quaint flavor of German home and school life adds zest to Mary E. Ireland's translation of Emma von Rhoden's 'An Obstinate Maid' (George W. Jacobs & Co.). A little too prim and didactic it might seem for our young America's taste, otherwise. As it is, being really well written and entertaining, and bringing in its moralities so naturally and so consistently with the serious German temper, it well deserves to be popular in translation as in the original, which (according to the title-page) has reached its twenty-first edition.

Kindness at home, and neighborliness, are the lessons taught by Mary E. Leonard's 'Story of the Big Front Door' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). No sort of concealment is made of the moral—it is flaunted, indeed, on the very title-page—yet the story goes on so pleasantly, and tells of so many inimitable good times, that we fancy the more unspoiled and simple-minded class of children will take to it kindly. And even to the more cynical the delights of "doing good" by an evening of jollity over tableaux and charades might prove seductive.

'The Boy Mineral Collectors,' by Jay G. Kelley (Lippincott), displays more knowledge of minerals, both practical and curious, than genius in preparing intellectual food for the young which shall excite the appetite as well as prove easily assimilable. There is also throughout the book a tone of deference to Mammon strangely at variance with the true scientific spirit that should be cultivated in our rising generation.

Samuel E. Sewall: A Memoir. By Nina Moore Tiffany. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898. 12mo, pp. 175.

By his first name, the subject of this brief biography proclaimed himself a descendant of Chief Justice Samuel Sewall, of

honored memory. His middle name, Edmund, as unmistakably betrayed his Quincy blood. His cousin, Samuel Joseph May, bore two Sewall names. Through Elizabeth Walley (Mrs. Tiffany does not mention the interesting fact) Mr. Sewall's line blended with that of Wendell Phillips. The part played by these Boston kinsmen—Sewall, May, Phillips, and Edmund Quincy—in the small beginnings of the anti-slavery enterprise, and in its subsequent mighty propaganda to the end, is known to all readers of the Life of Garrison. Mr. Sewall was the least conspicuous of the four admirable and gifted spirits, and was the shyest and most shrinking; but the great orator had not more fire, nor Garrison himself more constancy, while his liberality was as judicious as it was incessant. As a lawyer of high standing he rendered peculiar services to the cause in drafting anti-slavery measures or in helping rescue the fugitive; and this professional talent he concurrently applied to the amelioration of the laws affecting the status of women.

If Mr. Sewall inherited from Anne Bradstreet his disposition to poetize (privately), so that his first wife could address him as "Dearest and best beloved of poets"; and from the Chief Justice, author of 'The Selling of Joseph,' his anti-slavery instinct and mandate, he borrowed nothing of Samuel Sewall the diarist. Mrs. Tiffany has found her material but scanty—no great store of letters even; and her additions to what was already accessible in print are chiefly in the province of the rights, not of man, but of woman. She enables one to comprehend, however, the mixture of radicalism and conservatism, modesty and courage, womanly tenderness and manly initiative, censure and toleration, which marked this genuine philanthropist. The last-named quality is nowhere better shown than in his relations to Mr. Garrison. To the founding and early support of the *Liberator* Mr. Sewall was indispensable, yet he disliked the name of the paper, and (as his biographer would have done well to remind her readers) proposed for it the *Safety-Lamp*. In the organization of the first immediate-abolition society, Mr. Sewall shrank from the doctrine which was to distinguish sharply the new from the older and ineffective movements. He was on the committee with Garrison to draft its constitution, and his Aunt Robie reported that "Mr. Garrison troubles them considerably, he is so furious." Mr. Sewall would not sign the preamble as agreed upon, yet soon consented to become one of the board of managers. This was not fickleness, but progress in conviction. Mr. Garrison's method was not his, but he desired the same thing, and he respected the pioneer. While he was still generously contributing to the support of the *Liberator*, and when the paper was only four months old, he wrote (April, 1831) deploring the "violent and abusive language which he [the editor] is constantly pouring out, . . . calling all slaveholders thieves and robbers, declaring that no slaveholder can be a Christian, and accusing every one who does not think exactly as he does of wilful blindness and want of principle. . . . Notwithstanding all this, his paper is doing good." Twenty-nine years afterwards, Mr. Sewall criticised himself in even stronger terms for a speech made at a Thaddeus Hyatt meeting in New York in May, 1860:

"Though much that I said is omitted [in *Herald* and *Tribune*], and much inaccurately and imperfectly reported, yet they have taken pains to put in two blackguardisms very exactly, one calling the Senate 'a most contemptible body,' the other calling [Senator] Mason 'a wretch.' These expressions slipped out by accident. I do not believe there is any use in such abuse. More effect would be given to the same charges if expressed in milder terms."

Mr. Sewall did not share the Garrisonian scruples about political action under a pro-slavery Constitution, but neither did he withdraw his support or name or steadfast co-operation from the animating moral enterprise. Still less did he make a fetish of party. He lived to cast his vote for Cleveland against Blaine, and to justify it in a fine letter here reproduced. He was a familiar figure at the State-house in Boston, where he had been Senator in the Free-Soil coalition days. His last appearance there was in the spring of 1888, when he went before the Judiciary Committee with six bills—to equalize the descent of real estate and of personal property between husband and wife, and the custody of minor children; to legalize conveyances, gifts, and contracts between them; to provide for testamentary guardians for wives as well as widows; and to repeal the act limiting the right of married women to dispose of real estate by will. He and his fellow-petitioners had summary leave to withdraw, but the rebuff had no discouragement for him, whose heart was as light as his step. His last words bespoke his cheerful purpose to confront the Legislature again with the same measures at their next session; but (he was in his ninetieth year) death now gave him his well-earned leave to withdraw.

This little volume deserves to find a place in every public library beside the kindred memoirs of Phillips and May; Quincy yet awaits a pious hand. A beautiful portrait of Mr. Sewall in his silvery old age serves as frontispiece.

Second Thoughts of an Idle Fellow. By Jerome K. Jerome. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898.

Elizabeth and her German Garden. Macmillan Co. 1898.

The Bibliotaph, and Other People. By Leon H. Vincent. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

Worldly Ways and Byways. By Eliot Gregory. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

Essays on Work and Culture. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898.

Mr. Jerome is always amusing, but in the little volume before us he is something more than merely amusing; and while he lets his wit and fancy effloresce over the surface of the follies and foibles of the day, we can see that their roots are struck in serious thought and kindly sympathy. Some of his sketches, such as the two women shopping, his "worst honeymoon experience," or the man who had a pony, are admirably dramatic and laughter-provoking. It is just the book to read on a railroad journey, and not entirely forget at the journey's end.

Elizabeth is an Englishwoman married to a German gentleman, who, wearied of five years of city life, prevails upon her husband —whom she somewhat ungraciously calls "the Man of Wrath"—to let her go down to an old, neglected country-seat near the Baltic, and fix things up to suit herself. For one thing, she resolves to have a garden. On this matter of a garden she has plenty of ideas but no experience, and she undertakes to realize them with the assistance of a gardener who has experience but no ideas, except the general idea that Elizabeth's are absurd. Her struggles with the stupidity of man and the perversity of nature are amusingly told. A few successes repay her for many failures, and she gets at last a charming garden, if not the garden she had planned. We have glimpses of odd and not altogether agreeable neighbors and guests, and some admirable descriptions of scenery.

"The Bibliotaph" is the name given to an eccentric who spent his life and income in making vast accumulations of books, which he neither read himself nor allowed others to read. The sketch is taken, we are told, from a real person, known to many; and, no doubt, if we knew him in the flesh, we should find it entertaining. The best paper in the book is a highly appreciative essay on Thomas Hardy, the novelist, whose truly Shaksperian power of character-drawing has scarcely received the general recognition it deserves.

The essays grouped under the title 'Worldly Ways and Byways' originally appeared in the *Evening Post*, and, as they have more than a merely ephemeral interest, the author has done well in collecting them into a volume. The eighteenth-century style in which the book is produced, harmonizes well with the contents; and paper and type are luxuries to the eye.

The "work" which Mr. Mabie treats of is of the artistic or literary sort, and these essays deal with its significance and the conditions favorable to its production. They are of a gently speculative kind, neither dazzling the reader with sudden illumination, nor startling him by any violent irruption into the placid current of ordinary thought.

Cuba and Porto Rico, with the Other Islands of the West Indies. By Robert T. Hill of the United States Geological Survey. The Century Co. 1898.

This book is strongest on the side of its author's special studies. The geological formation and relations of the West Indies are set forth with ample knowledge, and with no little skill in untechnical exposition; with the net result of conveying ideas which must not only be new to the majority of readers, but most fruitful. The conception once formed of an Antillean uplift, breaking into the great continental north and south ranges at their junction in Central America, as Nelson's ships broke the Spanish and French line at Trafalgar; of the islands as only the peaks of submerged mountains, and of the Gulf and the Caribbean as practically land-locked waters—this conception cannot but prove of as fundamental value in coördinating one's knowledge of the countries in question as is the determination of the watersheds in studying topography. On the side of the natural history of the islands, too, their flora and fauna, minerals and climate, Mr. Hill presents a great deal of valuable information.

About one-quarter of the volume is devoted to Cuba, one-tenth to Porto Rico. Jamaica and Santo Domingo come next in space assigned, and each of the remaining islands has its chapter or page, according to its prominence. The historical and political matter is frankly compiled, and not from very extensive sources. Spanish authorities for Cuba shine by their absence. But, except here and there a wrong date, which may be a

misprint, we have detected no inaccuracies of moment in Mr. Hill's narrative, which is necessarily very general. He takes a higher view of the native Cuban than is popular in this country just now; though we observe that he innocently rests, in part at least, his hope that the Cubans will show capacity for self-government on the probability that the most troublesome element of the population has been killed off in the war. More striking for Americans at the present juncture is what Mr. Hill has to say of the status of the negro in the West Indies, so different from what it is in the United States. Our race prejudice against the black man scarcely exists in Cuba, for example. He suffers from class prejudice, like any other humble toiler, but the combined dread and hate which white men in the United States feel for him, solely on account of his color, would not be at all understood in Cuba or Jamaica. One foresees curious anomalies growing out of the enfranchisement of the West Indian negro by a race which dislikes and fears and disfranchises its own negroes.

The Spanish in the book is halting. Several of the illustrations (which are profuse, though of a rather cheap order of process reproduction) have impossible Spanish names given them, and one translation gravely offered is delicious of its kind. It is that of the inscription on the Havana Church of the Merced (so Mr. Hill: it is really on the Cathedral)—

"O Restos é Ymágen del grande Colon!"

which is rendered with a peculiarly appropriate exclamation-point,

"Oh, rest thou, image of the great Colon!"

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, F. J. Poems. Franklin Falls, N. H.: Journal-Transcript Press.
Austey, F. Paleface and Redskin, and Other Stories for Boys and Girls. Appletons. $1.50.
Bacon, Eugenia J. Lyddy: A Tale of the Old South. Continental Publishing Co. $1.25.
Barrie, J. M. The Little Minister. [Maude Adams Edition.] R. H. Russell.
Caird, John. University Sermons. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Carlyle, Thomas. German Romance. 2 vols. Scribners.
Dahlgren, Madeline V. The Woodley Lane Ghost, and Other Stories. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
D'Annunzio, Gabriele. The Child of Pleasure. G. H. Richmond & Son.
Fraser, A. C. Thomas Reid. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Garnett, Richard. Original Poetry by Victor and Cazire. [Percy Bysshe Shelley and Elizabeth Shelley.] John Lane. $1.50.
Gillespie, A. L. The Natural History of Digestion. Scribners. $1.50.
Harkness, Prof. Albert. A Short Latin Grammar. American Book Co. 80c.
Harkness, Prof. Albert. A Complete Latin Grammar. American Book Co. $1.25.
Inman, Col. Henry. A Pioneer from Kentucky. Topeka, Kan.: Crane & Co.
Jordan, Charlotte B. Mother-Song and Child-Song. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Lanier, Sidney. Music and Poetry. Essays. Scribners. $1.50.
Memoirs of Lady Russell and Lady Herbert. 1623-1723. Macmillan. $1.75.
Mr. Dooley in Peace and in War. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.
Pierce, Lucie F. The White Devil of Verde. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Pratt, C. S. Buz-Buz: His Twelve Adventures. Boston: Lothrop Co. 75c.
Robertshaw, James. Merivale; or, Phases of Southern Life. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Rodbertus, Karl. Overproduction and Crises. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Rolfe, J. C., and Dennison, Walter. A Junior Latin Book. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25.
Rose, W. K. With the Greeks in Thessaly. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Sanderson, Edgar. Africa in the Nineteenth Century. Scribners. $1.75.
Savage, Rev. M. J. Our Unitarian Gospel. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.
Schubin, Ossip. The Story of Genius. R. F. Fenno & Co. 75c.
Scott, Sir W. Peveril of the Peak. [Temple Edition.] 3 vols. London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $2.40.
Scribner, F. P. The Love of the Princess Alice. F. T. Neely.
Shakespeare's Heroines Calendar. 1899. R. H. Russell.
Shand, A. I. The War in the Peninsula. Scribners. $1.75.
Sharp, R. F. Makers of Music. Scribners. $1.75.
Spencer, Herbert. The Principles of Biology. Vol. I. Revised and enlarged ed. Appletons. $2.
Todd, Mrs. Mabel L. Corona and Coronet. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Tomlinson, E. T. Two Young Patriots. A Story of Burgoyne's Invasion. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co.
Topographical Surveying. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.
Toynbee, Paget. A Dictionary of Proper Names and Notable Matters in the Works of Dante. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
White, Gleeson, and Strange, E. F. Bell's Cathedral Series. 7 vols. Macmillan. Each, 60c.
Whittaker, J. T. Exiled for Lèse Majesté. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings.
Wilcox, Marrion. A Short History of the War with Spain. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Willets, Gilson. The Triumph of Yankee Doodle. F. T. Neely.
Witte, Karl. Essays on Dante. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Woods, Kate T. A Little New England Maid. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.
Woodward, Rev. G. R. Legends of the Saints. London: Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Zollinger, Gulielma. The Widow O'Callaghan's Boys. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.

The current issue of "The Bookman" praises highly "Tony Drum," by Edwin Pugh, which has recently appeared with ten striking illustrations by William Nicholson and James Pryde. "The Bookman" says: The history of the short and intense life of Tony Drum . . . is all too brief. . . . Mr. Pugh's work is on a simpler scale than in his previous stories and unquestionably has gained in strength. He has made of Tony Drum a living boy; he has got inside of him and made him speak words that are not the less real because they are magnificent, or grotesque, or aged. . . . The dramatic quality of Mr. Pugh's work is evident in the persistence with which scene after scene occurs to the reader when he has finished the book and put it away. . . . Instinct with life and affords us keen enjoyment . . . will win for him an international reputation." (Henry Holt & Co., New York. $1.50.)

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WOMEN & ECONOMICS ($1.50), by Mrs. Charlotte Perkins Stetson, has been upon the market now for about six months. It was published with the idea that it would prove itself to be authoritative in the subject of which it treats,—the book that no one who cared for the subject could afford to miss. In general, it has to do with making women better citizens,—not less useful as housekeepers and cooks, but much more useful as mothers and as social factors. The reception of the book has been even better than we expected. To those who have read it, it has seemed, of all the books of the season, the one indispensable book.

When Hawaii was annexed to the United States, it seemed an appropriate time to try to get out a book that should tell the whole story of American influence in the islands. It was proper that such a book should originate in Boston, where the bond of American connection has for a century, almost, been so strong, whether through politician, missionary, trader, whaler, or adventurer. Mr. Edmund J. Carpenter has written this story in a way that will give his volume, AMERICA IN HAWAII ($1.50), the value of a permanent and authoritative record, interesting to read at the moment and useful to keep in one's library.

The story of the most exciting period of modern Spanish history is told in THE SPANISH REVOLUTION, 1868-75 ($1.50), written by Mr. E. H. Strobel, Bemis Professor of International Law at Harvard. It is not, of course, a "war book." It stands as practically the sole study of the eight eventful years in which Spain tried to show to a world that disbelieved in her, her capacity to govern herself in accordance with the methods of modern liberal politics. The attempt in the main was a failure, but few nobler failures are found in modern history. It is all like a piece of Don Quixote on a great national and liberal basis.

These three books are for sale everywhere.

SMALL, MAYNARD & COMPANY, Boston.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 15, 1895.

The Week.

The treaty has been signed at last, and we are the possessors of Cuba and Porto Rico and of as much of the Philippines as the Spaniards possessed, which is not much. We presume there is little doubt that the Senate will confirm it. Our next business will be to organize a colonial service for the civilization and government of the islands, on the same lines as the army and navy. We trust the optimists will not now drop all attention to this matter and leave it in the hands of the President, while they pass their time loafing on the "glory-crowned heights." We can assure them they will find it far more serious work than rejoicing over victories; demanding more thought and care and conscience. We doubt extremely, also, whether Destiny or Duty has said a word to the President about it. His failure to make any allusion to it in the message last week looks ominous. But we ought not for that reason to keep silent about it. Duty and Destiny often behave very queerly. Their relations with Mr. Hanna are said by the gossips not to be exactly what they should be; but people will talk.

The bill proposed for the government of Hawaii is very much what was expected. It is distinctly a measure for continuing the present oligarchical government of the islands. It is, indeed, so extreme in the powers it bestows upon the Governor of the new Territory that even President Dole, who has stuck at few things during the last five years, takes alarm, fears that the liberties of the people will be as much endangered as they were under the monarchy, and files a protesting minority report. All these things, together with the enlightened provisions of the bill—such as the judicial determination of contested elections—will be at least perfunctorily debated in both houses of Congress, and the public will hear and learn more of them. We hope to hear speedily, however, from the missionary annexationists what they think of the plan for making the lot of the Chinese in Hawaii wretched. Could the tender mercies of the wicked devise greater hardships for them than the bill does which cheerfully contemplates deporting them as "unlawfully in the United States"?

Representative Hull's bill for the enlargement of the army is plainly a great improvement on Gen. Miles's plan for eighty-three regiments, a great staff, and many high-titled officers. There is true economy and military wisdom in Mr. Hull's proposal to increase the number of enlisted men to 145 to the company, but there is no good reason why this figure should not be raised to 300, thus doing away with the fourteen new regiments asked for by Mr. Hull. Two striking features of the bill, which relate directly to our colonial ventures, are the enlargement of the Medical Corps from 902 to nearly 4,000 officers and men, and an increase of 25 per cent. in the pay of all soldiers serving in sub-tropical countries. Like Gen. Miles's bill, which would create at least 2,350 vacancies in the line—more than the West Point of to-day could fill in thirty years—Mr. Hull's bill gives great opportunities for the appointment of volunteers, untrained civilians, and political incompetents; opportunities which have already led to the charge in the Baltimore *Sun* that each member of the House has been offered the appointment of two lieutenants for his vote for the Miles bill. Representative Hull, too, fails to see the crying need of a general staff, and is ready to reward the proved inefficiency of the supply departments by retaining them and by a 40 per cent. increase in the number of their officers.

Senator Morgan discharged all manner of threats against Nicaragua in the report made by him last week as chairman of the committee on the interoceanic canal. He hinted strongly that there was considerable reason for our taking possession of that country and building a canal through it by force and violence. As the charter granted to the Maritime Canal Company provides that it "shall be transferable in no case to governments, or to foreign public Powers," it seemed inevitable that the passage of the pending bill, which provides that the Government of the United States shall acquire control of it by the ownership of its stock, would be an attack upon the sovereignty of Nicaragua, and would bring us into armed collision with her. Senator Morgan seems now to be boldly facing this contingency. He argues that the circumstances of the concession point to the conclusion that it contemplates a charter to be granted to the United States. "In this attitude," says the report, "the duties and the responsibilities of Nicaragua are very high, if they do not even rise to the dignity of solemn pledges and responsibilities to the United States, whose intervention is sought in the chartering of the corporation." Reference is made in the report to a provision in the charter for arbitration of disputed points. But it is evidently no part of the Morgan plan to wait for an arbitration of any kind, since his bill provides for an immediate cancellation of the outstanding stock of the company by an issue of $5,000,000 of bonds to be guaranteed by the United States. This means buying out the present company with $5,000,000, the Government to step into its shoes. In other words, the United States is to buy a disputed charter for $5,000,000 and take the risk of its proving to be valid, in the face of a provision which declares it to be invalid in the hands of any government or foreign public Power. Of course, the $5,000,000 of bonds will have no present value except such as the Government's guarantee gives. The upshot of the whole matter is, that the report contemplates hostilities between the United States and Nicaragua unless the latter surrenders what she has heretofore held to be an essential part of her sovereignty. At this juncture, too, President McKinley sends a message to Congress recommending the building of a canal through Nicaraguan territory to be controlled by us, although we have a treaty with Great Britain which provides that we shall never acquire or exercise such exclusive control. No wonder the message is received with surprise by the Power with which the treaty was made.

Some colleague will soon charge Senator Hoar with being a pessimist, and with having lost faith in God and man, if he keeps on finding fault with the President. He strongly objected last week to Mr. McKinley's practice of sending Senators all over the world on his diplomatic errands. But the historical precedents are strong in favor of the President's power to choose Senators as his agents, if he wishes to. The only reason why it appears a little hard on the Senate just now is, that Mr. McKinley has such a lot of diplomacy on hand. Two Senators had to go to Hawaii and three to Paris, and two had to serve on the Joint High Commission, but this only shows how busy we must be, and how there is work for all, when we take to expanding. What Senator Hoar is really protesting against is a dummy President, who not only asks the Senate to ratify treaties, but to go off and make them in the first place to suit itself. Mr. Hoar thinks this practice tends to tie up the Senate in advance to approval of its own work, and it does look that way. But was he any better suited a few years ago when a vigorous Executive worked independently of the Senate? We think not. In fact, we think some very eloquent periods could be extracted from Senator Hoar's speeches in denunciation of President Cleveland for thinking he could negotiate a treaty or make a diplomatic agreement without taking the Senate into his confidence. In short, we warn

Senator Hoar that he is in danger of becoming a chronic fault-finder and a pessimist, and we know that he dreads that worse than he does political corruption and the greed of empire, for he told the Worcester Christian Endeavorers that he did.

The Tammany control of the New York police as it existed prior to the Lexow investigation is well reëstablished now. All the severest sufferers from that inquiry are now in prominent positions in the force. Devery is Chief, McLaughlin is a Deputy Chief, and Capt. Price is in command of the Tenderloin. McLaughlin got his place on Friday through the unanimous vote of our present bi-partisan board, as all the other old favorites have succeeded in getting theirs. Indeed, it is doubtful if we ever had a more ideal bi-partisan board than the one which is sitting in Mulberry Street now. There are never any wrangles, never any friction even. The two Republican members vote regularly with the two Tammany members to carry the Tammany policy into operation, for reasons which do not appear on the surface, but which are known to be satisfactory to all concerned. As for the force itself, it is now absolutely under the control of the most conspicuous operators of the system which was exposed by the Lexow committee, and if it is not used for the same purposes for which it was used in the old Tammany days, then all these personages have undergone a wonderful moral transformation.

People in Illinois are waiting with considerable curiosity to see what will happen in the proceedings against Gov. Tanner, who was indicted by a county grand jury, a fortnight ago, for failure to do his duty as Executive of the State in connection with the riots at Virden, Ill. The lawyers for the Governor are talking about various technical points which they can make against the indictment, but Tanner himself has a more summary way of disposing of the matter. He announced immediately after the grand jury took its action that "I will kick any sheriff out of my office who comes to arrest me on that indictment"; and he seems to have bulldozed that official, for no attempt has been made to serve the papers. This beats the Quay device, and the Pennsylvania boss must envy the assurance of his fellow-statesman in Illinois.

Matters are taking precisely the course which was to have been expected in the trial of Senator Quay, his son, and the ex-State Treasurer of Pennsylvania for conspiracy in tampering with the funds of the Commonwealth, which the boss had deposited in a bank that he controlled. The defendants are resorting to every possible device to postpone proceedings, and particularly to evade meeting a public prosecutor whom they believe to be in earnest. Before the election, Quay professed to be anxious to meet his accusers at the earliest possible day. "You may be sure," he said in a public statement on the 6th of October, "that I have instructed them [his counsel] to force this case to a speedy trial in a court where both sides can be heard, and after that to expose legally and punish to the utmost the instigators of this proceeding." But everybody regarded this as simply "a good-enough Morgan until after the election." Consequently, it was only what was generally anticipated when early this month Quay's counsel sought a postponement of proceedings on the score of previous engagements, and on Saturday, when this device would no longer serve to prevent the opening of the trial on Monday, invoked a very unusual procedure to secure further delay. This was a successful appeal to the Supreme Court to grant a rule to show cause why a writ of certiorari should not be granted to bring into that court the indictments against Quay, his son, and the ex-State Treasurer, and to stay all proceedings under the indictments in the Court of Quarter Sessions until the further order of the Supreme Court. The hearing under this rule will not take place until the 7th of January.

This device carries the case over beyond the end of the term of District Attorney Graham, whose vigorous prosecution was much feared by the accused, and into the term of a new man who is considered friendly to the boss. Another end secured, which was only less desirable to Quay, is the practical certainty that, whatever decision the Supreme Court may render after the hearing, four weeks hence, the trial of the charges, wherever it takes place, cannot be concluded, even if it is started, before the choice of United States Senator shall be made by the Pennsylvania Legislature. The whole performance thus reeks with "politics" of the basest type. Desperate cases require desperate remedies, and there is always sure to be some technicality by which an indicted boss can help his cause. Since the present Constitution of Pennsylvania was adopted almost twenty-five years ago, there had been before Saturday but three appeals to the Supreme Court like the present one, and all three of these were political cases—the first that of Delamater, whose nomination for Governor Quay, in 1890, forced to the defeat of his party. It is this sort of thing which renders the public very incredulous as to the success of any prosecution against a powerful politician.

The city of Chicago has been considered the chief seat of Philippinedom in this country; that is, the place where the doctrine of "expansion" has the greatest number of adherents and enthusiastic expounders. There the opinion has been most pronounced that the American people are qualified and equipped for taking charge of distant countries with a view to the introduction of good government and social order, and that they are especially fitted to correct the deficiencies of Spain in this particular. No comment upon this spirit of self-confidence could be more withering than the scenes witnessed for several days and nights past in that city, where the respectable inhabitants are almost in a state of anarchy and riot against their own Board of Aldermen. A majority of these functionaries are supposed to be owned by the street-railroad combine in whose interest they are about to vote away franchises for fifty years, in the businesslike manner of putting the proceeds in their own pockets. The way was paved for this job by a bill passed by the last Legislature called the Allen act. This measure must have been put through by the street-railroad combine for cash, since it was fraudulent on its face, and public opinion was vehemently opposed to it. The streets of Chicago have been thronged by excited crowds threatening violence against any Alderman who should vote for the street-railroad grab, and badges and buttons have been circulated everywhere bearing the imprint of a gallows, with an Alderman pendant, and bearing the inscription "Anti-Fifty-Year Steal." How many of the wearers of these decorations, we wonder, believe that the acquisition of the Philippines, Hawaii, etc., will so charge the nation with the sense of responsibility that it will immediately rid itself of its Tanners and its Yerkeses and its boodle Aldermen?

The young State of South Dakota has just entered upon an experiment in a new field, the workings of which will be watched with great interest, both here and abroad. It has decided to apply the principle of the initiative and the referendum. At the recent election an amendment to the State Constitution was adopted, which provides that, whenever 5 per cent. of the voters sign a petition asking for the enactment of a law to carry out a certain principle, the Legislature shall comply at once and submit the statute to the people at a special election; and that, on the petition of the same percentage of voters, any law which the Legislature may have enacted must be submitted to the popular vote, and if a majority then vote against it, it shall not go into effect. This is the most important change in methods of legislation ever adopted by an American State. Yet it is a curious fact that not much over half of the men who felt interest enough as to who should be the Executive for the next two years to go

to the polls, cared sufficiently about a permanent change in the very framework of the government itself to express an opinion one way or the other. While about 74,000 votes were cast for Governor, not many more than 40,000 were recorded for or against the constitutional amendment, which was adopted by a majority of about 7,000. Moreover, one of the leading newspapers says that the question was but little discussed during the campaign, either by public speakers or in the press.

A most extraordinary performance was that of Sir Edward Monson on Tuesday week in Paris, when he, the British Minister, speaking at a dinner of his own countrymen, read a manuscript containing advice of rather a minatory sort to the French Government. Sir Edward's "home is not in the setting sun"; he is not "wild because his b'ars are wild." He is a mature and carefully trained son of convention, a former Fellow of All Souls' College, Oxford. Either he must have been directed to do this by his own chief, or he, too, must also have broken loose, thinking that the Right Hon. "Joe" was having too good a thing. But no matter what the explanation may be, the world may well ask: What is going to be the end of this total disappearance of the regular Minister of Foreign Affairs at a most exciting time, and the assumption of his place by volunteers previously assigned to other duties? It would seem today as if the news of the "Anglo-Saxon alliance" had broken up the diplomatic organization and its machinery in England, and its place had been taken by a band of Rough Riders, each of whom fought for his own hand, and had his private San Juan, where he struck terror, in his own way, to his own Spaniards.

There are judges in Paris. The calm and dignified action of the Court of Cassation in ordering a stay of proceedings in the court-martial of Col. Picquart is a reassertion of the civil power over the military which the best friends of France have been hoping for, and which the best men in France have petitioned for. Fifteen columns in *L'Aurore* were filled with the names of the most distinguished Frenchmen, protesting against the attempt of the military authorities to anticipate the findings of the civil courts in the case of Col. Picquart. Professors by the hundred signed, and professional men of all ranks, and engineers and authors and artists—a tremendous array of Brunetière's despised "intellectuals." Women also figured in the list, among the first being the widow of Michelet, who telegraphed, "Since women are allowed to sign, put my name down quickly." The revolution of opinion, in fact, among those whose opinion is worth considering, appears to be complete. Prof. Seignobos was one of the signers, and when he went to lecture in the Sorbonne, the next day after the publication of the lists, the students rose and cheered him enthusiastically. It was these same students who a few months ago were howling at Zola and frantically cheering for the army.

The true nature of the proceedings against Col. Picquart was laid bare by M. Poincaré in his speech in the Chamber on November 28. He had been a member of the Government in 1894. Yet he declared, and he was at once confirmed by M. Barthou, that he and many of his colleagues knew of the arrest of Dreyfus only through the newspapers. The Ministers of 1894, he added, never heard of any charges except those based on the now thoroughly discredited *bordereau*, and of the alleged confession of Dreyfus they knew nothing whatever. Referring to the prosecution of Col. Picquart for the third time, he affirmed that it was distinctly of the nature of a "reprisal." By this he meant that it was inspired by the rage of the Military Governor of Paris at seeing the prospect of an acquittal of Dreyfus on his new trial, and a vengeful desire to make of Col. Picquart a victim in advance of the decisions of the courts. At this same session of the Chamber, the Prime Minister, M. Dupuy, was called upon to intervene and prevent the outrage, but he deftly threw the responsibility upon the Court of Cassation. If that court asked for the documents in the Picquart case, the Government would furnish them. The Government, he vowed, was one of law, not of arbitrary power, and it would see to it that the decrees of the courts were respected. It seems to have been upon this hint that the judges have now acted. They decide that the Picquart case is not only related to the Dreyfus case, but is identical with it, and that therefore the military authorities must keep hands off till the court has passed upon the whole.

Gen. Kitchener's appeal for $500,000 to found a Gordon Memorial College in Khartum has already brought him substantially the sum desired. He asked for it in person only because he was assured by those to whom he first applied privately, that if he asked for it personally and publicly the money would be forthcoming, otherwise not. The general outline of his scheme, as he gave it to the press, shows at once the aim and the need of the proposed college. The English are now in control of a population of three millions of Sudanese almost absolutely uneducated. It is not simply that they cannot read English or are ignorant of all modern science, but that they have been deliberately left entirely illiterate. The Mahdi set his face like a flint against education of any kind. In this he was well advised—once instruct the people even elementarily, and it would be all up with him. The Khalifa, his successor, used to order his political opponents to go to the Mosque three times a day, so as to keep them out of mischief, but he never sent anybody to school. The result is a condition of besotted ignorance through all that region. As Gen. Kitchener forcibly points out, here is one of the greatest difficulties in the way of successful English rule over the Sudan. The immense work of pacifying and conciliating the native populations and slowly introducing them to Western ideas of civilization almost requires an educated nucleus to work upon. It is planned to secure this by beginning with the sons of the leading sheiks in the various provinces. They will be taught English and given other elementary instruction. Sent back to their homes they will be the best intermediaries between the Government and the people. Starting out in this way, the Gordon College will widen its scope as the needs widen. It is to be absolutely unsectarian—even more than that, for Gen. Kitchener says in his plan, "I need not add that there would be no interference with the religion of the people." All told, the founding of the college will be a stroke of both philanthropy and politics; and Gen. Kitchener's conception of it shows that he knows how to administer as well as conquer.

The French proposal to found colleges of their own in Khartum not unnaturally irritates the English. There is no obvious demand for French in the Sudan. In Cairo and Upper Egypt the case would be different, though even there French is probably no longer the leading foreign language spoken. And if it is pure philanthropy and an unselfish desire to educate savages that animate the French, why should they have hit upon Khartum as the one scene of their labors? Why not go farther back on Major Marchand's route and set up a French college somewhere in the Niger region, where French influence is undisputed? The whole project seems of a piece with the rather headless policy the French have followed in all this Sudan business. Willing to wound and yet afraid to strike, they get themselves the reputation of meddlers, but only prepare for themselves a series of retreats and humiliations. A firm and consistent policy regarding Egypt is something the French Government has not had since the unlucky day it refused English offers of a joint occupation, at the time Alexandria was bombarded and Arabi bundled out of the country and order restored. The question of the mixed tribunals, which will soon come on in an acute form, will afford the French another chance to make a spectacle of themselves, which it will be strange if they fail to seize.

SECRETARY GAGE ON THE CURRENCY.

Secretary Gage's report, as regards the subject of currency and banking, will be received with great satisfaction by all who have taken part, in late years, in the movement for currency reform. It will also have a most healing influence in the rural communities of the West and South, where the greatest amount of prejudice has heretofore prevailed against the national banks and, indeed, against all banks. This prejudice has been the great stumbling-block in the way of any kind of reform. It has proceeded from the high rates of interest prevailing in the country districts, and the fact that money in those parts of the country is hardest to get hold of at the very time when the farmer wants it most. The farmer wants to borrow between seedtime and harvest. He learns that the money in the local banks has been sent to New York, where it is drawing only 2 per cent. interest, and that he cannot get it on real-estate security at any price. If he gets it at all, it is only through some local intermediary, who borrows it at the bank on his personal security at 6 or 7 per cent., and then lends it to the farmer on real-estate security at 10 or 12 per cent. The farmer is naturally furious; he joins the Populists and demands the free coinage of silver, or the sub-treasury system, or the abolition of the national banks.

Secretary Gage gives a clear answer to all these complaints, showing how the jerky movements of our currency are due to the inflexible system of Government-paper issues, and how these evils are avoided in Canada and other countries by a less rigid system of bank issues, which tends to equalize the rates of interest between the rural communities and the towns and cities. This exposition, so much needed from one in authority and so clearly put before the reader, comes in the very nick of time, when the agricultural classes are enjoying a season of comparative prosperity and are therefore in a receptive state of mind. It serves to introduce the consideration of those means of reform to which the Secretary has yielded his assent after giving the most careful attention to the various plans advanced. It is much to his credit, as a conservative statesman and a prudent banker, that he has only slowly come to entertain the opinion that banknote issues may be based in part upon something else than bond security deposited with the Government.

"Can a banknote currency be established which will be adequate, economical, and safe and thus serve in a better way than is now served the public need?" This is the question that Mr. Gage puts to himself and to Congress and the public. He points to the example of Canada and to those of other countries where the Government does not undertake to supply a currency directly to the people. As regards the Canadian system, he observes that, "with power to issue notes as profitable employment for their use in productive industry can be found, the power has never been overtaxed or exhausted. The rates of interest have varied but little between the richer provinces of Ontario or Quebec and the sparsely settled districts of Manitoba. The terms of interest are substantially as favorable to the farmer of the West as to the merchant of the metropolis." If this system can be applied to the United States—if it can work out the same results here as there—the money question will be settled *ipso facto*. It will drop out of politics as completely as old Federalism has dropped out. Mr. Gage points out differences between our conditions and those of Canada, and especially the fact that in the latter country they have a few banks with large capital and many branches (a reproduction of the Scotch system on this continent), while we have many banks with small capital not responsible for each other. He concludes, however, that banknotes may be made perfectly secure here by the safety-fund system, *i. e.*, without bond security and also without making the notes a first lien on the assets of the banks; and he commends the bill of the House banking and currency committee to the early and earnest consideration of Congress. Thus the Secretary ranges himself on the side of the Indianapolis Currency Commission and of the House committee, which has adopted the plan of the commission with some variations. It is a long step towards the passage of that bill, or of some bill, that the authority of the Department goes with it.

Now the question of greatest moment is whether we are to have an extra session of Congress in the spring of 1899 to consider and pass the pending bill, or some modification of it. Everything will depend upon the business men of the country. If they want an extra session for this purpose, they can have it by pushing for it. The politicians will generally be against it, not because they are opposed to the measure itself, but because they are opposed to any disturbance of the *status quo*. Their theory is that you must never legislate on the currency when times are good, lest you give the opposite party something out of which political capital can be made; and you must never legislate when times are bad, lest the enemy charge that you are making them worse. So, with them the time never comes for currency reform except in the throes and agonies of a panic.

Not the least interesting part of the Secretary's report is that which relates to coins and coinage. Under this head we have been accustomed to look for a chapter of views and recommendations on the subject of silver. We have usually found reflected in the Secretary's report some part of the great controversy raging in the political field on "the crime of 1873," or possibly some remarks on the usefulness or uselessness of another international conference to promote bimetallism. In the present report we find nothing but the barest array of statistical information. The deadness of the silver issue is betokened by the dumbness of the report on that subject, and it is this change which makes it interesting. We read without a shock or a comment that the market ratio of gold to silver during the year has been 1 to 35.84. This great divergence has led some of the silverites to make a slight concession to popular prejudice. We have seen in one or two of their organs a hint that it might be well to go in for the ratio of 20 to 1. The Secretary of the Treasury, however, does not discuss that question at all. The only questions relating to coinage that he does discuss are of a technical character involving no political issues. One of these, of some importance, relates to our law which requires the recoining of all foreign gold coins that come to our assay offices. This, as Secretary Gage shows, is a waste of time, labor, and money. It would be an advantage and a saving to have foreign coins on hand when it becomes necessary to export gold, and, meanwhile, the metal is just as safe in the form of sovereigns as in the form of eagles or of bars.

The dumbness of the Secretary on the silver question corresponds, as we have said, to the deadness of that issue in politics. The deadness of the silver issue is partly the cause and partly the effect of the revival of business in the country, and especially in the West, where silverism has hitherto been most rampant. That the accumulation of capital now taking place in the United States is rapid and continuous, is shown by the movement of American capital into foreign money markets. This movement, in the shape of investment in sterling exchange, has been very marked of late, and has been on so large a scale that our bankers are interested to discourage the importation of gold. The *Financial Chronicle* estimates the amount of "long sterling" carried here at the present time at $40,000,000 to $50,000,000. Long sterling means money loaned here but invested on call in London, Berlin, etc. It is so invested because it brings a better return abroad than at home. Investments of a more permanent character are taking place abroad constantly. The funds of our life-insurance companies are now invested in foreign loans to some extent, and this movement will undoubtedly increase. We are following in the steps of Great Britain in this particular, and we shall soon be her principal competitor in the money markets of the less-advanced countries of the world. We shall not need any international banks

chartered at Washington to accomplish this result. Such institutions would be harmless, perhaps, but the work they aim to do will be done quite as well by the houses already engaged in it without any high-sounding title.

This invasion of foreign markets by American capital is the reflection at the money centres of the prosperity of the agricultural districts of the West. Every day we hear the same tale of mortgages paid off and cancelled, and of farmers seeking to lend money instead of borrowing. The rate of interest on farm mortgages is falling. Eastern savings banks, colleges and universities, and other institutions, having money invested in that class of securities, find their income growing smaller year by year. Ten years ago they reckoned upon a return of 7 per cent. on this class of securities; now they cannot get 6. As old loans mature they are paid off, and the investors consider themselves lucky if they can get 5 per cent. on new loans with equally good security. The tendency of profits to a minimum, an old maxim in political economy, is having ample illustration. All business which is subject to competition is done on a very small margin. Yet this narrowing of profits is accompanied by a great multiplication and abundance of goods, and this is a distinct advantage to mankind.

THE OPPORTUNITY IN CUBA.

The appointment of Major-Gen. William Ludlow, United States Volunteers, as Military and Civil Governor of the city of Havana is heartily to be commended. He is a West Point man and a Lieutenant-Colonel in the regular army. His assignment to this new and important duty is not a reward for services in the war, which were not particularly brilliant, we believe, but is due to his special aptitude for the special work in hand. Gen. Ludlow served at one time as one of the Commissioners for the District of Columbia. As such he gained a practical acquaintance with the sanitary and engineering problems connected with the administration of a great city. His success in Washington was undisputed. He also has an excellent reputation as an engineer. It was his honest and able report on the Nicaragua Canal routes and estimates that punctured the schemes of the Maritime Company last year. Gen. Ludlow will thus go to his new post with a gratifying record of achievement in line with the peculiar and arduous duties that await him. His appointment argues well for the desire of the President to give Cuba as good a government as is possible during our military occupation of the island.

The opportunity before Gen. Ludlow is one to appeal strongly both to his patriotic and his professional instincts. As chief in command—practically in absolute command—of the chief city of the island, his work will be under daily and more searching observation than that of any other man in Cuba. Not only Cubans, not only Spaniards, but the foreign colony, the foreign newspaper correspondents will scrutinize his administration with jealous watchfulness, and will make it the touchstone of American capacity and good faith in dealing with Cuba. It will be for Gen. Ludlow to do in Havana what Gen. Wood has done in Santiago—show the world that our trained men need not shrink from comparison with the trained men of England or Germany in wise and incorruptible administration of colonial government. There is a chance here for Gen. Ludlow to win more glory for his country than he possibly could have done by killing a thousand Spaniards at El Caney.

The professional opportunity of a sanitary engineer in charge of the city of Havana is almost unequalled. The work to be done there may be described in a word as that of converting a city of the sixteenth century into a modern city. Except for its good water-supply, recently introduced, Havana may be said to be without any of the elementary hygienic equipment of an up-to-date municipality. It is badly sewered, badly paved, badly cleaned. Its harbor is foul beyond words. Docks scarcely exist. Transportation is antiquated and inadequate. The slate is clean for Gen. Ludlow to write what he will upon it, and, unless we are deceived in the man, he will be able to write upon it such a betterment in municipal conditions that Havana will scarcely know itself. Under British governing skill, Kingston ceased to be the sink and fever pest-hole it had been for years, and a similar transformation may easily be brought about in Havana.

The President is happy in having officers of the army to call upon for these first essays in governing colonies, not simply because they are a trained and professional class of men. This of itself is, of course, the main consideration. It is a splendid answer to have ready for the swarming office-seekers that the government of our new possessions is a military government, and that, therefore, much as a kind-hearted President would like to oblige the boys and the bosses, the appointments must go to army officers. But there is the added advantage that the military government solves in the act one of the toughest problems we have to face in the whole matter of colonial administration. This is the pecuniary problem. How are we going to get Congress to vote pay enough for the important posts in order to secure able men to fill them? The difficulty has already been pointed out by friendly English critics. The *Spectator* warns us that we cannot command high talent without paying for it. Mr. Chamberlain, in his *Scribner's* article, drew lessons for us in this regard from British experience. Well, for the time at least, the difficulty is met by appointing regular army officers of higher volunteer rank. Thus, Gen. Ludlow, as we understand it, will draw his pay of $3,000 as Lieutenant-Colonel of the regular army, and in addition his pay of $7,500 as Major-General of Volunteers. It is certain that $10,500 is none too large a salary for the Military and Civil Governor of Havana, yet it may be doubted if Congress would now vote such a sum for a civilian appointee.

It is not alone in Havana or Santiago that the American opportunity is great. The whole island of Cuba offers a field for administrative improvement so broad and plain that mere honesty and common sense will be enough to work in it a transformation that will seem almost magical to the inhabitants. The weakest and silliest government could not altogether fail in Cuba; a moderately wise and strong one can make the wilderness blossom like the rose. Taxation has been fairly Turkish in its vexatious nature and crushing weight. It will be possible to remove half this load at once, and still have more money to spend for the public benefit than Cuba has ever enjoyed. The Spanish left the natives in the grossest illiteracy, with scarcely a pretence of a public-school system. There is not a savings bank in all Cuba, nor a bank of any kind where a laboring man can deposit his earnings on interest. There is, we believe, scarcely one public library, in our sense of the word. These and the other countless signs of Spanish governmental neglect but serve to accentuate the present American opportunity and the present American duty. If the President will keep on giving us men like Gen. Wood and Gen. Ludlow, we may hope for the winning of renown in civil administration which America and Americans are just now more in need of than of any amount of military glory.

A SUPREME TEST.

It is doubtless unnecessary to tell Col. Roosevelt that the most momentous appointment to office that he will have to make as Governor will be that of a successor to Aldridge as Superintendent of Public Works. That is the one great political office within his gift upon which the public attention is concentrated. The dominating issue of the campaign which resulted in his election was the canal scandal, and the chief pledge which he made from the stump was to reform utterly the management which had led to that scandal. One of his first utterances after election was a renewal of this pledge, and a demand upon the regular organization or machine of his party to sustain him in that work. The immediate response of the machine was the presentation of Francis Hendricks of Syracuse as the "organization's candidate" for Aldridge's place. Daily since

this presentation was first made, the organization has pressed the choice of Mr. Hendricks upon our next Governor with steadily increasing insistence.

The result of this course by the organization has been to put it in the attitude of dictating the use which the Governor must make of his appointing power in regard to the most important political office that he will have to fill. If he shall decide to appoint Mr. Hendricks, the general verdict upon him will be that he has yielded to the machine at the very beginning of his administration, obeying the wishes of the boss rather than exercising his own free will. The conduct of the organization leaders has made this interpretation inevitable. They have pressed their candidate openly, if not defiantly, and have not chosen, as they might easily have done, to press him privately upon the Governor-elect. They have raised the issue with apparent deliberation, and they can find no fault with Col. Roosevelt if he shall decide to part company with them upon it.

So far as Mr. Hendricks personally is concerned, it is to be said of him that he is a man of excellent character and unblemished public record, but that he is also a man who has never opposed the organization, and has been able always to maintain not only friendly but cordial relations with its boss. There is nothing in his career which gives assurance that he would, as a public official, take a position of open hostility to the wrongdoers of his own party. He has always been a faithful "organization man," a fact which is testified to by his unanimous selection by the organization as its candidate for this most important office. In this respect it must be conceded by any fair-minded person that he has not the qualifications which are absolutely essential, under present conditions, for the satisfactory administration of the Public Works Department. What is wanted there first of all is a man who not only is not a friend of the organization, but is capable, if the cause of honest government shall require it, of becoming its implacable enemy.

The *Tribune* put the matter in the right light on Monday when it said that it will not suffice for the new Governor to appoint as Superintendent a man who will punish positive wrongdoing, but will at the same time "perpetuate the political features of a system under which the wrongdoing occurred, so far as they can be of use to the party and are not distinctly dishonest." That is precisely the point. No man can read the evidence of the Canal Investigating Commission and escape the conviction that Aldridge was using his position for the benefit of the "organization," that he wasted the money of the State in the interest of politics, that between him and the contractors there was a complete understanding, and that if there was not a "divvy" system of some kind in operation between him and the contractors, who were able to get as much money as they desired out of the State, then Aldridge is a far less astute politician than he has credit of being. It should be borne in mind that many of these contracts are still running, that the canal improvement is only half completed, that more money must be appropriated and expended, and that it is consequently of great moment to the organization that the present contractors be allowed to continue in charge of the work.

Under these conditions there is only one sort of candidate who is really fit for the position of Superintendent of Public Works, and that is a man who has no relations whatever with the organization. He should be an expert, also, having either engineering knowledge or special knowledge of canal work. The one man who is fundamentally and irreparably unfit for the position is the man, no matter how excellent his personal character, who is chosen by the organization as its candidate for it, and is chosen because he has never done anything to incur the disapproval of the organization. What the *Tribune* says on this point concurs entirely with our own views:

> "It will not do for the party to seek to substitute for Superintendent Aldridge one who believes in the same theory of political spoils, however firm his personal honesty. A total change is needed. If the Republicans are to have a credit balance with the voters two years hence, the Department of Public Works must be taken hold of in the same spirit that Col. Waring took hold of the Street-Cleaning Department in this city, and Comptroller Roberts took hold of the finances and the enforcement of the civil-service laws of the State."

Such men can be found, and several have been proposed already. One of them is George Clinton of Buffalo, who was the chairman of the Canal Investigating Commission. Another is Edward P. North of this city, and still another is George S. Greene, jr., formerly Chief Engineer of the Dock Department. There are doubtless others. It is not our purpose or desire to advocate the selection of any particular candidate. We mention these as samples of the type to which Gov. Roosevelt should turn if he wishes to live up to his own standard as a civil-service reformer, and to fulfil to the letter his campaign pledges. If he appoints some man of this type, the people of the State will know at the outset of his administration that they have a free man for Governor, as well as one who is honest and fearless.

LETTERS AND PUBLIC LIFE.

Lord Rosebery has a distinct and happy talent for the occasional address; and in his inaugural address before the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution a few nights ago, he was most ingenious and interesting. Partly by way of tribute to his predecessor in the presidential office, Mr. Gladstone, he was led to discourse of literary statesmen. With ample knowledge, yet with lightest touch and unfailing grace, he ran over the list of English Prime Ministers since the beginning of the last century, and assigned each his place as a lover of books and letters, or the reverse. Naturally he came out strongest on the statesmen of his own day and acquaintance. He spoke of being as a child in Hatfield House, and seeing in the library "a tall, thin figure carrying a huge volume." The housekeeper said, "That is Lord Robert Cecil." It was "a bookish figure," added Lord Rosebery, "then outside politics, though now Prime Minister." But it was to Mr. Gladstone that the speaker gave the palm as the most bookish of English Prime Ministers during the past two hundred years. This was his distinction, not in virtue of being the most literary, or even the most learned, but for uniting in his own person an enthusiasm for collecting books and a passion for reading them such as no other eminent English statesman has displayed in combination for two centuries. Of what other great Minister could it have been said that he was ready at a minute's notice to give six lectures on Homer and six more on Dante, with the assurance that, at the end, it would be the audience, and not he, that was tired?

The apparent incompatibility between bookishness and statesmanship Lord Rosebery did not fail to remark upon. He dwelt feelingly, as if from poignant experience, upon the way the public man is torn from the life of the library even when it is dear to him:

> "He lives in the public eye, almost in the public grasp. Out of doors there is the reporter; in the seclusion of his home there is the interviewer. Both presumably are hungry to receive the ideas as they pass from his capacious brain, though some go so far as to declare that the interviewer and the reporter are less the seekers than the sought. Alert, bustling, visible, deriving even a certain popularity from the fact of being known by sight, speaking to his engagements whether he has anything to say or whether he has not, appearing on his platform whether he be brisk and well or sick and sorry, like an actor, only that he has to find his own words, bringing together as well as may be all sorts and conditions of men, with one eye apparently on the political weather and the other (it is to be hoped) on his political conscience—a hurricane of a life, the essential quality of which is publicity."

Americans may perhaps avail themselves in a peculiar degree of this excuse, as they run over the rather meagre roll of their literary statesmen, living or dead. Our Presidents, as a whole, would make but a sorry show when compared with the brilliant names on Lord Rosebery's list. Jefferson was doubtless the most bookish man of them all, at any rate in the collector's sense. Yet Ticknor, with his young bibliographical enthusiasm, could not have spent such delightful days as he did at Monticello in company with a mere collector. Suppose it were either of our living ex-Presidents, instead of Jefferson, that an

ardent bookman like Ticknor was visiting. Mr. Harrison was confessedly a devotee rather of markets than of maxims, and Mr. Cleveland's charm was never that of exquisite literary tastes or graces. Our present Executive has never, we believe, been known to quote any author except J. G. Holland, "a gifted songstress" of Mahoning Valley, and "the historians of China."

As we come down in the scale of rank of our public men we distinctly go up in the literary scale. Not a few of our ministers and consuls in foreign countries have been among our leading bookmen. Irving did not live in Spain without illuminating Spanish history, and in the person of Lowell we sent to Madrid a man who knew more about Spanish literature than any Spanish official with whom he had dealings. Hawthorne and Donald G. Mitchell and Howells and Col. Hay were what we may call literary appointees to office, even if they did not owe their places to their literary gifts. Bancroft and Everett and Motley and Marsh are names that argue the compatibility of studious lives with public service.

It is only fair, in fingering over our short bead-roll of bookish statesmen (we do not pretend to have named them all), to remember the intense political prejudice which long existed against "d—d literary fellers" in public life. Learning was a distinct handicap in seeking the suffrages of the people. Possession of a large private library would, we think, have been fatal to the chances of any Presidential candidate between Van Buren and Hayes. If it had been a model of his library, instead of his log cabin, that the elder Harrison had displayed as a bid for votes, he would no doubt have been disastrously beaten. Besides, did he not have Webster at hand to kill off fourteen of the Roman proconsuls that he put into the first draft of his inaugural address? It is not the still air of delightful studies, but the plough, which our typical statesmen have reluctantly forsaken at the call of their countrymen. The historic figures are Silas Wright in his cabbage patch, and Whitelaw Reid pensive and melancholy by moonlight in his garden at Ophir Farm.

We are glad to observe, however, a change in public sentiment on this question, which promises fine things for the union of letters and statesmanship in our future. Literary tastes are becoming a thing of which our public men are not wholly ashamed, and which they need not so carefully and successfully conceal as they have done in the past. Ink-stains may soon be as adequate credentials for office as calloused hands once were. We are encouraged to hope this by noticing two powerful incentives which politicians have lately found to drive them to literary pursuits. One was illustrated in the person of Mr. Blaine as it is also in that of Mr. Bryan. It is the solace which letters offer to a defeated Presidential candidate, who yet is uncommonly anxious to try his luck again. Mr. Blaine's famous "history," like Mr. Bryan's, shows what our literature may yet gain from the labors of politicians who ostentatiously bury their disappointment in a library, one of the necessary furnishings of which is a long-distance telephone, in good working order, ready for use in case the people should once more imperiously summon forth the absorbed student. The other reason why literature may well gain from its cultivation by politicians is that some of them have found out how fine a shield literary activity is for political intriguing. For every caucus packed, write an essay on the need of preserving the purity of the English language. For every cause betrayed, every promise broken, every demagogic resolution offered, produce a "history," or make a speech on civil-service reform, and your character as a literary statesman is established. We "ain't a namin' no names," but, as Thackeray politely said of the young lady, "if I had such a daughter, I should have a bore for a daughter," so we say, if Massachusetts were to set out to have a literary junior Senator, this would be the kind of junior literary Senator she would have.

LITHOGRAPHY IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, November 26, 1898.

The authorities at South Kensington Museum have scored a distinct success with their exhibition of lithographs, opened the other day in the miserable temporary buildings on the other side of Exhibition Road, where the national portraits used to be, and where a large part of South Kensington's collection still awaits the shelter of a decent gallery. Of the several centenary exhibitions, it is the only one given in the actual anniversary year of the invention of the art. It is even more amusing and comprehensive than was expected or thought possible; and it contains, as its chief interest, the first complete collection of English lithographs, from the prints published in the beginning of the century to those made but yesterday, ever exhibited or attempted to be exhibited. Naturally, then, the English is the most important section. It is really extraordinary how little hitherto has been known of the history of lithography in England. The Frenchmen who have written about the art have been content to study it at home, where, indeed, the material is inexhaustible, and no Englishman, apparently, has cared sufficiently to look into the matter and find out what happened in the interval that elapsed between the coming of Senefelder to London in 1801, when he took out his patent, and the period when Prout and Harding and Lane were publishing the prints and portfolios which, together with the work of Bonington, are the great glory of English lithography. You might imagine that absolutely no attention had been paid to Senefelder's invention until of a sudden, in 1819, Ackermann, a printseller in the Strand, undertook to launch the English translation of Senefelder's book ('A Complete Course of Lithography'), and, probably from no disinterested motive, joined with Hullmandel, a lithographic printer, in bringing both the book and the invention to the notice of the Society of Arts.

And yet, as the collection at South Kensington reveals, some slight attention had been paid to the matter, and several efforts made to turn Senefelder's new method of printing into a profitable investment for every one concerned save himself. Senefelder, though he gave a detailed account of his troubles in Vienna, never told exactly how Philip André, his English partner, got rid of him. But get rid of him André did, and Senefelder's name never appears in any early English enterprise. It comes, no doubt, as a surprise to learn that while Frederick André in Offenbach was still busy printing music, and only a very few and very insignificant artistic attempts had been made in Munich, and the first lithographic houses in Paris were having no success whatever, Philip André had the intelligence and sufficient appreciation of the artistic possibilities of lithography (or polyautography, which was his name for it) to seek at once the patronage and coöperation of artists. No sooner was Senefelder safely out of the way than André must have begun to haunt the studios of London, carefully selecting the most influential. For by 1803 he was publishing his 'Specimens of Polyautography,' and among the eleven contributors were Benjamin West, Fuseli, Barry, and Stothard, who, whatever we may think of them now, were then considered the most distinguished and popular artists of the day. When you look at their work, you can understand why, despite their names, the publication excited no special enthusiasm. At that date André could not have realized the resources of the art he was exploiting, and the artists were either too indifferent or too bewildered by the new medium to get much out of it. Fuseli and West alone tried the chalk. The other prints are in pen-and-ink, and have no lithographic quality, and the designs (with the exception of the figure of a woman by Stothard and the study of cavalry in action by a Sir R. K. Porter) are so absolutely commonplace that, were it not for its great historic value, André's portfolio would deserve to remain forgotten as it has been for almost a century.

Another edition of the same 'Specimens' was issued in 1806, and, according to the title (possibly incorrect) given to a collection of lithographs at South Kensington, there may have been a Polyautographic Society that brought out a similar portfolio on a larger scale. To judge from many of these and also from the curious collection in the Print Room at the British Museum, it is evident that André and his successors—as Lasteyrie and Engelmann did at a later date in France—made an appeal to amateurs as well as to artists. It meant, in a way, good business, for almost all the early English lithographic printers were careful to advertise their charge for attending Ladies and Gentlemen and furnishing them with stones and chalk and ink in their own houses. But, notwithstanding their many and persistent efforts, nothing of importance was accomplished. You look through the first ninety prints on the walls at South Kensington, and you discover none with the least artistic merit, except the two or three I have men-

tioned and a stray example of Downman or Flaxman. The singular part of it is that, though a much more promising beginning was made in England than in France, lithography in London was already falling into neglect just when, with the houses of Lasteyrie and Engelmann and Delpech, it was, in Paris, at the dawn of its greatness and popularity.

The publication of Senefelder's 'Complete Course of Lithography' in 1819, and the rather tardy tribute to him of a gold medal awarded by the Society of Arts in the same year, the first official recognition accorded to him in England, helped to reawaken and stimulate the interest of artists and the public. Then the visit to this country of men like Géricault and Delacroix, Lami and Monnier, must have had its effect, though it brought so little return to them personally that it was in London Géricault, in despair, tried to kill himself. But still their lithographs and other French lithographs got to be known. Most of the French albums were republished by English houses. Sometimes, as in the case of Carle Vernet, the Frenchman's work was copied by the English draughtsman without giving him the slightest credit, and it was not long before Baron Taylor was commissioning English artists and English printers to work for his 'Voyages Pittoresques,' that most colossal of all publications illustrated by lithography, the first volume of which appeared in 1820. It was impossible, under the circumstances, for the public or artistic indifference to continue, and a few men were found to devote themselves almost entirely to the art.

True, it was never in general favor among artists in London as in Paris. The conditions were so different. In France the young men who were drinking out of skulls, and wearing red waistcoats, and doing everything that was fantastic and outrageous in order to achieve and proclaim their independence as artists, were only too ready to welcome a new departure or a new medium of any kind. But the English painter, in the first half of the century, was the most veritable toady that ever lived, and would have done anything rather than risk, with an unauthorized experiment, the disapprobation of his rich and noble patrons. The very cheapness of lithography was against it in a country where there was an Academy of Arts that could not countenance any medium less costly than oils or marble, or occasionally (by excess of condescension) the steel of the engraver. Only Lane, among all the distinguished English lithographers, was ever even an associate of the Academy; and as he was a painter of ephemeral note, his lithography had probably nothing to do with his election. At South Kensington, Bonington is included with these distinguished English lithographers, though, of course, his work was done in France, originally for French publishers, much of it, however, being afterwards republished in England. His "Gros-Horloge à Rouen," considered his masterpiece by all the authorities who have written about him, is not here, but there is a long series of his architectural and landscape studies in Normandy and Scotland to confirm his claim as a draughtsman of distinction and a master of lithography. He was ever the artist, whether he worked with Senefelder's greasy chalk or with oils or water colors. Prout, too, is seen to every advantage; but, accomplished as he was, when he is hung with Bonington, you cannot but wonder at Mr. Ruskin's excessive praise. He could draw, but seldom without certain mannerisms that in the end become tedious. The most notable of his prints now on exhibition is probably one made by him on paper, and transferred to stone, for the English edition of Senefelder's book, as an example of a method most people suppose to be essentially modern, though it is as old as the art of lithography. For it is a fact too apt to be ignored, that it was by his use of transfer paper that Senefelder finally chanced upon his one great discovery, surface or chemical printing.

The Hardings are delightful. Indeed, Harding is a lithographer who deserves to be "resurrected"; and as the South Kensington show proves, there was no one in England who could compete with him in the method (called lithotint) of washing on the stone. Then come the charming portraits by Lane, only less dainty than Devéria's; pretty, without ever degenerating into the Book of Beauty or Keepsake prettiness so much in vogue in his day. He reproduced on the stone many of the celebrated portraits of his contemporaries, while it is quite wonderful how, in his copies of Gainsborough's sketches, he retained the feeling, the freshness, the technique of the originals. I have not the space to do more than refer to the work of Cattermole and Nash and Frederick Tayler and others of the group. Louis Haghe, for long the most prominent of all, became so skilful as a lithographer that gradually the artist in him disappeared; and as you pass from one to the other of his prints you understand, better than ever before, that it was but a mere step downwards from him to the commercial lithographer, in whose hands the art virtually disappeared in England, until Mr. Whistler, one day, about twenty years ago, reminded artists that, with the stone and lithographic chalk, another sympathetic method of expression was at their disposal. The modern work, due so largely to his initiative, is by no means slighted at South Kensington, but I have dwelt rather upon the early work, since it is the excellent opportunity for its study now afforded that is the great feature of the collection.

I ought to add that the French and German sections, if not so complete, are still very fairly representative. Far greater justice is done to French lithographers than was shown to English lithographers in the Paris exhibition of 1895. If none of the more famous early French prints are here, with the exception of Baron Lejeune's "Cossack," lent by Mr. Frederick Keppel of New York, on the other hand, from that time onward, the gaps are not many. Perhaps the caricaturists of *La Caricature* and *Le Charivari*, as a group, are not so much in evidence as they might be, and the more celebrated Daumier's "La Rue Transnonain" and "Le Ventre Législatif," for instance, are missing, while one looks in vain for the very few but very beautiful prints of a painter like Diaz. Still, there are characteristic examples of Daumier and Gavarni in sufficient number to give some idea of the work of the two masters among the many clever men who gathered about Philipon. The development of the Napoleonic legend can be followed in the long and spirited series by Horace Vernet, Charlet, and Raffet, and Raffet's three great prints, "La Revue Nocturne," "Le Réveil," and "Ils grognaient et le suivaient toujours," fortunately, have a place. Géricault, though one misses his "Boxers," can be reasonably well studied, thanks chiefly to Mr. Atherton Curtis. And the Romanticists, the *lithographes coloristes*, as M. Beraldi calls them, appear in full force, from Goya—really their inspiration, for, though a Spaniard, he had more influence in France than Spain—and Isabey, perhaps the greatest of all the Frenchmen, and Delacroix, whose superb "Lion de l'Atlas" and "Tigre Royal," as well as several of the Isabeys, are also sent by Mr. Curtis; to Achille Devéria and Gigoux, with their portraits, and Célestin Nanteuil, whose name (to be honest) is more suggestive than his work; and Louis Boulanger, whose tremendous reputation of a day has faded into a mere memory of a youthfully flamboyant episode; and Paul Huet, and Decamps, whose lithographs were not limited to his caricatures for Philipon's papers; and too many more to be mentioned, down to Hervier and Manet, who may be said to have bridged over the interval between the old school and the new, between the great period of lithography and the modern renaissance, also amply illustrated. Indeed, the collection of modern French work is surprisingly good. I do not remember to have seen anywhere such a large and impressive array of M. Fantin Latour's musical fantasies or interpretations on stone of the music he loves.

It is the same with the German section. The earliest prints of all may necessarily be omitted, since only rare examples are to be found outside of the Munich and Paris royal or national collections. But of the work that followed, the copies of Old Masters for the great Munich and Dresden Galleries, the examples are many, and few mezzotints are richer and more full of color, and at once stronger and more delicate in tone, than the lithographs of Strixner, Piloty, and Hanfstängl, at their very best. At first, the original lithographer in Germany was the exception. Menzel for many years stood alone. It is to be regretted, therefore, that only two of his prints are here, though in a case in an adjoining room his 'Versuche auf Stein mit Pinsel und Schabeisen,' technically one of his most important series, can be seen. The modern German work was so well shown at Düsseldorf a year ago, that it is useless to repeat what was said about it then.

When one turns to other countries, if they seem to make less display, it is simply because, until within the last few years, almost all the great work was done in France and Germany and England. There were, of course, exceptions. Spain produced Goya, more appropriately hung with the Frenchmen, whose leader he was, and from Spain also came one of the most ambitious and successful of the galleries or collections of lithographs after the Masters. There are copies of Velasquez by Di Craene and Lopez that seem quite marvellous when it is remembered that copyists at that time worked without the aid of photography. Switzerland boasts Alexandre Calame, but it is only of late that Holland and Belgium have achieved any distinction in lithography; while the record of Italy is more meagre still. In America, as I think was well demonstrated by the Grolier Club Exhibition, the development of lithography was entirely commercial, though for commercial firms excellent artists very often worked at the beginning of their career; nor has the revival, so active in England and on

the Continent, as yet spread across the Atlantic. But, at least, South Kensington shows an example of Sarony's work, a lithograph of a negro minstrel, not without humor and genuine merit of a kind; also some of the occasional experiments recently made in New York. There are numerous lithographs, to be sure, made by American artists who live and work in London and Paris, but these can hardly be said to point to renewed interest or activity in New York, or Boston, or Philadelphia.

It has been impossible to do more than give a general idea of the scope and quality of the South Kensington exhibition. But I hope I have said enough to show that it is not only the largest, but the most complete and successful yet organized. Its catalogue, too, is a model of what a catalogue should be; not altogether as helpful as the one issued by the Grolier Club, but had its compilers attempted to enter into the same details, a bulky and unwieldy volume must have been the result. The exhibition being what it is, I think it highly instructive to contrast the indifference with which it has been accepted here with the enthusiasm aroused in Paris by the show of 1895. There hardly a paper did not issue its elaborate and illustrated supplement on the subject—a special number of *Figaro*, *Figaro Lithographe*, a model of good printing, was devoted to it—and the event was treated as one of national importance. Here, the papers are content with perfunctory notices for which space is grudgingly found; critics who happen never to have heard of lithography as an art, declare a lithograph to be nothing more than a drawing on stone—why they should have expected it to be anything else, it is difficult to say—and dismiss the collection with contempt, reserving their eloquence for paintings already described, and hence easier to criticise; and while South Kensington can never blunder in its policy without becoming the town talk, now that it has really done something worthy of all praise, only one or two are honest and sincere enough to give it its due. Because English wall-papers are copied in Belgium, and English art magazines imitated in Germany, and English lamps exhibited at the Salon de l'Art Nouveau, England is supposed to have been transformed into the great headquarters of art. But it is on such occasions as the present that you are forced to admit how much better they understand these things in Paris, where, after all, the great sales still are held, the great schools still attract the student, and the great exhibitions are still appreciated. N. N.

Correspondence.

WANTED: A PROGRAMME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is reported that the President assured the Secretary of the Anti-Imperialist League that the Administration would gladly listen to any plan which the League might have except the surrender of the Philippines to Spain; and that three plans were suggested: A joint protectorate by the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and Japan; placing the islands under the temporal authority of the Pope of Rome; leaving them to govern themselves! If all this be true, the League needs a new Secretary, or else we need a new League. Our protests will perish by ridicule unless we agree upon a programme which will commend itself to the common sense and to the conscience of the American people. You have repeatedly suggested the very thing needed, though I have not noticed recent allusions to it which adjust it to the final action of the Peace Commission.

Make the self-denying resolution of Congress apply to the Philippines and to Porto Rico as well as to Cuba. Nobody doubts that it is a subterfuge to restrict it to the only territory which was then in view. You have often proved that we are morally bound to apply it to the other islands. Now we need a simple programme for carrying out what we ought to do. Meet the treaty at the door of the Senate with a plan which will make the United States the most just and magnanimous nation in the world.

It will be very expensive. We must pay the twenty millions to Spain and then give it all away; we must secure order, religious freedom, and equality before the law in the islands; we must forbid foreign interference. But we ought to have thought of that before we began the war. We did think of it in the case of Cuba, and nobody knows what time and money it will cost to redeem that promise. We are bound in conscience and before the world to take care of the helpless people whose cause we rashly took in hand, and never annex them, nor get any other advantage than their gratitude and friendship may freely give. It will not take for ever to secure peace and good government even in the Philippines, and then leave them free and independent. And if it takes a hundred years, what ought to be done must be done. Wolcott Calkins.

Newton, Mass., December 10, 1898.

COLONIES AND THE CONSTITUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to call the attention of the readers of the *Nation* to the following extract from the opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of Scott vs. Sandford, 19 Howard's (U. S.) Reports.

Jno. S. Mosby.

San Francisco, November 30, 1898.

"There is certainly no power given by the Constitution to the Federal Government to establish or maintain colonies bordering on the United States or at a distance, to be ruled and governed at its own pleasure; nor to enlarge its territorial limits in any way, except by the admission of new States. That power is plainly given; and if a new State is admitted it needs no further legislation by Congress, because the Constitution itself defines the relative rights and powers and duties of the State, and the citizens of the State, and the Federal Government. But no power is given to acquire a Territory to be held and governed permanently in that character. . . . The power to expand the territory of the United States by the admission of new States is plainly given; and in the construction of this power by all the departments of the Government it has been held to authorize the acquisition of territory, not fit for admission at the time, but to be admitted as soon as its population and situation would entitle it to admission. It is acquired to become a State, and not to be held as a colony and governed by Congress with absolute authority; and as the propriety of admitting a new State is committed to the sound discretion of Congress, the power to acquire territory for that purpose, to be held by the United States until it is in a suitable condition to become a State upon an equal footing with the other States, must rest upon the same discretion. . . . Taking this rule to guide us, it may be safely assumed that citizens of the United States who migrate to a territory belonging to the people of the United States, cannot be ruled as mere colonists, dependent upon the will of the general Government, and to be governed by any laws it may think proper to impose. A power, therefore, in the general Government, to obtain and hold colonies and dependent territories over which they might legislate without restriction, would be inconsistent with its own existence in its present form."

WHAT MAKES FOR WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The clause in the President's message favoring international action looking to the exemption of private property at sea from the risks of war, is likely to meet with approval the commercial world over. But there may nevertheless be dissentient voices on the part of those who hold to the theory that agreements, or conventions, practically tending to neutralize the motives which make nations reluctant to go to war, are of doubtful value. It may be urged that stripping war of its terrors for the classes which naturally oppose it, means smoothing the path of those which naturally clamor for it; and that the true policy is, not to make war easy, but to make it difficult—which certainly will not be achieved in our commercial and commercialized age through "minimizing" its hazards to commerce. The late Prof. Henry Fawcett was an outspoken advocate of the view indicated. He says:

"Of late years a feeling of false humanity has attempted to make the rights of private property respected in war. Life may be sacrificed with as much prodigality as ever. . . . No such attempt to palliate the material disasters of war ought to be encouraged; war will be rendered less frequent if a whole nation is made to feel its terrible consequences, instead of concentrating all the horrors in the sacrifice of thousands of helpless victims who may be marshalled at the caprice of a despot";

the "despot," of course, being, in democratically governed countries, a temporarily crazed public opinion inflamed by the rant of Jingo orators and newspapers.

Read in the light of this at first blush somewhat repellent doctrine, President McKinley's humanely meant suggestion may be interpreted as saying in effect: "The experiences of last year having forcibly brought home to us a sense of the burdens and the waste of war," now is the time for us to counteract this wholesome and deterrent sense by securing an international agreement that shall operate as an assurance to our mercantile classes that, in the future, they may look with comparative indifference upon any war that our yellow journals and Jingoes may try to drag us into.

Perhaps, too, there is a touch of unconscious saturnine humor in this solicitude that the cost of war shall in the future be computed, so far as possible, in blood and not in gold. The Czar calls upon the people to disarm; we (like practical folks bred in the school of "Poor Richard") are to say to them: "Let slaughter be unconfined; but, in the name of civilization and our common humanity, let us agree that future warfare between Christian Powers shall bear lightly on woollens and cottons and steel rail and hog-products." E. G. J.

Milwaukee, December 10, 1898.

[This train of thought may be carried a step further, by inquiring whether the Red Cross Society is not one of the "minimizing" agencies which make for

war, in the name of humanity. Was it not ominously to the fore at the first prospect of hostilities, as a make-weight in favor of resolving upon them? And did not our incompetent War Department count upon this organization's supplying its own shortcomings—both those arising from a suddenly precipitated war, and those which were the natural consequence of injecting politics into military appointments? And what, let us ask, in the breathing-space between wars, has the Red Cross Society ever done to destroy its own occupation by a propaganda in behalf of peace, as by publications reciting the horrors of war, and by reinforcing the demand for disarmament and a general resort to arbitration in international collisions?—Ed. Nation.]

"THE LATIN PLIGHT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with interest the letter of your correspondent under the above caption, in the last *Nation*, as well as the preceding discussion in your paper and in the *Spectator* regarding the effect of religion on national prosperity. It may be of interest to your readers to note what a great Frenchman thought on this subject a hundred and eighty years ago. Montesquieu, writing as the learned Usbek in the 'Lettres Persanes,' says:

"But, however this may be, their religion certainly gives Protestants an infinite advantage over Catholics. I venture to affirm that, in the present state of Europe, the Catholic religion cannot endure there for five hundred years. Before the power of Spain was humbled, the Catholics were much stronger than the Protestants. The latter have gradually attained an equilibrium. The Protestants will become richer and more powerful, the Catholics feebler. Protestant countries should be, and in fact really are, more populous than Catholic; whence it follows, first, that their revenues are more considerable, increasing in proportion to the number of those who contribute; secondly, that their commerce is more flourishing, because there are more people having to make a fortune, and because, as wants multiply, there are more resources for supplying them. When there are no more than enough people for the cultivation of the land, commerce necessarily perishes, just as when there are only as many as will suffice for the support of trade, agriculture decays; in other words, both must go under together, since devotion to either is at the expense of the other.

"As for the Catholic countries, not only is tillage abandoned, but even industry is hurtful, consisting merely in learning five or six words of a dead language. A man thus equipped need no longer worry about his fortune: he finds in the cloister a tranquil life which, in the world, would have cost him sweat and toil" (Letter cxvii).

Yours truly, J. Rodman Paul.

Philadelphia, December 10, 1898.

THE APOLOGY FOR FRANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to your article on "Voltaire and Dreyfus," permit me to suggest an explanation of the apparent absence of "political conscience" on the part of a large portion of the French people, as illustrated in their attitude toward the Dreyfus case.

Just as every family has a skeleton in a closet, so most political communities are touchy on certain subjects, resenting criticism, and halting and abusing all who try to correct individual wrongs. Southerners did not believe slavery to be right, for all the Biblical arguments of their preachers; but they fancied that, if it were abolished, their whole social system would go to pieces, and that, as individuals, they would share the fate of the whites of Hayti. This is an extreme case, but those of much less importance produce the same feeling, *e. g.*, the devotion to protectionism in Pennsylvania, to double taxation (by a large minority) in Massachusetts, and to the spoils system everywhere, not counting, of course, those directly interested. Those who support these evils know that they are wrong quite as well as the reformers. But they argue that they can't be cured without the destruction of other matters more important to the public welfare, and so, in many cases, they pretend to approve them.

No one would deny that Horace Greeley was a sincere hater of slavery, yet he bitterly resented the criticism of the anti-slavery men of all factions. The Whig party, he wrote in 1852, existed for only two purposes—the maintenance of protection and the policy of public improvements. It could carry no election unless it had the votes of all who held these views, differing as they might about slavery. This was good logic, though the event proved that with the majority of the Northern people the moral sense outweighed the apprehension of material loss. But we must not forget that when the North determined on fighting the South, it had not the faintest idea of the seriousness of the struggle, while, instead of sacrificing the economic ideas which the Republicans inherited from the Whigs, their leaders saw, in the changed political balance, the opportunity to perfect them to an extent they had not dreamed of.

Now, in all Continental countries the classes which have anything to lose believe they are living on a volcano. The Reign of Terror and the follies of 1848 are ever present in their minds. Socialism, especially in France and in Italy, may any time get the upper hand, and the powerlessness of the middle and upper classes against the lower has too often been illustrated. The army is the only safeguard for the maintenance of civilization. As the Romans used the half-civilized tribes on their borders as buffers to defend them from the savages beyond, so the upper classes on the Continent, by education, discipline, and habit, turn a considerable portion of their natural enemies into temporary defenders. But such troops must be thoroughly trained and well commanded. No improvised volunteer force of "respectables" could successfully struggle with "organized labor," ignorant and fanatical as such men often are, but filled also with a glowing sense of the manifold injustice of the existing régime. Criticism of military administration tends to destroy discipline, and, if permitted, will bring the army to the same state of moral disintegration which characterized it in 1789. And, compared with another Terror or Commune, what are the sufferings of a few persons like Dreyfus or the victims of the Second of December? Not that they put it, even to themselves, in this bold and heartless manner; but this seems to be the reasoning which they unconsciously follow. W. M. G.

December 8, 1898.

Notes.

'The Students' Life of Jesus,' by Prof. George Holley Gilbert of the Chicago Theological Seminary, is to be published shortly by Macmillan Co.

The Clarendon Press (Henry Frowde) announces 'Lectures and Essays on National Theology and Ethics,' by the late William Wallace, with a biographical introduction from the Master of Balliol, and 'Studies in International Law,' by Prof. T. E. Holland.

Ginn & Co. publish directly 'Bird World,' an illustrated bird book for children, by J. H. Stickney.

New announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'Fantastic Fables,' by Ambrose Bierce; 'Phil-o-rum's Canoe and Madeleine Vercheres,' by William Henry Drummond, author of 'The Habitant'; 'The Christ,' a poetical study of his life, by the Rev. O. C. Auringer and J. Oliver Smith; and 'The Seven Voices,' a collection of poems by J. Hooker Hamersley, with illustrations by Isabelle Morrison Niles.

The authorized biography of the late Prof. Henry Drummond, by George Adam Smith, will appear this week with the American imprint of Doubleday & McClure Co.

The edition of Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon' sets a new example in simultaneous issue of the seventeen volumes, with a finishing touch to date all along the line. This innovation must be heartily commended.

Eyes which were young when 'Jane Eyre' was first the talk of the day, will thoroughly enjoy the reprint of that story in two volumes, prepared by Downey & Co., London (New York: Scribners). The type is bold to admiration, and the paper and press-work of the best. A charming portrait of Charlotte Brontë serves as frontispiece.

From the same importing firm we have Dickens's 'Child's History of England' in the Gadshill Edition, prefaced by Mr. Lang's unsparing rating of it as history, and his confession that he had meant to annotate it, but forbore. Further, two more volumes in the Centenary Edition of Carlyle's Works, 'German Romance,' or his translations from the German, with Mr. Traill's introduction, and portraits of some of the authors translated—Musæus, Tieck, Richter, and Hoffmann. Finally, the second series of J. A. Symonds's 'Sketches and Studies in Italy and Greece,' in one volume, and seven volumes of his 'Renaissance in Italy,' lacking an eighth for an index to add to the permanence of this work as well as to its every-day value. These are beautiful specimens of bookmaking in every other respect.

The "Maude Adams" edition of 'The Little Minister' (R. H. Russell) is a showy book on thick paper, with an immaculate binding in white and gold. The illustrations are a blending of stage photographs and of very good designs by C. Allen Gilbert, which would not be so good if they had been made to conform to the other set. Mr. Barrie's admirers will be apt to thank the publisher for this opportunity.

The two-volume reissue of Dumas's 'Twenty Years After' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is plainly meant for popular acceptance, and does not challenge praise as a careful product of the press. It is fairly illustrated.

Omar and no end. A quarto edition of his 'Rubáiyát,' from Macmillan, excuses itself on the ground of decoration by W. B. Macdougall, who in turn dedicates it to the

members of the Omar Khayyám Club. In brief, the scheme is to set four quatrains on two facing pages in a broad border of white arabesque on a very black ground, each fresh double-page having a new border. The result is to our mind too sombre, but it runs with the taste of the day. The cover shows a gold tracery on green silk.

The fashion of republishing collections of drawings from the periodicals of the year seems to be growing. Besides 'Drawings and Cartoons by C. D. Gibson' (R. H. Russell), which do not differ from past collections in manner or quality, we have received three volumes of gaudy-colored prints, reprinted from *Truth* (E. R. Herrick & Co.), by "W. Granville Smith and others," "Charles H. Johnson and others," and "Thulstrup and others," respectively. The "others" include Mr. Wenzel, whose drawings are easily the best in the three volumes. The covers of these books, in green and red, are enough to daunt any but the strongest eyes.

R. H. Russell publishes a new set of designs by William Nicholson, entitled 'London Types,' and accompanied by what Mr. Henley calls "Quatorzains," but what, as far as form goes, Shakspere would have called sonnets. The drawings are good ones, at least one of them ("A Lady") showing a hitherto unsuspected feeling for beauty and elegance, and the verses are, perhaps, good enough for the purpose.

Orange Judd Co. publish 'New Methods in Education,' by J. Liberty Tadd, with many illustrations. The book is not well written, and its author's rather violent manner of expression will provoke dissent, while some of his methods, notably his insistence on ambidexterity and scroll-drawing, will seem of doubtful usefulness to many. It must be said, however, that the showing of results in the work of school-children here illustrated is remarkable.

A 'History of Modern Italian Art' in near 600 pages 8vo is the portentous achievement of Ashton Rollins Willard (Longmans, Green & Co.). It is not in human nature to *read* such a work on such a subject, especially as a glance at the illustrations is sufficient to convince one that there is no need to revise the common impression, against which the author somewhat feebly protests in his preface, that modern Italian art is "degenerate." The book may, however, be of use for occasional reference. The author has collected his facts from a great variety of sources, and states that he believes they "are now receiving their first English presentation."

Mr. David Wilson, the author of 'Mr. Froude and Carlyle,' which Dodd, Mead & Co. have just published, announces that he himself is engaged on a Life of Carlyle. What he does in this volume is to clear the ground of his predecessors, by slaughtering them. It is, of course, principally upon Mr. Froude that he wreaks himself; and that biographer's blunders and misunderstandings and betrayals are set forth unsparingly. By the aid of survivors among Carlyle's kindred and friends and servants, and utilizing what Prof. Norton and Prof. Masson and Mr. Conway and Tyndall and many others have published on the subject, Mr. Wilson is able to collect a terrible array of mistakes, or worse, in Mr. Froude's writings about the Carlyles. Most strenuous of all is he in declaring that the Froude view of the relations of Carlyle to his wife was simply one huge misconception and misrepresentation; and on some points, at least, the evidence he brings forward relating to this matter is certainly conclusive. Mr. Wilson affirms that he is in possession of complete proof, which he will publish in due time, that there was nothing whatever in Carlyle's relations to Lady Ashburton to warrant Mrs. Carlyle's disturbed feelings on that score.

There is a popular and unfading magic about the notion of far-off islands. Most men find a more lasting fascination in the 'Odyssey,' with its mysterious island adventures and enchantments, than in all the "wealth and woe" of the 'Iliad.' So, when the ancients wearied of the dull mainland, it was for a transatlantic Elysium they yearned—for those fairy lands, the Happy Isles, which must be, they thought, beyond the perilous seas. In his 'Tales of the Enchanted Islands of the Atlantic' (Macmillan) Colonel Higginson has had the happy thought of collecting for youthful readers some of those legends which are on the borderland of American history because they tell of sea expeditions which foreshadowed the discovery of America. From Plato to Ignatius Donnelly men have dreamed of the lost island Atlantis, and even in the seventeenth century the Dutch thought of it as a large island midway between Spain and America. So St. Brandan's Isle, last reported as seen in 1759, has vanished before the explorers. Sometimes it was an ocean mirage or an iceberg that fled before the sailor as the shores of Italy before Æneas; but again it was a real island that seemed to change its position by enchantment, such as the Canaries, which were found and lost, and finally found again as late as 1341. Colonel Higginson's selection includes tales connected with Norse explorations of America and with early Irish history. For these he has drawn largely on Lady Charlotte Guest's translation of 'Mabinogion,' and on Joyce's 'Ancient Celtic Romances.' The result is a set of very pleasing stories, appropriately written, and likely to inspire an interest in Celtic literature. Mr. A. Herter's illustrations are pretty and well suited to the text.

Charles A. Dana's 'Recollections of the Civil War' are put in book form by the Appletons, and make an octavo of 300 pages. His several series of dispatches to the War Department from the field, when he was Assistant Secretary of War, are the solid foundation of the narrative, and give it an authenticity which no mere memoirs could have. His characterizations of civil and military officers and of President Lincoln agree, in the main, with the best opinions of other competent observers who had means of intimate knowledge, and the book will rank among the trustworthy sources of knowledge of the civil war. A curious and interesting task, however, would be a careful comparison of the original dispatches with the Recollections as the author leaves them, and an inquiry into the probable reasons for the omission of a good many anecdotes quite as racy as any which he tells.

'Social Life in the British Army, by a British Officer' (Harpers), is a very pretty reproduction of a recent short series of magazine articles which attracted a good deal of attention, both for the interesting matter of the text and for the spirited and intelligent illustrations by R. Caton Woodville. The outline of life in the crack regiments of the Guards is sketched in a lively way, and compared with the more economical, hard-working experience in the marching regiments. The author makes plain the reasons why independence of fortune is necessary to keep up the style and meet the social and other demands which have become a fixed custom in the one, while men of small means must seek their military career in the other. Some contrasts between garrison life in England and in India are also well drawn, and the little book will help materially in understanding some things in the British service not often discussed in print. The cover is ornamented with a figure of a Cuirassier of the Guards, as brilliant as an heraldic device in gules and argent.

Even one who reads his New York *Herald* at a distance, as over his neighbor's shoulder in a public conveyance, has to be familiar with the daily political cartoon. Those by Charles Nelan relating to the late hostilities have been gathered together in 'Cartoons of Our War with Spain' (Frederick A. Stokes Co.). They are clever, humorous, without extravagance, and strictly opportunist—making for peace in the beginning, putting trust in the President, and then in the god of battles while keeping your powder dry. As arranged chronologically, they reflect the course of events, and together will possess a curious interest hereafter. The three which introduce the German Emperor as coveting the Philippines are among the best of the series. Mr. Nelan avoids brutality, and this is something to be thankful for.

Mr. Thomas Bellows Peck of Walpole, N. H., has made a Genealogy of the Bellows Family which does great credit to the compiler and to the Sentinel Printing Company, Keene, N. H., which has printed the book, an octavo volume of 657 pages. It is very handsome in every respect, and the contents deserve such presentation. The greater part of the work is devoted to Col. Benjamin Bellows, the founder of Walpole, N. H., and his descendants, but a full history has been given of his three sisters, and three chapters to "a reasonably full account" of the descendants of the three sons of "the boy emigrant," who sailed for New England in 1635. The identification of this lad with John Bellows of Concord, Mass., who was the progenitor of all, or nearly all, the Bellowses in the United States, is made out not absolutely, but with strong probability. Mr. Peck's plan involves more than a dry list of names and dates. There are biographical sketches, some of them very elaborate, of persons who have reflected honor on the name; that of the late Rev. Dr. Henry W. Bellows covering thirty-six pages. This has been written by his son, Rev. R. N. Bellows, and justifies a hope that the writer will some day write that biography of Dr. Bellows which his friends so far have waited for in vain.

'The Frank Lockwood Sketch-Book' (London: Edward Arnold) is a delightful souvenir of the lamented Q. C. and M. P. whose visit to this country two years ago enlarged not a little the circle of his warm friends. Sir Frank's pencil in court or in Parliament, or pen in private correspondence, was ever tempted to stray into designs well worth preserving among the minor memorabilia of the times and of Men of the Time. Perhaps Thackeray's similar gift offers the nearest parallel; yet Dicky Doyle might have admitted much of this selection to his company, and worthy of Leech is the Sporting Underwriter (p. 73), who, gun in hand, asks, "Would you like to insure?" and to whom the Bold Bird replies, "No, I'll take the risk!" though not two feet away. The Par-

nell Commission and the Jameson trial furnish part of this material; travel in two hemispheres still more. In "Cleveland and Olney," on p. 45, is there not a mistaken ascription—for Olney read Carlisle? The caricatures of Gladstone and Balfour are among the best in a series including many lights of the bar and of Parliament—Bradlaugh, Chamberlain, Harcourt, Fitzjames Stephen, and even Bismarck, Edison (less happy), and Depew (very good).

The success of Mr. Wells's charming little book on 'Oxford and its Colleges' has induced its publishers (London: Methuen & Co.) to bring out a companion volume on Cambridge. But they have been unfortunate in their selection of a writer. Mr. A. Hamilton Thompson had some reputation as the master of a pretty style when he was an undergraduate at Cambridge a year or so ago; and this has emboldened him to write the architectural history of his university from his general impressions of the likelihood and fitness of things. But Cambridge—with the portly volumes of Willis and Clark everywhere easily accessible, giving the date of almost every stone in every building—is the place of all the world where an impressionist method is most hazardous; and so Mr. Thompson has found to his cost. His publishers would do well to follow the advice of the learned Registrary of Cambridge, and withdraw the book altogether.

From the same publishers comes a much more considerable contribution to the history of educational foundations, Mr. Wasey Sterry's 'Annals of the King's College of Our Lady of Eton beside Windsor.' Intended, apparently, to be supplementary to Sir Henry Maxwell Lyte's well-known history of Eton, it dwells especially on the social life of the great college. To Eton men it will be most entertaining; to the serious student of educational history, somewhat disappointing, for its author makes little attempt to bring out the larger significance of the facts he records. But as a very considerable proportion of the most interesting Englishmen in the history of the last two centuries have passed through Eton, and as Mr. Sterry has carefully put together all he can learn about their school days, the "general reader" will find "fine confused feeding" in it. It is a book which to any editor who wanted a couple of columns of good stories of a scholastic and literary flavor would prove a perfect godsend. We refrain with difficulty from citing some specimens; and we must confess that the story of a Fellow as bald as an egg who preached on the text, "My sins are more in number than the hairs of my head," does strain our credulity. Mr. Sterry does not tell us much of the internal life of the school to-day, or else he might cast some light on the current witticism that Jameson's Raid was lost on the Playing Fields of Eton.

A late number of the *Architectural Record* had an interesting article by William H. Goodyear, called "Unknown Italy," and occupied with the mediæval architecture of the Province of Bari. The treasures of that part are in fair way of not remaining long unknown. As recently as last July we called attention to the rich and beautiful collection of casts of the mediæval sculpture of this region (doorways, tombs, capitals, etc.), made expressly for the international exhibition at Turin. Since that the committee responsible for this exhibit has published a thin octavo, 'Nella Terra di Bari' (Trani: V. Vecchi), with 127 illustrations from ancient monuments in the places visited by Mr. Goodyear, which, as it was published at the low price of 2 lire, has had an extensive sale in Italy. We could wish that Mr. Goodyear might find it in his heart to describe and illustrate other places to the south of Bari, as, *e. g.*, Lecce and its marvellous rococo; or that he would go further afield and give us some account of the really remarkable remains of the middle ages to be seen in Sardinia, a land even more unknown than the south of Italy.

From Frederick A. Stokes Co. we receive a number of pictorial wall calendars for 1899. In colors, the best are Maud Humphrey's, strong in her chosen field of child portraiture, and Paul de Longpré's, wholly floral. In black and white, Mabel L. Humphrey carries off the palm, with a series of society groups noticeably firm and knowing in draughtsmanship, and excellent examples of the typical American man and maid. The drawing here is far better than in Archie Gunn's flashy and unpleasant cartoons. There is also a "Calendar of Modern Art," with half-a-dozen mediocre photogravures after paintings of no great distinction by modern French artists.

The Wehrhane Memorial Lectureship at Johns Hopkins, founded by Mr. J. B. Noel Wyatt of Baltimore, is to be opened by a course of six lectures in January by Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard, on "Certain Phases of Flemish and German Religious Painting of the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries." They will be illustrated with the lantern.

One recalls the famous angling collection of Mr. John Bartlett, but it is perhaps unusual for a publisher to amass a library of his own. Mr. Robert Clarke of Cincinnati, however, it is well known, brought together a valuable historical and general library of upwards of 6,500 volumes, and these, by the generosity of Mr. William A. Procter, have just been presented to the University of Cincinnati.

A subscriber desires us to ask if there is any library in this country rich in Persian books and manuscripts. In particular, he would like to know whether the Calcutta edition of Sadi's Complete Works is to be found anywhere here.

—Vol. xxix. of the Jesuit Relations (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) is restricted to the events of 1646. In it only two hands appear: that of Jerome Lalemant, Vimont's successor as local superior, and that of Paul Ragueneau, who writes on behalf of the Huron mission. Two chapters of Lalemant's Relation for the year have already been given in vol. xxviii.; chapter iii. opens with a brief but touching necrology. Both of the Fathers whose "blessed deaths" are described have been familiar figures throughout the course of these narratives. It will be remembered that Enemond Massé came to Acadia in 1611 with Pierre Biard, was a member of the colony at St. Sauveur on Mt. Desert Island, and, after Argall's destruction of that settlement, passed through some singular adventures before reaching France. Returning after an interval to the Laurentian part of Canada, he became a faithful though minor agent in the hands of his order, and died at St. Joseph aged seventy-two years. The set of rules which he drew up for the conduct of his life, and which was found only after his death, forms one of the most remarkable passages which have yet appeared in this work. The end of the other Father, Anne de Nouë, was of a more tragical kind. The son of a gentleman who owned a château near Rheims, he had begun his career as a page at court, but, soon fleeing from its dangers, he entered the Jesuit order and toiled sixteen years in Canada: "always with courage, always with fervor, and always with deep humility." This innocent, patient man was frozen to death while attempting to cross the St. Lawrence from Three Rivers to the mouth of the Richelieu. Some soldiers in his band grew fatigued, De Nouë went alone for aid, lost his way in a snow-storm, and perished.

—Another prominent feature of Lalemant's report is the establishment of a mission among the Iroquois. Isaac Jogues, who had so recently been tortured by them, led the forlorn hope, and, accompanied by an envoy from the French Governor, entered the Mohawk country. Of his work there, more anon. The characteristics of Lalemant's own style as official reporter are worth attention. He makes a very cheerful and buoyant Superior, looking at matters always from their best side, and deriving great satisfaction from the conduct of his converts. In simple and rather garrulous strain he relates the virtues which Christian Indians show in their new state of grace. A widow whose only son had become an invalid resisted the approaches of a sorceress who offered to cure him, answering that she would not avail herself of demoniacal aid. "I prefer losing sight of my son to losing my soul and his." One of the Abenakis fell sick at St. Joseph, developed a burning fever, and was soon delirious. He raved on in unconnected fashion about other subjects, but was quite clear and reasonable if spoken to about baptism and salvation. A party of Hurons came down to St. Joseph during a time of scarcity. At first the Christian Indians were in doubt as to whether they should feed the strangers, but an Algonquin, perceiving that the Hurons prayed to God, exclaimed: "We must no longer deliberate whether they shall be given something for dinner; they are our kinsfolk, since they believe as we, and honor prayer." Altogether, the savages seem to have been on their good behavior during this year.

—Prof. Schell, about two years ago, when Rector of the University of Würzburg, published a book in which he sought to demonstrate that the true principles of the Roman Catholic Church demanded freedom of scientific research; criticising rather sharply the Jesuitic and Latin influences that had put the scholarship of the Church into antagonism with the methods and principles of true independent scholarship. Although attempts were made to boycott the Würzburg institution, on account of the spirit displayed by so prominent a member of its theological faculty, Dr. Schell has continued his agitation, and has found within his church others to join him in his demand for freedom of investigation. In France there is a movement of a more practical nature, aiming at reform in the doctrine and life of the Church. Its leader is the former Abbé Bourrier, who is also the editor of its organ, *Le Chrétien Français*. A number of younger ecclesiastics have severed their connection with the Church, and a special place of refuge, the *Maison hospitalière*, in Sèvres, has been established for them until they can be settled over independent churches. The French movement has already crossed the boundary into Belgium and Holland, where an eloquent former priest, Victor Charbon-

nels, has been delivering public addresses, especially on social topics. The agitation has been discussed in the Parliament and has been very favorably received by the public press, especially the influential journals of the capital city. The adherents of the movement seem to belong to the more energetic and educated writers of the clergy. In Italy the independent spirit is exemplified chiefly in two young churchmen, Don Miroglia, who demands reforms in the life of the Church, and Don Negroni, whose agitations are rather along social lines. The former has been excommunicated; his ideal in Church and State is Savonarola, while the ideal of Don Miroglia is rather Mazzini. Both these active agitators have begun their work independently of each other, and independently of similar tendencies in other Catholic countries.

—Under the direction of Major-Gen. Strahan, R.E., Surveyor-General of India, was published recently a quarto volume embracing reports of three expeditions organized under the Survey Department for observing the total eclipse of the sun on January 22 last. None of the parties suffered from interference of cloud, and their optical and photographic work is of a high order. The party of Mr. Pope, Assistant Surveyor-General, secured at Dumraon photographs of the extreme outer wisps of the solar corona which had not previously been surpassed, these faint filaments having in all earlier eclipses failed to record themselves on the plate, although often visible to the naked eye. One of these embellishes the volume as its frontispiece. Capt. Conyngham, deputy superintendent, established camp at Pulgaon, and conducted efficiently all preliminaries for the installation of instruments brought out from England by Capt. Hills, R.E., who visited India, representing the joint-eclipse committee of the Royal and Royal Astronomical Societies. Mr. Newall, a member also of this party, used a fine spectroscope for testing the rotation of the corona bodily with the sun itself. The third party was located at Sahdol, and embraced the Astronomer Royal, Mr. Christie, and Prof. Turner of Oxford, besides Major Burrard, superintendent of the survey. Prof. Turner secured photographs through prisms of Iceland spar for testing the polarization of coronal light. The Astronomer Royal's fine large-scale photographs are said to be the best yet taken. Major Burrard appends to his report a paper on the Hindu method of eclipse prediction, sharply contrasting the ancient astronomy with the modern. The 'Surya Siddhanta' gives strict rules for calculating eclipses, but warns posterity against blindly trusting to its data without occasional checks by observation. This ancient work embodies many mathematical tables similar in formation to those familiar to present-day calculators. Major Burrard further adds a section on future total eclipses in India and the world generally, founded on data in Mrs. Todd's 'Total Eclipses of the Sun,' and subdividing these solar obscurations into twelve families, with useful charts illustrating admirably the progression of eclipses across the face of the globe.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

The great issues of the Spanish war, for good or for evil, begin to touch our poetry, but as yet in that shallow way which disappointed us all in the civil war, before Lowell had written his "Commemoration Ode," or Mrs. Howe her "Battle Hymn," or Aldrich his "Fredericksburg" sonnet. The first impulse towards war-songs, whether by land or sea, is apt to be somewhat feeble and scarcely even imitative, yet Mr. R. L. Paget's 'Poems of American Patriotism, 1776-1898' (Boston: Page), is a book of historic value, because under its blood-red and tasteless cover it includes, besides some earlier verse, two hundred solid pages of rhymes of all grades called forth by the Spanish war, and recording better than anything else the strange mixture of emotions then prevailing among the American people. It is curious to look through these trashy but eager pages and see that, while there are poems calling for vengeance for the *Maine*, and plenty more that breathe wrath against Spain's retrospective sins, there is not one which utters a wish for "expansion" or "imperialism" or the functions of a world-power. Anti-Spanish hatred is, of course, at its climax throughout.

> "Back to their gaunt Iberian crag
> Her desolating legions hurl,
> Or let the wild Atlantic's swirl
> Their souls and bodies hellward drag."

This and similar pleasant reveries by Mr. Albert Roland Haven show how far we Americans are above the ignoble state of mind supposed to prevail among the "minions" of our enemy. It would be unjust to take this old-fashioned Cromwellian as a type of all the new brood of war-poets, but an added argument against war is certainly to be found in this exhibition of the poetic mind enkindled. If there is such a thing as elevated Christian sentiment, we must rather look for it on that quarterdeck where the order was given, "Don't cheer, boys; don't you see the poor fellows are dying?"

The best of the recent books of war-poetry is doubtless 'Under the Stars, and other Verses,' by Wallace Rice and Barrett Eastman (Chicago: Way & Williams), and the best of these verses is "The Cheer of the Men who Speak English," of which the title is a good point well taken (p. 18):

> The ships-of-the-line beat to quarters,
> The drum and bugle sound,
> The lanterns of battle are lighted,
> "Cast off! Provide!" goes round;
> But ere the shrill order is given
> From broadsides hot with hate,
> Far over the sea
> Rings hearty and free
> Defiance to every fate:
> Hurrah! Hurrah! Hurrah!
> Three cheers and a tiger, too,
> For the fight to be won
> And each sturdy son
> Who'll carry the victory through!
> Hurrah! Hurrah! Hurrah!
> With the shout of the fleet
> For foes doomed to defeat,
> And one cheer more
> For those winning before,
> And all who shall win again:
> This is the cry of the men—
> The cheer of the men who speak English!

'Songs of War and Peace,' by Sam Walter Foss (Boston: Lee & Shepard), praises war enthusiastically, and then inconsistently dispraises Napoleon. 'Berth-Deck Ballads,' by William S. Bate (New York: Longwood Press), is ardent in zeal, though lame in execution; it has a picture of the *Maine* by way of frontispiece. A volume, entitled 'The Shrine of Love,' by Lucien A. Rule (H. S. Stone & Co.), devotes the last dozen pages to what might better be called "A Shrine of Hate," beginning, of course, with vengeance for the *Maine*, and ending with the usual comforting assurance that the Lord must be on our side, and that whoever resists an American war-ship must be nothing less than a devil (p. 131):

> The God of Battles wills it; he commands
> To slay this Amalek of modern lands.
> This haughty devil that so boldly dared
> Defy His holy justice, let her fall;
> And He Himself shall mock her if she call.
> If but one soul abided that was just,
> Within her borders, Vengeance still might stay
> The work of slaughter; but she stands to-day
> A Sodom and Gomorrah, His disgust.

It is almost a relief afterwards to turn to 'War Echoes,' by Ernest Howard Crosby (Philadelphia: Innes), which, although written in sprawling Whitmanesque, yet puts in a word on the side of humanity (p. 5):

> THE BATTLE OF ATBARA, APRIL 8, 1898.
>
> "British victory in the Sudan?"
> "The enemy clung obstinately to the trenches, and were bayoneted in them."
> "Nothing could have been finer than the behavior of the troops."
> Nothing finer, indeed!
> White Christian soldiers three thousand miles from home, in the pay of white Christian bondholders, bayoneting black Mohammedans for defending their native land, and setting the example of bloodshed to brown Mohammedans whom they had already trained to slaughter!
> Good God, is it too much to hope that the day may come when every sane man will shrink from running a bayonet into a fellow-creature, as he would now shrink from torturing a baby?
> We look back with pity, contempt, and detestation on the times of the rack and wheel and fagot, we who are still in the thick of the Dark Ages ourselves!
> A ten-fold better man is the true Mussulman dervish fighting for his home, than one of these Christian hypocrites emphasizing their barbarian butcheries with chaplains and crosses and Te-Deums and every kind of shameless lie and blasphemy.

The slender volume of poems by Prof. C. D. G. Roberts, 'New York Nocturnes, and Other Poems,' is undoubtedly the most promising of recent American poetic products; for though it errs in the opposite direction from the "robustious" school, though there is sometimes felt a little thinness of material, yet the execution is often exquisite, and the feeling high and profound. Except Mr. Piatt's "The Morning Street," there has been no American poem on the avenues of a city like Prof. Roberts's "Night in a Down-town Street"; it gives the city without its people, and is solemn, like a glimpse of Pompeii (p. 10):

> Not in the eyed, expectant gloom
> Where soaring peaks repose
> And incommunicable space
> Companions with the snows;
>
> Not in the glimmering dusk that crawls
> Upon the clouded sea,
> Where bourneless wave on bourneless wave
> Complains continually;
>
> Not in the palpable dark of woods
> Where groping hands clutch fear,
> Does Night her deeps of solitude
> Reveal unveiled as here.
>
> The street is a grim cañon carved
> In the eternal stone,
> That knows no more the rushing stream
> It anciently has known.
>
> The emptying tide of life has drained
> The iron channel dry.
> Strange winds from the forgotten day
> Draw down, and dream, and sigh.
>
> The narrow heaven, the desolate moon,
> Made wan with endless years,
> Seem less immeasurably remote
> Than laughter, love, or tears.

Prof. Roberts's poems of nature always ring true, especially where the scene lies in those Northern regions which he knows best; and in his love-poems there is a high and Keats-like flavor, as in this (p. 36):

> A NOCTURNE OF CONSECRATION.
>
> I talked about you, Dear, the other night,
> Having myself alone with my delight.
> Alone with dreams and memories of you,
> All the divine-houred summer stillness through
> I talked of life, of love, the always new,
> Of tears, and joy—yet only talked of you.

To the sweet air
That breathed upon my face
The spirit of lilies in a leafy place,
Your breath's caress, the lingering of your hair,
I said: "In all your wanderings through the dusk,
Your waitings on the marriages of flowers
Through the long intimate hours
When soul and sense, desire and love confer,
You must have known the best that God has made.
What do you know of Her?"

Said the sweet air—
"Since I have touched her lips,
Bringing the consecration of her kiss,
Half passion and half prayer,
And all for you,
My various lore has suffered an eclipse.
I have forgot all else of sweet I knew."

. . . . . .

To the white stars,
Eternal and all-seeing,
In their wide home beyond the wells of being,
I said—"There is a little cloud that mars
The mystical perfection of her kiss.
Mine, mine, She is,
As far as lip to lip, and heart to heart,
And spirit to spirit when lips and hands must part,
Can make her mine. But there is more than this—
More, more of Her to know.
For still her soul escapes me unaware,
To dwell in secret where I may not go.
Take, and uplift me. Make me wholly Hers."

Said the white stars, the heavenly ministers—
"This life is brief, but it is only one.
Before to-morrow's sun
For one or both of you it may be done.
This love of yours is only just begun.
Will all the ecstasy that may be won
Before this life its little course has run
At all suffice
The love that agonizes in your eyes?
Therefore be wise.
Content you with the wonder of love that lies
Between her lips and underneath her eyes.
If more you would surprise,
What would be left to hope from Paradise?

The two poets of the present American school who stand nearest to Mr. Roberts are Richard Watson Gilder and Bliss Carman. Neither of these quite holds his own in his new volume; the obstacle in Mr. Gilder's case being possibly preoccupation, and in Mr. Carman a certain flavor of immaturity. He does not seem to grow up to what was expected of him, while Mr. Gilder appears to hold his poetic work in subordination to editing and to municipal reform. Yet in his 'In Palestine, and Other Poems' (Century Co.), the poem on Col. Shaw's monument is noble, and "A Song of the Road" delicious; but the finest and highest point is reached in these lines on Helen Keller (p. 103):

OF ONE WHO NEITHER SEES NOR HEARS.

She lives in light, not shadow;
Not silence, but the sound
Which thrills the stars of heaven
And trembles from the ground.

She breathes a finer ether,
Beholds a keener sun;
In her supernal being
Music and light are one.

Unknown the subtile senses
That lead her through the day;
Love, light, and song and color
Come by another way.

Sight brings she to the seeing,
New song to those that hear;
Her braver spirit sounding
Where mortals fail and fear.

She at the heart of being
Serene and glad doth dwell;
Spirit with scarce a veil of flesh;
A soul made visible.

Or is it only a lovely girl
With flowers at her maiden breast?
Helen, here is a book of song
From the poet who loves you best.

Mr. Carman's 'By the Aurelian Wall, and Other Elegies' (Lamson, Wolffe & Co.) shows some of his valuable qualities and some of his limitations. It consists almost wholly of elegies on Keats, Shelley, Stevenson, Verlaine, Phillips Brooks, and others; and the inevitable effect of monotony thus produced is enhanced by the author's habit of what would be called by his admirers affluence, and by his severer critics prolixity. He has in this the example of Shelley, no doubt, but have not the great elegies from those in the Greek anthology down to "Sidney's Sister, Pembroke's Mother," been remarkable rather for terseness? Indeed, Mr. Carman's own "A Sea Child" and Mr. Roberts's epitaph "On a Sailor Dying Ashore" furnish proof that this concentration of emotion, this picture at a stroke, is still possible. While Mr. Carman's out-door reveries are often charming, his readers have looked for him to do his share in the modern "Lyra Celtica"—in the ranks of bards like Mangan with his "My Dark Rosaleen"; or like Yeats and Lionel Johnson; or like Fiona MacLeod with her "Prayer for Women," or Alice Carrington with "The Doom-Bar." Mr. Carman, since he wrote "The Song of Gamelbar," has given his proofs that he belongs in this class, and must accept its duties. We would not, however, speak slightingly of his fine dirge for Phillips Brooks (p. 59):

This is the white winter day of his burial.
Time has set here of his toiling the span
Earthward, naught else. Cheer him out through the portal.
Heart-beat of Boston, our utmost in man!

Out in the broad open sun be his funeral,
Under the blue for the city to see.
Over the grieving crowd mourn for him, bugle!
Churches are narrow to hold such as he.

Here on the steps of the temple he builded,
Rest him a space, while the great city square
Throngs with his people, his thousands, his mourners;
Tears for his peace and a multitude's prayer.

How comes it, think you, the town's traffic pauses
Thus at high noon? Can we wealthmongers grieve?
Here in the sad surprise greatest America
Shows for a moment her heart on her sleeve.

. . . . . .

Bear him to burial, Harvard, thy hero!
Not on thy shoulders alone is he borne;
They of the burden go forth on the morrow,
Heavy and slow, through a world left forlorn.

. . . . . .

Take the last vesture of beauty upon thee,
Thou doubting world; and with not an eye dim
Say, when they ask if thou knowest a Saviour,
"Brooks was His brother, and we have known him."

Mr. Carman's name naturally suggests that of his associate in 'Vagabondia,' Mr. Richard Hovey, who has reprinted his remarkable dramatic poem, "The Marriage of Guenevere," with two associated poems, "The Quest of Merlin" and "The Birth of Galahad"—these being in three small and attractive volumes (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.). We have long since expressed our admiration of the original poem of this series, and especially of its fine conclusion, where the guilty lovers are crushed with remorse by the noble confidence of Arthur. All three of the poems are upon a high key, with fine sonorous passages, and only weak, as modern dramas are apt to be, in the passages of humor. It requires consummate tact to introduce mediæval clowns and servitors and clothe them in appropriate dialogue; but to make them call for "a drink as is a drink," or express a preference for Stilton cheese, or to make a Faun sing (Merlin, p. 23):

Foxes in the poultry-yard
Making free with chickens!
Crows in the cornfield
Pecking like the dickens—

this is a little beyond the line of good taste and therefore of discretion. Yet we renew our testimony to the really high dramatic work of Mr. Hovey.

'In This Our World' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), by Charlotte Perkins Stetson, is rather to be described as a series of little tracts than as a volume of poems. With constant iteration, through jest and earnest, she brings a series of appeals which rattle epigrammatically round the head of the reader, stirring up some sympathy and quite as much antagonism. She will doubtless make converts and will certainly create opponents; indeed, she will find readers who will oppose some excellent ideas simply from the manner in which she urges them. All this is equivalent to saying that she has the Beecher blood in her, and that so marked a strain does not always show itself agreeably in the third generation. Many, for instance, who believe in woman suffrage, will not be prepossessed by her vehement objurgations on private housekeeping and the ordinary family life; nor will they be attracted by her apparent theory that it is a selfish and in fact a brutal thing, in mothers, to desire the especial and personal care of their children (p. 133):

"Yet seeking, like brute mothers of the past,
To give all things to her own child herself."

In the same poem, called "Motherhood," she says that the future woman's son will praise his mother,

"Not for assiduous service spent on him,
But for the wisdom which has set him forth
A clear-brained, pure-souled, noble-hearted man."

It would seem as if this training for high wisdom began, surely, in the assiduous service and was largely an outcome of that. Boarding-schools doubtless have their use, especially for exceptional children; but to substitute a boarding-kindergarten for the private nursery appears a doubtful manifestation of high wisdom.

It is to the merit of Mrs. Julia Ward Howe that she is one of those mothers whose children rise up and call her blessed, even if she did not send them to a day-nursery. It may also be said of her, in honor, that she has waited late in life before reprinting her poems in a final volume, entitled 'From Sunset Ridge: Songs Old and New' (Houghton); and this, undoubtedly, from her constant absorption in reformatory and educational work. How far her muse might have grown by concentration it is vain to ask; and it is a great thing to have achieved a sure success by a single poem. She was, unquestionably, the only lyrist of the civil war, and this is a great deal. To represent her "Battle-Hymn of the Republic," as a sort of "Marseillaise" which swept all ranks and grades of men, is, probably, an exaggeration; the tune, which was already familiar, had of course an immense hold, but the words as given by her were for thoughtful and cultivated minds and were not quite understood by others; one rarely heard them sung in camps, and the popular song-books of soldiers did not usually contain them. This does not detract from their power and beauty, but merely defines the direction in which the qualities were exerted. Mrs. Howe has shown too much rather than too little modesty in the selection, some of the very best of her shorter poems, as "My Last Dance" and "Rouge Gagne," being altogether omitted.

It is interesting to notice that poems proceeding from California, though often socially magniloquent and giving fine names to their heroines, are apt to have strong local coloring as regards external nature; they really discard skylark and nightingale and English hedgerows; the difference in climate and scenery is so irresistible that even American literary imitativeness yields to it, and strikes out for itself. Thus, in 'By the Western Sea,' by Marshall Ilsley (San Francisco: Elder), we are really on the western side of the continent, and this is a

great thing. Even "Epiphany" does not suggest merely the prayer-book of the English Church (p. 28):

The mountains are pale
In noon's veil,
Without a crevice or cleft appear,
As if there were no atmosphere,
Like the young hills drawn
In the dawn
Of kneeling art in Italy,
Unquestioning lines, on a doubtless sky:
Hills lamb-pure as Assisi's saint,
Empty of cloud or dusty taint,
Just a distinct, gray, pinnacled wall
In its very bareness mystical,
As firm and frank as the faith of a child
Undefiled.
Ah this noonday crystalline!
This ring of glory that is mine,
Where the meadow-larks sing,
It is Spring!

Turn to the earth,
And the mirth
Of the scarlet-breast finches in rows on the fence,
Careless of whither or how or whence:
Who find enough fun
In the sun,
Playing keep school in long rows—only play,
For nobody thinks of duty to-day.
Just to be is enough for me,
And drink deep cups of eternity.
A pair of bright blue-birds come into the game,
And a glancing swift as swift as flame;
The exuberant tourney is to strive
Who is most alive,
Who has most of God in his head and heart,
Can capture of mirth the biggest part,
Who to the lists can the most life bring,
Where the meadow-larks sing,
It is Spring!

Another instance of California's local coloring is in the 'Sonnets of Edward Robeson Taylor on some pictures painted by William Keith' (San Francisco: Taylor). Here the local quality appears not merely in the paintings, of which one is reproduced, but in the sonnets, as in the following (p. 25):

THE UNCEASING ROUND.

In centre of the canvas see this pine
All stark in death, with arms in vain appeal
For what it nevermore can taste or feel
Of joys of earth or of the heavens divine.
Straight as in life it stands, still bearing sign
Of noble majesty and dauntless will;
While at its base its elder brothers spill
Their ashes where the grasses kiss and twine.
A glorious redwood centuries have blessed
Uptowers, while with bliss of life possessed
The forest sings in grand, harmonious tone.
And careless men pass by—the children they
Of other children death has made his own,
And who like them shall strive and pass away.

From a point yet farther than California, though not so localized in respect to climate, Mrs. Ella Higginson sends a volume characteristic of Puget Sound, 'When the Birds Go North Again' (Macmillan). Both the prose and the verse of this lady are now well known; and the sole defect she suffers, through isolation from literary centres, does not lie in the want of material or of mental activity, for she has both. If she suffers in any direction, it is because of her distance from an atmosphere of criticism, so that she has to forego that pruning and restraining which she might elsewhere have, and really does not always know what to publish and what to withhold. Much of what she writes rises to a fairly even grade, but other poems are far inferior, and indeed she occasionally, as in her poem called "Hate," utters emotions too extreme to be even called poetic. On the other hand, she has here two sonnets, so noble in conception and execution that, in spite of a few technical defects, they constitute easily the high-water mark of the book, and might serve of themselves to give the author a reputation (p. 139):

YET AM I NOT FOR PITY.

For me there are no cities, no proud halls,
No storied paintings, nor the chiselled snow
Of statues; never have I seen the glow
Of sunset die upon the deathless walls
Of the pure Parthenon; no soft light falls
For me in dim cathedrals, where the low,
Still seas of supplication ebb and flow;
No dream of Rome my longing soul enthralls.
But oh, to gaze in a long tranced delight
On Venice rising from the purple sea!
Oh, but to feel one golden evening pale
On that famed island from whose lonely heights
Dark Sappho sank in burning ecstasy!
But once—but once—to hear the nightingale!

Yet am I not for pity. This blue sea
Burns with the opal's deep and splendid fires
At sunset; these tall firs are classic spires
Of chaste design and marvellous symmetry
That lift to burnished skies. Let pity be
For him who never felt the mighty lyres
Of Nature shake him thro' with great desires.
These pearl-topped mountains shining silently—
They are God's sphinxes and God's pyramids;
These dim-aisled forests His cathedrals, where
The pale nun Silence tiptoes, velvet-shod,
And Prayer kneels with tireless, parted lids;
And thro' the incense of this holy air
Trembling—I have come face to face with God.

We spoke in admiration, some time since, of the translation by Mr. Taylor of the fine sonnets—unique in French literature—of José-Maria de Heredia (San Francisco: Doxey). It is greatly to the translator's honor that he has just issued a second edition of this work with copious and careful revision of his versions. We have compared the two volumes with each other and with the originals, and find the changes in almost every instance an improvement, either in grace or literalness or both combined. More than this, the greater wealth and seriousness of the English tongue give sometimes an advantage which almost balances the greater delicacy and precision of the French. As a reproduction of the various scenes and persons depicted, these sonnets stand alone. Mr. Philip Becker Goetz, in his 'Poems' (Boston: Badger), has also rendered a few of Heredia's sonnets well, but less well than Mr. Taylor.

'Voices of the Morning,' by J. A. Edgerton (Chicago: Kerr), has something of the crudeness of the young radical; but shows, on the whole, a generous and hopeful spirit. The following verses are from his elegy on Henry George (p. 97):

What can we say of thee, but only this?
We had a prophet and we knew him not.
Another age will rate thee at thy worth,
A great, warm-hearted, fearless, honest man;
A nobleman who took his rank from God
And bore it like a king. And, O the poor,
How true a friend they've lost in losing thee!
Who ever plead their cause with tongue and pen,
And gave a plan to help them and the race.

Now, like a warrior on a battle-field
Whose last charge was his best, thy end has come.
Thou sought to raise our great Queen City up
From out the mire, and fought wrong face to face;
And, as thou led the hosts of toilers on,
Against the citadels of fraud and greed,
Just at the hour of seeming victory,
Thy summons came and we were left alone.

A curious and interesting point of an increasing mixture of races may be found in 'Songs from the Ghetto,' by Morris Rosenfeld, with prose translation and glossary by Leo Wiener, instructor in the Slavic Languages at Harvard University (Boston: Copeland & Day). We learn here, better than in any book readily accessible, the secret of that Yiddish or Judeo-German dialect, or group of dialects, of which we hear so much; and as this dialect is presented, so far as possible, in the orthography of ordinary German, the book forms really a primer of the language. Mr. Rosenfeld is of Polish birth, worked for years in a sweater's shop, and is now a journalist. His poems are almost all infinitely sombre, but simple and human; and one understands, after reading them, that verse which says, "If one who is well versed in music were to hear a Jewish song, he could not abstain from shedding tears or from being deeply moved by every sound of it" (p. 45).

'A Century of Indian Epigrams, Chiefly from the Sanskrit of Bhartrihari,' by Paul Elmer More (Houghton), is a work of scholarship and skill, and although Mr. More has not unearthed another Omar Khayyám, there is much in this little volume which is terse, meditative, and telling; the following, for instance (p. iii):

One boasted: "Lo, the earth my bed,
This arm a pillow for my head,
The moon my lantern, and the sky
Stretched o'er me like a purple canopy.

"No slave-girls have I, but all night
The four winds fan my slumbers light."—
And I, astonished: "Like a lord
This beggar sleeps; what more could wealth afford?"

'Gleanings from Poetic Fields,' by Robert Tilney (Philadelphia: Winston), contains memories of Oxford and of Fleet Street, while one at least of the poems was written in camp at Nottoway Court-house, Virginia, during the civil war. The translations which form the greater part of the book have the usual defect of such collections, that they select mainly things rendered a hundred times before, as Schiller's "Thekla's Lament" and Uhland's "Landlady's Daughter." 'Magnolia Leaves,' by Mrs. Mary Weston Fordham (Charleston, S. C.: Walker), is a little book by a colored authoress, with a commendatory preface by Booker T. Washington. The poems are simple, pleasing, and domestic.

In 'The Dream Beautiful, and Other Poems,' by Charles Hamilton Musgrove (Louisville: Morton), the best dream is perhaps in this Ode to Omar Khayyám, which closes with a good and well-phrased thought (p. 26):

Omar, when I have stilled my spirit's fire
To heed the yearning music of your lyre,
I wonder if beyond the mystic veil
You found the region of the Heart's Desire.

I wonder if the faith you kept is best,
If after all those hearts are happiest
Who crown life's little day with feast and song,
Then go contented to their dreamless rest.

. . . . . .

I sometimes stoop above the rose's bed
And gaze into its heart so richly red,
And wonder where can Omar be the while
His garden blooms so bravely round his head;

And then remember how so long, so long,
The dust of earth has stopped his tuneful tongue,
And think how sweet must be his sleep beneath
The everlasting laurels of a song.

RECENT FICTION.

Rupert of Hentzau. By Anthony Hope. Henry Holt & Co.

The Terror. Translated from the Provençal of Félix Gras by Catharine A. Janvier. D. Appleton & Co.

The Instinct of Step-Fatherhood. By Lilian Bell. Harper & Brothers.

Phases of an Inferior Planet. By Ellen Glasgow. Harper & Brothers.

The Fatal Gift. By F. Frankfort Moore. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Her Memory. By Maarten Maartens. D. Appleton & Co.

A Lover's Revolt. By J. W. De Forest. Longmans, Green & Co.

The Deserter, and Other Stories: A Book of Two Wars. By Harold Frederic. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.

We own to a feeling of wrath that the sequel to the 'Prisoner of Zenda' should ever have been thought of. That was a pretty episode as it stood, and its crowning charm was the fine nobility with which the characters made their exits—Flavia wearing her crowns, that of royalty and that other one

of silent grief; Rudolph Rassendyll, with his red Elphberg hair, stepping down and out from Ruritania. The story, which, however interesting, hovered always on the brink of burlesque, became dignified and even affecting by the manner of its close. To reopen the half-shut portal through which two gracious figures were seen receding, waving one another an eternal farewell, is in itself a literary, dramatic, and moral anti-climax which hurts the feelings even before one opens the covers of 'Rupert of Hentzau.' For ourselves, reading has not dispelled the judgment formed beforehand. We liked Flavia well enough not to witness her egregious folly; and Rudolph too well not to dislike having his dashing chatter about himself give place to apotheosizing on the part of his comrades in arms. Old Sapt, indeed, has lost none of his growling wit, nor Rupert of Hentzau any of his gaillard villany. Tarlenheim, who tells the story, is a mush of loyalty; the two new agents of light and darkness—the English valet and the Swiss Bauer—are stagily stiff; and, spite of very clever contrivances in plot and movement, the whole thing reaches the point of bathos till we exclaim in the words of the poet, Herwegh,

> "'Wir haben lang genug geliebt,
> Wir wollen endlich hassen.''

The book, with its predecessor, is published in a handsome new edition, with illustrations by Gibson. We have not yet heard of a street being named for the hero. That may come. What we hope will not come is a sequel to this sequel; but in the last chapter we read that Rudolph's black-haired brother, Lord Burlesdon, has said, "Tell her Majesty that there is still a Rassendyll if she has need of one"—and we tremble lest we be hoping against Hope.

When a new book by Félix Gras is announced, particularly if Mrs. Janvier be the translator, then, in the words that Burne-Jones once wrote on the appearance of Mr. Thackeray's new novel, 'The Newcomes,' "it is time also for the critic altogether to take up a new position, and descend from his seat of judgment to one of testimony." Glad testimony we bear, accordingly, to the power, value, and interest of this second story of the terrible Revolution by Gras. A sequel to 'The Reds of the Midi,' that work beloved of two continents, this book has many of the same characters; but the little peasant hero Pascalet has disappeared to fight for his country on the frontier, and by and by to drift into Napoleon's service, and his little love, the aristocrat Adeline, is the centre of the later story and its blood-curdling adventures. How we shudder when the brutal Surto and La Jacarasse track her to her hiding-place! How we love the good people who at their own risk conceal and shelter her! How the flesh creeps at the horrors dissolving into horrors that long surround her, and how sweet is escape! To leave gory Paris in a carrier's cart—to breathe the fresh country air of the road to Lyons—it is not only Adeline and the motherly Lazuli who feel the relief, it is ourselves; we too are cheered, when afraid, by our honest driver's courage, as we travel slowly towards our very home, Avignon; not so slowly, in truth, as if our good Jean Caritous had not a horse with four white feet, which, as all good Provençaux know, means the right of way over every other carrier on the road. These files of carts we meet are carrying cheese or saffron or madder to Paris; perhaps convent bells to be cast into cannon. Our brave Jean, so soon as he hears their bells jangle and long before they are in sight, cracks out gay songs with his whip-lash, and their drivers answer back with their whips, flicking out each one the song of his region. Even stories of robbers and wolves cannot daunt us—is not Jean Caritous our driver?

It is pleasant to dwell on this pastoral interlude between the awful months in Paris and those in Avignon, where even loyal friendship cannot safely harbor the Aristocrat, but only help her to another flight. We suspect that we shall one day hear more of her, and shall assist to his end her chief persecutor, who remains at large here, but whom no novelist will be content to leave permanently in possession of his neck. The theatrical character of this villain is the only blur on the reality of the story. Amenities we expect to dispense with in a chronicle of the Terror, and we face uncomplainingly, though we may wince, the bloody knives of a hundred assassins and the descriptions of the indescribable; but about Calisto (if one is to step for the briefest space from testimony to judgment) there is a stage-scoundrel air that tries the nerves more than horrors, and gives to this recital the least little quality of factitiousness which was conspicuously wanting in its predecessor. But it yields not at all to that in movement or in poetry—a work that could not have been written by any but a Provençal and a singer, nor put into such English by any but by one who had long and intimately listened to the minstrelsy of the Midi.

In Lilian Bell's short stories there is so much of delicacy, cleverness, and charm that one is tantalized at the narrow missing of complete mastery of her art. Her pictures of Mississippi life in all the "decay and carelessness of the South" are delicious morsels of appreciation. So are some of her sketches of feminine character. Locomotives and strikes she has less happily treated, and she is everywhere more successful in episode than in plot. But it is well, in justice, to remember that she has here and there been hampered by the form of the Christmas story, a species of literature which, as it exists at present, should not emerge from the periodical to be put between covers. To stumble into Christmas candles without warning is too like the shock of an unexpected meeting with Pitcher's Castoria or the habiliments of Plymouth Rock.

We find 'Phases of an Inferior Planet' inferior even to the Planet, which is Earth, and of which to some extent it is. It deals with a heroine who is sorely in need of juvenile discipline, and with a hero for whom a bad habit of writing essays on both sides of a question in college days made it possible that he should become, first a scientist, then an agnostic priest in a ritualistic church where there is a stained-glass window of a smiling Christ in a purple robe. The novelist has undoubtedly thought deeply on many phases of life; but with much that is real there is a mass of shallow science, shallow art, and shallow feeling. What she has treated with thoroughness is the detail of the heroine's life. No woman but one ever had so much printed about her. Indeed, from the internal evidence afforded by that which constitutes the sincerest flattery, we hazard a guess that the author of this novel has read and admires 'The Beth Book.' Mariana Musin is greatly addicted to opaline pallor, green and amber lights in the eyes, violet shadows on her face, and heavy hair; yes, of course, heavy, aureole-like, dry brown hair. The hero reckons among his features eyes with one pupil hazel, the other gray; this is unusual even in heroes, but then Mariana must have had more than the usual number of hands, for we read that "she lifted a glass of sherry, and, lighting a cigarette, sprang upon the music-stool." He and she met by chance upon the fire-escape which constituted the piazza to their home in a Ninth Avenue fourth-story front, and their romance goes forward there among geranium-pots under the chaperonage of the Elevated Railroad, for "Mariana was famished for romance, but not for the romance of the street," having "an instinctive aversion to things common and of vulgar intent." Thus we are continually being reminded what evil she did not do; and, instead of being left free to get what little amusement we might from a few clever epigrams, a few sharp-eyed analyses of human nature, a few well-drawn bits of realism, and a plot not without power, spite of some absurdities, we are kept in a protracted quiver on the edge of things unutterable but half-uttered. Disagreeable rather than immoral, the story is written in a style that includes many kinds of objectionableness.

Compared with nineteenth-century complexity, introspection, and vivisection, a tale of eighteenth-century life in London and Dublin, with its frivolity, scandals, and unabashed rakishness, reads cool, clean, and pleasant. 'The Fatal Gift' has, moreover, other virtues than the unobjectionable relation of vices. It is a lively picture of eighteenth-century manners incidental to a sprightly, even rattling, history of the two beautiful Miss Gunnings. We follow them as they rise from their Irish bog till they set in blazes of ducal glory. We see them unknown, neglected, emerging into fame on the shoulders of Ann Bellamy, the actress, and Tom Sheridan, her manager; then as celebrities, mobbed by admirers, hissed by rivals, lampooned by Grub Street, betted about at White's, fought over at Chalk Farm, supping at Vauxhall, dancing at the Duchess of Bedford's masquerade, converted to the gray garments of grief by Whitefield, dancing back to pink taffeta at the prospect of coronets. Their father, the prototype of the Irish father of fiction and drama, is drawn in all the swelling paternal pride and tearful bombast of that rôle. The mother would not disgrace the pages of Thackeray, as a picture of the maternal toad-eater run incoherently mad. The sweet sagacity of Betty Gunning and the wild Irishry of Maria are happily contrasted, while different from both, yet also sweet, sagacious, and wild Irish, stands out the likeness of Ann Bellamy. It is a taking and well-told story full of Irish wit, and it will have the pleasing consequence of sending its readers to their bookshelves for their Horace Walpole, to renew old acquaintance, and to compare historic gossip with semi-historic fiction.

A story to be read with interest and pleasure is Mr. Maartens's latest one—'Her Memory.' We have not the elaborateness nor the intense qualities of 'God's Fool' or 'The Greater Glory,' but there is a naturalness, a spontaneousness, a healthfulness which are better. One hardly knows why the story is interesting. It is the very slightest. The long mourning of a husband for his wife,

his grief slowly giving way to apathy; the putting his hand to the plough at duty's call, the aftermath of a partly reawakened interest in life; his little girl's progress through her long array of educators; the mother-in-law disapproving but beloved; the worldly, kind, shallow, wise half-love of earlier days who comes to the rescue—there is nothing startling in all this. But there is a grace of epigram, a prick of humor, that lends charm to Mr. Maartens's strength of conviction and lightness to his thoroughness in social studies. We say this with the greater alacrity that we have found the nervous tension of some of his novels an obstacle to satisfaction. His cynicism, though never insincere, has often seemed ill-controlled. In his slighter arraignments of society he is the more impressive for that very lightness of touch. The deep note is not indeed lacking. The widower, at the moment when he half-heartedly remarries, finds that he is an artist, and might well have pursued the art he feared to belittle. The daughter loyally receives her step-mother at the very instant when she has ceased to need one. The half-forlorn suggestion of inopportunity stalking hand in hand with fulfilment is characteristic of Mr. Maartens's genius. His silver linings have ever a cloud. However, as Lady Mary was amiable, shrewd, and most amusing, we may reasonably hope that they all lived happy ever after.

'A Lover's Revolt' is one-fourth novel and three-fourths colored photography, but photography that is picturesque as well as realistic. The subject is the dawning of the American Revolution; the place, naturally, Boston and its suburbs; the time, the months that lay between the closing of the port and the evacuation of Boston, including Lexington, Concord, Bunker Hill, and Boston surrounded. There are face-to-face glimpses of Warren, Gage, Putnam, and Prescott; and there are minor lights unknown to fame, who ride and spy and fight, and who carry on their shoulders the rather uneasy burden of a love-story. Of Boston, abandoned to Tories, trying to keep itself fed and amused, there is an effective, if not fine-lined, sketch; of the battles there are descriptions that take the reader into them more realizingly than many more pretentious accounts. The God-fearing Yankee, the conscienceless, self-seeking Yankee, the slab-sided Yankee with the saintly smile and Roman nose, the courtly, son-of-England Yankee, are here, musket to shoulder, depicted with a naïve energy which carries the reader along through many a literary slough, deriding, perhaps, but arriving. The author's abundant command of Yankee dialect not infrequently overflows into the zone beyond his quotation marks, but what matters it that a man says "shut of" or "a terrible long way," if he takes one bodily through Lexington and Concord on June 17, 1775? Or shall we murmur even though he relapses into modern slang, "clean-shaved mugs," "light-blue optics," or that he writes down a Tory belle as saying, "She is figuring to hook him again," when he has let one see Gen. Howe spring from his seat at the play, shouting, "Officers, to your posts!" in response to the cry of the usher at the door, "The enemy are attacking Bunker Hill"? There is an obvious intention to be just to England, combined with an equally obvious patriotic rage that independence has not made us independent of English opinion. This finds amusing expression in a page of verse following the story. As novel, to sum up, we find this work light in the balance; as a story that says its say vigorously, entertainingly, and (spite of blemishes alluded to) in good, no-nonsense fashion, it may be commended to the Anglo-American alliance. The one-half will enjoy it for its historic remindings, the other for the Yankee dialect it so grandseriously loves.

A list of books that celebrate fighting in Ruritania, France, and Massachusetts, is fitly closed with mention of Mr. Harold Frederic's "Book of Two Wars," the volume being made up of four stories, two of our civil war and two anent the Wars of the Roses. Boys figure as the heroes, and boys, with others, will find good reading in these pages, though in the case of the first story we confess to an old-fashioned scruple as to letting our boys sympathize with desertion or deserters, however we may honor the filial passion. There is always internal evidence of intimate acquaintance which carries its own proof of fidelity when Mr. Frederic writes of life in the early sixties in the interior counties of New York State; and both his American heroes come from Juno Mills, close to the Adirondack region. The change of scene to Bosworth Field and Tewkesbury ushers in picturesque contrast, and here again the author's intelligent pen is seen to be felicitously at home. It did not need the death of Mr. Frederic to lend interest to these stories, but it adds to the regret for his loss, to think how few story-tellers have his beautifully unaffected, impersonal style.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

The possible forms of queer and uncouth beasts were not exhausted, it would seem, by Gothic sculptors. Here are two books, published by R. H. Russell, 'Sybil's Garden of Pleasant Beasts,' by Sybil and Katharine Corbet, and 'An Awful Alphabet,' by Oliver P. Tunk, both containing some monstrosities beside which the grotesques of Notre Dame pale. 'The New Noah's Ark,' by J. J. Bell (John Lane), adds, moreover, some unfabled monsters to its irrelevantly spotted versions of better-known creatures; but it is only fair to say that confusion to the youthful mind is here guarded against to the extent of admitting the gobo's "recent discovery." Some of the nonsense verses which accompany these pictures are better than ordinary. Many a child will smile sadly to read,

> "Some people like the Cod because
> He's good to bake or boil,
> But every child must love the fish
> Who gives such pleasant oil."

Old Mother Goose, though her faults have been so often mercilessly exposed, still comes up smiling. Every holiday gives her one or more new gowns, arrayed in which she takes her old accustomed way straight to the hearts of the little nursery people. Some 'New Mother Goose Pictures' drawn by Chester Loomis show our old favorites, Little Miss Muffet, and Little Bo-Peep, Jack Sprat, Simple Simon, and all the rest, at their usual occupations, and no whit less engaging because drawn with skill and taste. If any child desires to know the further adventures of Little Bo-Peep as she searches for the tails of her unlucky sheep, he will find them told in serio-comic verses in 'Little Bo-Peep Continued,' by R. K. Munkittrick, with pictures by Chester Loomis. Here he will see her on her travels, meeting Old Mother Hubbard and her dog, and having a lift on the white horse of that eccentric lady who added "toe-bells" to her riding outfit. 'Nursery Tales,' told in gayly colored pictures half cut from their pages, ready to make a fine paper-doll game, will amuse the little ones too young to read, while a sage older sister or aunt tries to conceal her interest in "showing them how." All three of these books are published by R. H. Russell.

To criticise a play simply from a reading of its text is rather like judging a pudding from its cook-book recipe; but, whatever its acting qualities, excuse enough may be found for the play of 'Alice in Wonderland' compiled by Emily Prime Delafield (Dodd, Mead & Co.), in the pleasure to be given by the mere assembling of the characters and recitation of some of the poems and dialogue which a whole generation has enjoyed in Lewis Carroll's books. That the sequence of events is quite changed is small matter. One order does as well as another; and, of course, in a play the scene-shifter must be considered. Among useful stage directions would be an indication how the Cheshire cat manages to leave her grin behind her when she disappears. That she does it some way or other is plain from Alice's comment: "A grin without a cat is the most astonishing thing that I've seen in all my life."

"A book of modern fairy tales" is the brief classification, and, perhaps, condemnation, of Barrington Macgregor's 'King Longbeard' (John Lane). But we hasten to add that "for those who like that sort of thing this will be just the kind of thing they will like." It is beautifully printed in clear large type, though insufficiently leaded; the illustrations are by Charles Robinson, fantastic and clever; the text is lively with quips and puns, and sprinkled with quite accidental intimations that the author knows many things which he is too wise to tell—in fairy stories.

The first of its seven short stories gives a name to F. Anstey's book, 'Paleface and Redskin' (D. Appleton & Co.). There is plenty of fun in all the stories, whether of Indian adventure (in the paddock and back garden), of good little girls and slightly blasé fairies, of dear little naughty dogs, of dolls, or sugarplums; and there is besides a quality which even children will often appreciate, and which makes the most infantile subject of interest to their elders, namely, a quickness to discern and deftness in expressing mental processes and motives of action.

A little book called 'Sun, Moon, and Stars' (John Lane) is not an elementary astronomy, but a collection of pictures and verses for children by E. Richardson, of which the first in order happens to be about the heavenly bodies. The verses are middling, and might safely be worse, for it is pretty certain that children will not read them, as they are printed entirely in capitals, and not regular type at that. It would be quite an effort for many a child of eight or ten years to pick out these words, and few children will give themselves the trouble merely to read about skies and woods and sunshine and rain. That taste comes later. The pictures deserve much higher praise, and some of them are delightful, so simple in method—a few lines and spots of black and white, and the whole wide landscape charmingly suggested.

J. T. Trowbridge is too well-known a writer to need much comment. 'Two Biddicut Boys' (The Century Co.) will be welcomed

by that large class of girls and boys who like the modern story of real life. That a lively dog—a circus dog, moreover—is the real hero of the book, will still further commend it.

Old "Brer R'ar" need not be ashamed to recognize one of his relatives in the jolly 'Arkansaw Bear' whose mythical adventures are told by Albert Bigelow Paine (R. H. Russell). The bear Horatio plays "The Arkansaw Traveller" upon his violin while Bosephus, his boy companion, sings improvised verses descriptive of their situation, and so they roam about together making their fortune by their little performances, and amusing each other by conversation betweenwhiles. The numerous pictures are by Frank Ver Beck.

Mr. W. J. Stillman, in the preface to his 'Little Bertha' (London: Grant Richards), utters something very like an apology for having written a "modern fairy story." Really, little apology is needed on that score, for though the language is modern, the elements of the tale are thoroughly time-seasoned—a wise and good father, a gentle and beautiful mother, fairy gifts showered upon Bertha's cradle, an orphaned youth, and a series of tests from each of which she emerges not only triumphant but newly armed; and, finally, as crown and reward of all, marriage with a handsome king. All this is told with serious care, and never a touch of flippancy to make the reader doubt the writer's belief in his own tale, and with no pictures to destroy his trust in the superlative beauty for which all good fairies and all good women are justly celebrated. Truly, the modern element is small here, and reduces itself mainly to a lack of horrors. If there were only a few malicious fairies or wicked mortals who were properly treated as an accompaniment to the wedding gayeties at the end, Mr. Stillman might plausibly pretend that the story was only a translation of a lately discovered Middle-Age manuscript.

A fly's autobiography, 'Buz-Buz,' by Charles Stuart Pratt (Lothrop Publishing Co.), may prove an eye-opener to eager young learners. Such an introduction to the life of one little creature will help them to observe many another for themselves.

A pleasant story of the doings of three little girls and one boy who shared the many joys of country life, is 'Marjory and her Neighbors,' by Louise E. Catlin (Lothrop Publishing Co.). Boating, coasting, skating, picnicking, dolls and pets, all have a record here; while an incident of burglars, and a hair-breadth escape from drowning, serve to keep things from getting monotonous.

Corona and Coronet. By Mabel Loomis Todd. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

The author of this book has chosen an alliterative but apt and descriptive title. She is the helpful companion in the frequent travels of her husband, Prof. David P. Todd, who, being an astronomer set to pursue shadows, cannot long remain at home. She has written an entertaining volume on 'Total Eclipses of the Sun,' and her papers in the *Century* on her experiences in Japan in 1887 are pleasantly remembered. This well-illustrated and indexed volume of nearly 400 pages is a narrative of the Amherst Eclipse Expedition to Japan, in Mr. D. Willis James's schooner-yacht *Coronet*, to observe the sun's total obscuration on the 9th of August, 1896.

Mrs. Todd treats of the ocean voyage from San Francisco to Japan and back; of Hawaii, and of Southern and Northern Japan, or Hondo and Yezo. The eclipse expedition proper consisted of nine persons—the captain and his wife, the astronomer and his wife, an ex-United States navy engineer, and four gentlemen of scientific training, making a very congenial party. The fascinating element of personal adventure is blended with the charm of a clear, straightforward style, and the general arrangement of material is excellent. The overland journey to the Pacific was accomplished in April. While rotary snow-ploughs kept the tracks clear of snow, yet no "cow-catcher" or other machinery could keep off or shovel away pads, pencils, and reporters, for the journalists along the route were unceasing in their desire for portraits and copy. Long before arriving at San Francisco, the one woman of the party had to take "up the flag which the men hauled down," and was left as a lone expert to answer questions about plans, objects, incidents, and personnel.

The passengers soon learned what a superbly seaworthy vessel they were upon. In one trip round the world, four trips to Europe, and two to the West Indies, the *Coronet* never lost so much as a bucket from her deck or met with any serious mishaps. She was dry and comfortable in all weathers, able to keep the sea and make passages with almost a steamer's regularity. Mrs. Todd describes with delight and enthusiasm the equipment and furniture of the dainty sailer. Several chapters are devoted to society, politics, education, and the aspects of nature and man in the Hawaiian republic (as it was then). In these islands the late Miss Kate Field uttered her last words in Mrs. Todd's presence. Of leprosy, the author says:

"No such feeling as we have always connected with this horrible disease, and which poets and novelists have sometimes treated in ghastly fashion, troubles the Hawaiian native. His lack of dread is often the means of his contracting the disease. Transmitted largely through the saliva, all the members of a family, clean and unclean, continue to dip their fingers in the common bowl of *poi*. Unlike the white leprosy of Syria, this form is, thus far, equally incurable."

Yet leprosy alone does not cause death, and children born of leper parents are healthy and often escape the disease.

Four weeks at sea brought the voyagers to the Mikado's domain. The chapter on "Japan Revisited" is very suggestive. The track of the eclipse lay across the northeastern end of Yezo. With all that modern science, Yankee ingenuity, and the last refinements of experimental skill could suggest, the precious minutes of the eclipse were waited for. Meanwhile the ladies in the party visited first southern Hondo, seeing Kioto, Nara, and the Inland Sea, and then the interior of Yezo. The descriptions of the Ainu and their villages are valuable, interesting, and trustworthy. When summer's climax came upon Esashi, the programme was found to have been arranged with exactness long before. At half-past two in the afternoon perceptible darkness crept onward, as the moon moved across the face of the sun till his crescent grew thin and wan. Soon ships, sea, and mountain faded into colorlessness, and a chill fell across the land. Then in a moment unearthly night enveloped all.

"With an indescribable out-flashing at the same instant the corona burst forth in mysterious radiance. But dimly seen through thin cloud, it was nevertheless beautiful beyond description, a celestial flame from some unimaginable heaven. Simultaneously the whole northwestern sky, nearly to the zenith, was flooded with lurid and brilliant orange, across which drifted clouds slightly darker, like flecks of liquid flame or huge ejecta from some vast volcanic hades, the west and southwest being in shining lemon yellow."

Strangely enough, when the tiniest globule of sunlight reappeared, the fair corona and all color in sky and cloud withdrew, and a natural aspect of stormy twilight returned. The corona was noticeably flattened at the poles and extended equatorially. Esashi had vindicated its choice, proving the best place—that is, the clouds on that day were thinnest there. The corona light was not strong enough to be caught on the photographs exposed upon the boats. On land only a few pictures of the blurred image were taken. An experiment for Roentgen rays seemed to indicate their presence in coronal light. Prof. Todd's electrical apparatus demonstrates that a great number of instruments can be employed in recording the corona automatically, thus dispensing with a multitude of assistants and virtually lengthening the precious minutes of totality.

The author is very keen in her perceptions and accurate in her statements and renderings of Japanese words, so much so that it seems a pity that even such slight solecisms as "Yeddo" for Yedo, and "Kuro-Shiwa" for "-shiwo" occur on her pages.

Wild Animals I Have Known, and 200 Drawings. By Ernest Seton Thompson. Scribners. 1898. 8vo, pp. 359.

The motive of this charming book reminds us of the more formal treatise on the personality of animals by Prof. Shaler, reviewed at length in these columns not long ago, though the method is entirely different. Both books bear upon the kinship of man with other animals; bespeak kindly, sympathetic feelings towards our fellow-creatures of a lower order than ourselves; and dwell upon the marked individuality or personal peculiarities which every beast will be found to possess when studied closely enough. Prof. Shaler gave us the more scientific aspect of the theme which Mr. Thompson now presents from a more artistic point of view. The latter strikes his keynote in these passages of his preface, p. 12:

"The fact that these stories are true is the reason why all are tragic. The life of a wild animal *always has a tragic end.*"

"We and the beasts are kin. Man has nothing that the animals have not at least a vestige of, the animals have nothing that man does not in some degree share. Since, then, the animals are creatures with wants and feelings differing in degree only from our own, surely they have their rights."

By way of pointing out an extreme case of human possibility in the brutes, let us ask, who would imagine a Jekyl and Hyde dog? But there are such. Mr. Thompson tells us the story of Wully, the mongrel sheep-dog, and elsewhere speaks of another case (p. 11)—

"a similar yaller dog who long lived the double life—a faithful sheep-dog by day, and a bloodthirsty, treacherous monster by night. Such things are less rare than is supposed, and since writing these stories I have heard of another double-lived sheep-dog that added to its night amusements the crowning barbarity of murdering the smaller dogs of the neighborhood. He had killed twenty and hidden them in a sand-

pit, when discovered by his master. He died just as Wully did."

One can never be indifferent to tragedy, and Mr. Thompson holds our unflagging interest in his stories. He knows his animals as individual characters, and sets forth their lives vividly, making us feel for and with them, through all their vicissitudes to the appointed death by violence. Not that these lives are all sad—on the contrary, there is plenty of fun, and keen enjoyment of living, and development of all sorts of traits; it is the inevitableness of fate that lends a sombre undertone to the whole recital. The treatment of these themes is not less artistic with the pen than with the pencil, in both of which modes of expression Mr. Thompson shows himself easily master of his subject.

The eight stories are of Lobo the wolf, "King of Currumpaw"; Silverspot the crow; Ruggylug the cottontail rabbit; Bingo the dog; the Springfield fox; the pacing mustang; Wully the "yaller" dog above mentioned; and Redruff the partridge. Each is illustrated with one or more full-page plates, which merit more than a mere word of praise. Mr. Thompson is now drawing the best mammals of any American artist; from a strictly technical or zoölogical standpoint they surpass his birds, in fact, and in the present case he has been able to give his fancy free play in depicting the sentiments and passions of animals, and the shifting scenes in their personal lives, as true to nature as their mere forms. It is not easy to pick out one of the stories in point of our remarks, they are all so good; but the Springfield fox particularly arrested our attention and excited our sympathy. Compare the plates of p. 196, p. 202, and p. 218—the cruel complacency and exultation of the first, the cunning and expectancy of the next, the utter woe of the third, where Vixen watches "like Rizpah" by her dead cubs, stretched stiff-legged in the snow—we can even see that their noses are cold!

This is artistic fidelity to nature in high degree—a kind of realism that the technical naturalist requires, to which is added that lifelikeness which satisfies the most ardent imagination. Besides these striking plates, the broad margins of the pages are utilized with more than 150 very telling thumbnail sketches, as a sort of running commentary on the text. Nothing of equal simplicity could be more effective than these little oddities and whimsies. The book is thoroughly good, both in purpose and execution; it should find a wide circle of interested readers, to whose sympathies it appeals so strongly and so humanly.

Music and Manners in the Classical Period. By Henry Edward Krehbiel. Scribners.

Mr. Krehbiel's latest contribution to musical literature consists of chapters on five different subjects, whose chief bond of union is that they relate mainly to the last century. The first part, headed "A Poet's Music," describes a "laborious collection of manuscript music that Gray compiled in Italy while frivolous Horace Walpole was eating iced fruits in a domino to the sound of a guitar." This collection, nine volumes, was given by Mr. Bangs, the auctioneer, to Mrs. C. M. Raymond (Annie Louise Cary), from whose hands they passed to the shelves of Mr. Krehbiel. His detailed description of these volumes most readers will probably pass over as they do the catalogue of ships in the 'Iliad.' The chapter discussing Gray's musical taste will entertain antiquarians only. With the chapter "Last Century Singers" more interesting ground is reached. That it was "the day of artificiality in music as well as in manners" is an assertion in proof of which some curious facts are cited, such as this: "Though half of the singers were men and half women, nine-tenths of the voices were sopranos and contraltos." The second section of Mr. Krehbiel's book is devoted to an examination of a diary which Haydn kept in his first visit to London in 1791-2, and which Pohl utilized in his book, 'Mozart and Haydn in London.' It contains some quaint details, ranging from musical impressions to recipes for preserving milk. A special chapter treats of "His English Love," a flirtation with an Englishwoman whose letters to Haydn are here printed—for no obvious reason, as they are stupid and illiterate and throw no new light on the composer.

In "Social and Artistic Salzburg" Mr. Krehbiel gives an amusing description of the Mozart festival at Salzburg, which, though it took place in 1891, was essentially mediæval in its atmosphere—including that of the small theatre, which apparently had not been renovated for centuries. Under the head of "Da Ponte in New York," an interesting character, half artist, half vagabond, the librettist of Don Giovanni, is freshly revealed. Though he lived for years in New York and was buried here, Mr. Krehbiel was not able to find his grave after devoting weeks to the search. The account of his life and ambitions makes the most entertaining pages in this volume and embodies the materials for a romance. There are chapters on "The Beethoven Museum at Bonn" and "The Influence of Goethe and Liszt," but next to the Da Ponte chapters the most valuable portion of the book relates to Alexander Wheelock Thayer, who devoted his whole life to preparing a biography of Beethoven. Of this Mr. Krehbiel is at present preparing a condensed edition for the Scribners. From notebooks of Thayer placed at his disposal, several pages of details regarding Beethoven are here printed, some of them new, including the confession that his favorite among his symphonies was the "Eroica."

The Encyclopædia of Sport. Edited by the Earl of Suffolk and Berkshire, Hedley Peek, and F. G. Aflalo. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898. 2 vols.

The best books grow; they are not made. This encyclopædia, issued in parts during the past two years, and now complete in two well-proportioned quartos, owes its excellence not only to the editors and their numerous collaborators, but also to the time and country that produced it. No nation has shown so deep-rooted and widespread love for out-door sport as the mother country. No period has produced a larger number of creditable and entertaining books on life in the open air than the present. Out of this literature, composed of series of books like the Badminton Library, and of single volumes like Jefferies's 'Red Deer,' Buxton's 'Short Stalks,' and Whymper's 'Scrambles amongst the Alps,' there has grown an authoritative and instructive work of reference, which at the same time illustrates vividly the superabundant vigor and daring that have taken the Briton to every quarter of the globe, in search of the pleasure that is never separate from toil and hardship.

The wanderings of the feet of the young men who have listened to the call of the red gods, and the contributions to our scientific knowledge that they have brought back, are alike recorded in a manner concise and entertaining. One will look long to find more accurate pictures, more exact descriptions of rare birds and beasts, than are contained in these pages. Seldom do books of adventure contain a more thrilling passage than that in which Mr. F. C. Selous describes the attack of a hungry lioness; and in many articles bits of personal experience make the reader forget that the pages are those of an encyclopædia.

As a book of reference, it is well up to date. Championships and athletic records are revised to the time of the publication of the separate parts. The triumphs of the American jockey Tod Sloan, at Epsom, and the speed of the stallion Star Pointer at Boston are duly mentioned. The 'Encyclopædia' is especially strong in the number of signed articles and in the names that are appended to them. Of the one hundred and eighty contributors a large number are recognized, even on this side the Atlantic, as experts. The editors have been fairly successful in securing from these writers a treatment of each subject reasonably full and explicit, and yet proportioned to its importance and the character of the work. There are some marked exceptions, and we wonder if the death of the titled editor before the completion of the work accounts for the failure to condense the elaborate but diffusely written article on yachting which Lord Dunraven contributed to the last number. Occupying twice the space of any other contribution, it lacks the glossary and bibliography usually appended. For either of these the reader could well exchange the column in which is detailed the history of the manufacturing firm that supplied the *Valkyrie* with sails.

There has been an effort to have the book meet the requirements of Americans as well as Englishmen. Col. Roosevelt has written eleven articles relating to sport in the United States. A dozen of our countrymen have treated such subjects as Football, Lawn Tennis, Rowing, and Yachting from our standpoint. Yet the work constantly reminds one of the different and far more serious way in which the subject as a whole is regarded abroad. It is well instanced by the inclusion of an article on a local game like Knurr and Spell, by the extended treatment of First Aid, *i. e.*, what should be done in case of accidents, and by the exclusion of popular juvenile sports, like marbles and kite-flying.

An index with more than three thousand entries ought to meet all requirements. It does not. A hasty trial of it shows no clue to the important paragraph on Basket Ball found on page 510 of the second volume, no allusion under Hare and Hounds to the detailed information given in the same volume about that famous game as now played at Rugby, and no reference to the page where, under the heading Obsolete Sport, may be found an account of bull-baiting as practised in England at the beginning of this century. Despite the defects and limitations mentioned, the mechanical execution of the work is so fine, its forty full-page plates are so beautiful, and the merits of the text are so great, that the holiday season rarely pre-

sents a worthier claimant for the attention of lovers of good books.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacon, E. M. Historic Pilgrimages in New England. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Bangs, J. K. Peeps at People. Harpers. $1.25.
Bell, J. J. New Noah's Ark. John Lane. $1.25.
Benn, A. W. The Philosophy of Greece. London: Grant Richards.
Benson, E. F. The Money Market. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Bierce, Ambrose. Fantastic Fables. Putnams. $1.
Bismarck, Otto von. Reflections and Reminiscences. 2 vols. Harpers. $7.50.
Briefwechsel zwischen Franz Liszt und Hans von Bülow. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Brontë, Charlotte. Jane Eyre. 2 vols. [Thornton Edition.] London: Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners. $4.
Bülow, Hans von. Briefe und Schriften. Vol. IV. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Carrington, Fitz Roy. The Queen's Garland. Chosen Lyrics of the Reign of Queen Elizabeth. R. H. Russell. 75c.
Carroll, Stella W., and Clarence F. Around the World. Second Book. Morse Co.
Castlemon, Harry. The Ten-Ton Cutter. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Church Sociables and Entertainments. Doubleday & McClure Co. 50c.
Clarke, W. J. Commercial Cuba. Scribners. $4.
Coe, C. H. Red Patriots. The Story of the Seminoles. Cincinnati: Editor Publishing Co.
Cooper, J. F. The Last of the Mohicans. Leach, Shewell & Co. 50c.
Corvo, Baron. Stories Toto Told Me. John Lane. 35c.
Davis, Prof. J. D. A Dictionary of the Bible. Philadelphia: Westminster Press.
Davis, R. H. The Cuban and Porto Rican Campaigns. Scribners. $1.50.
Dickens, Charles. A Child's History of England. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners. $1.50.
Dixon, Prof. W. M. In the Republic of Letters. Scribners. $1.25.
Dobson, Austin. Miscellanies. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Drawings by W. G. Smith, C. H. Johnson, and T. de Thulstrup. E. R. Herrick & Co. Each $5.
Dresser, H. W. Voices of Hope, and Other Messages from the Hills. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.50.
Drummond, W. H. Phil-o-rum's Canoe, etc. Poems. Putnams. 75c.
Dumas, Alexandre. La Question d'Argent. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Evans, Prof. E. P. Beiträge zur Amerikanischen Litteratur- und Kulturgeschichte. Stuttgart: Cotta; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Field, Lilian F. An Introduction to the Study of the Renaissance. Scribners. $1.50.
Fischer, Prof. Rudolf. Zu den Kunstformen des Mittelalterlichen Epos. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.
FitzGerald, Edward. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. Decorated by W. B. Macdougall. Macmillan. $3.50.
Gates, Ellen M. H. On Christmas Day. Putnams. 50c.
Gibson, Edward, Lord Ashbourne. Pitt: Some Chapters of his Life and Times. Longmans, Green & Co.
Gowdy, Jean L. Ideals and Programmes. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 75c.
Grahame, Kenneth. Dream Days. John Lane. $1.25.
Green, Prof. A. H. First Lessons in Modern Geology. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Guiney, Louise L. "England and Yesterday." A Book of Short Poems. London: Grant Richards.
Gulland, W. G. Chinese Porcelain. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Hall, Tom. The Little Lady, Some Other People, and Myself. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Hamersley, J. H. The Seven Voices. Putnams. $1.75.
Hampton, Isabel A. Nursing: its Principles and Practice. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders.
Hemenway, Crabtree. Doomsday. Boston: Copeland & Day. 50c.
Hill, Grace L. Lone Point. A Summer Outing. Philadelphia: A. J. Rowland. $1.50.
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Hotchkin, Rev. S. F. The Living Saviour. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 50c.
Howard, Gen. O. O. Fighting for Humanity; or, Camp and Quarter-Deck. F. T. Neely.
Hull, Eleanor. The Cuchullin Saga in Irish Literature. London: David Nutt.
Hume, M. A. S. The Great Lord Burghley. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
James, Alice L. Catering for Two. Putnams. $1.25.
Jefferson, Rev. C. E. Quiet Talks with Earnest People in my Study. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Lane-Poole, Stanley. Saladin, and the Fall of the Kingdom of Jerusalem. [Heroes of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
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Little, A. J. Through the Yang-tse Gorges. 3d ed. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York; Scribners. $2.50.
Longfellow, W. P. P. The Column and the Arch. Scribners. $2.
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Macgregor, Barrington. King Longbeard. John Lane. $1.50.
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McMahon, Prof. James, and Snyder, Virgil. Elements of the Differential Calculus. American Book Co. $2.
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Morgan, Rev. T. J. The Negro in America. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Newland, Simpson. Paving the Way. A Romance of the Australian Bush. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Nursery Tales. R. H. Russell.
Pendleton, Louis. Lost Prince Almon. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Pennington, Jeanne G. Some Marked Passages, and Other Stories. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Perry, Lilla C. Impressions. A Book of Verse. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Philipps, Dr. L. M. The Mind Reader. F. T. Neely.
Pierson, Rev. A. T. Catharine of Siena. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 50c.
Pierson, Rev. A. T. In Christ Jesus; or, The Sphere of the Believer's Life. Funk & Wagnalls. Co. 60c.
Poulsson, Emilie. Child Stories and Rhymes. Boston: Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Powell, J. W. Truth and Error; or, The Science of Intellection. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.75.
Prothero, R. E. The Works of Lord Byron. Vol. II. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
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Ramsay, W. M. Was Christ Born at Bethlehem? London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
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The Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts XIX. and XX. Putnams. Each $1.
The Frank Lockwood Sketch Book. London: Edward Arnold.
The Life and Teachings of Jesus Christ. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
The Twentieth Century New Testament. Part I. London: Mowbray House.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vols. XXXI. and XXXII. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 22, 1898.

The Week.

The new Cuban tariff which is to go into force on January 1 appears, so far as can be judged by the abstract published, to be honestly and intelligently drafted in order to meet its professed purposes. These are, in the first place, of course, to raise sufficient revenue; then to afford Cubans every advantage possible in the struggle to restore their prostrate agriculture. This end is aimed at by putting agricultural implements and cattle on the free list, and by reducing the rates on "alimentary substances" to an average of about 25 per cent. ad valorem. If, in addition to these great reductions in customs duties, steps are taken, as they should be, to modify or repeal the onerous system of internal taxes under which all Cuban industries and professions have groaned for so many years, the fiscal emancipation of the island will have been well begun.

Spain announces that she will pay the January coupon of the Cuban debt, and hopes to make equitable arrangements with the bondholders to discharge or fund the whole. The Minister of Finance cheerfully forecasts a great revival of industry and commerce within the Peninsula, now that the long agony of insurrection and war is over. This is not, or need not be, mere boasting. It is the belief not simply of Spanish politicians but of Spanish business men as well. The meeting of delegates from Spanish chambers of commerce, held at Saragossa last month, thirty-three out of thirty-five being represented, expressed every confidence in the recuperative forces of the nation, counting upon "the resources of the soil, and upon the laborious and thrifty habits of the middle and lower classes." It was also the belief of this gathering of representative business men of Spain that the country would gain, in the end, by ridding itself of colonies of which the "ingratitude had been more than demonstrated, and which had cost Spain more than they were worth, in every point of view."

The plans for an increase of the army which were laid before the House committee on military affairs last week are more portentous in what they imply in the future than in what they call for at present. Briefly, they call for an army of 100,000 men, but the statement which Gen. Corbin made indicates that this number will not be nearly sufficient. The first requirement is 50,000 men to restore and maintain order in Cuba. This is the number estimated to be necessary by our officers now in the island. They may not all be needed there, but they must be in readiness somewhere. As to the Philippines, said Gen. Corbin, Gen. Otis, now in command there, has reported that 25,000 men would be needed. In Porto Rico, it was believed that the 6,000 men now in the service there would be sufficient. The estimated requirement, therefore, on the lowest scale of safety, was 81,000 men for foreign service, leaving a smaller army for home service than we had before the war with Spain, and making no allowance whatever for Hawaii. Our customary force since the end of the civil war has been 25,000 men. When the fortification bill was passed, there was a slight addition made to the artillery arm, and this was thought by the department too small for the efficient operation of the service. In short, 30,000 men were deemed by good authorities requisite for the protection of the frontier and of the seacoast, for Alaska, and for internal police duty of the kind rendered when President Debs took charge of all the railroads entering Chicago.

Two questions connected with the subject press for an immediate answer, viz., how are men to be obtained? and how are they to be paid and maintained? The horrors of service in tropical countries have been experienced, and painted in such colors that recruits cannot be obtained in anything like the required number at the wages of $13 per month. The pay was raised 20 per cent. for the limited period of the war with Spain. The increase will terminate when the treaty of peace is signed. Of course, Congress will renew it for those who are to serve in the tropical countries, and probably for all, as all will be liable to such service. But is very improbable that an increase of 20 per cent. will bring volunteers for service in the Philippines or in the West Indies. It is more likely that 50 per cent. increase of pay will be required. Congress would not dare to resort to conscription to obtain soldiers to fight Cuban bushwhackers or Aguinaldo's Malays on the other side of the Pacific. No member of Congress could keep his seat after voting for such a measure. Therefore, the raising of the army to 100,000 men is a question of money entirely, and it remains to be seen what amount of money will tempt men to brave the climatic perils of our new possessions and responsibilities. The pay of 100,000 men at $13 per month is $15,600,000 per year. An increase of the pay by only 20 per cent. brings it to $18,700,000, which is within $6,000,000 of the entire cost of the military establishment before the war with Spain. What will be the cost of the total establishment on the new basis of 100,000 men, of whom 81,000 are to serve at a greater or less distance from the United States? It can hardly be less than $150,000,000. The war with Spain did not cost much more. It is now proposed to add to the annual expenses of the nation for governing her colonies a sum nearly as large as we paid for the privilege of fighting her. The more we look at it, the more we think that she has the best of the bargain in the outcome of the Paris conference.

We like Senator Hanna's straightforward method of coming promptly to the front with his bill for ship subsidies. It interprets expansion by one who knows it, and has worked it, from the inside. It reduces humanity and glory to terms of cold cash. Next to the President, if, indeed, not in advance of him, Mr. Hanna has known more about the promptings of Duty and Destiny than any other man; and now he clears up all doubt about the nature and operation of those mysterious entities. With characteristic bluntness, Senator Hanna lets the country see that Duty means a grant of public money for him and his associates, and that Destiny means subsidies, charters, concessions, contracts, commissions, canals, railways, docks, mines, plantations—all for those who first saw the possibilities of the glory-crowned heights, and then persuaded President McKinley to mount, of course with great "reluctance," to a place by their side. What makes Senator Hanna's subsidy bill particularly unblushing in its impudence is the fact that now, if ever in all our history, American shipping is beyond the need of governmental aid of any kind. The stock argument has been for years that our shipbuilders needed subsidies because we could not build iron ships as cheaply as England. But we have notoriously changed all that. We can now underbid the world in iron and steel products. Did not an American ship sail into the Clyde only the other day, with a thousand tons of American ships' plates on board, under consignment to English builders? Did not our noble President only on Monday allude to this fact in triumph? Hanna must have bit his lips, we admit, over the President's "break."

The refusal of the House last week to take up the bill for the further restriction of immigration probably signifies its ultimate failure. The measure has lost ground ever since it passed both branches of Congress by large majorities in the last days of Cleveland's second administration and was blocked by his veto. The marked decline in the number of immigrants coming to

this country of late years, and the failure of better times as yet to swell the tide materially, have rendered rather ridiculous the old alarm lest the nation should be swamped by these newcomers from Europe. The war with Spain and its results have also served to weaken the agitation for restriction. Here we are taking under our care many millions of most ignorant people in distant quarters of the globe, and confident that we can "carry the blessings of civilization" to hordes of barbarians, and yet the agitators would have us believe that we cannot admit a few scores of thousands of uneducated Europeans a year without being ruined. It is a little too much for a "nation of seventy millions of people" to make such a humiliating confession as this.

Senator Turpie made a strong argument last week against Senator Morgan's Nicaragua Canal bill. Premising that he (Turpie) was in favor of a canal, to be owned by the United States, he proceeded to dissect the pending measure, in order to find out where the ownership would finally lodge. The Morgan bill is based on the concession granted by Nicaragua to the Maritime Canal Company. This charter provides, in the second article, that the canal shall not be transferred to any government or foreign public Power. This is the first obstacle to ownership by the United States. The fifty-fourth article provides that, at the expiration of ninety-nine years, the canal shall become the absolute property of the republic of Nicaragua, without any compensation whatever to the company. Provision is made, however, that the republic of Nicaragua shall lease the canal to the company for ninety-nine years more, at a rental of 25 per cent. of the net earnings. At the expiration of the second term of ninety-nine years, the canal is to belong to Nicaragua without either compensation or renewal of lease. This does not look much like a canal owned by the United States, nor does the charter contain any provision by which such ownership can ever be acquired. The question whether the Maritime Company's charter was forfeited, or would be forfeited next October, was one to be determined, not by the United States Congress or Government, but by a court of arbitration, expressly provided for in the charter itself. No action taken by us could alter that fact or influence the decision of the tribunal. Mr. Turpie denied the constitutionality of the pending bill proposing to give a Government guarantee to the bonds of a private corporation. No such thing had ever been done or dreamed of before, and no warrant for it could be found anywhere. The speech seems to have had a rather sobering effect on Morgan himself, for he made no reply to Turpie's arguments, but addressed himself to the unbecoming behavior of W. R. Grace, and to the rights of the republic of Costa Rica, and other side issues.

Economy is one of those "parochial questions" that are too insignificant for consideration by a great nation which is "expanding." Washington observers report that one notable feature of the expansion propaganda is the contempt everywhere expressed for the idea of keeping the running expenses of the Government down to moderate figures. As a dispatch to the Boston *Advertiser* puts it, "In the face of the tremendous increase of expenses incident to the subjugation of our new acquisitions, it seems too laughable to have an eye on the expenses at home"; and the prediction is made that "the budget for next year will fairly take the breath out of people who have not been expanded into the new view of things." It has been increasingly difficult for some years to secure frugality in administrative expenses, and those who advocate economy will stand no chance of getting attention hereafter. What is a little matter of an additional twenty-five, fifty, or even a hundred millions of dollars a year to "a nation of seventy millions of people"?

Mr. Bryan, on the occasion of his retirement from the military service, puts himself in the forefront of the battle against imperialism, expansion, proconsular government, and the whole McKinley programme of dealing with the results of the war. In this he is substantially right, and we shall welcome his aid as we should that of any other man of influence, whatever we may deem his errors in other matters of national concern. Very likely he hopes to lead the Democratic party on this issue in the next national campaign. But this he will hardly be able to do, since the great mass of the anti-expansionists in the Eastern States of Independent or Republican leanings would fear to cast their votes for him lest they should contribute to a revival of the silver craze. Moreover, the Eastern Democrats themselves would hesitate to follow Mr. Bryan even on a platform that was silent on the money question. The only difficulty that the case presents is that of finding a candidate of sufficient prominence to take Mr. Bryan's place. Mr. Bryan's deliverance will perhaps exercise some influence on those Democrats in the Senate who are still wavering, and have not made up their minds whether to join the imperialist procession or not.

A nonsensical idea is afloat in the newspapers importing that the President is embarrassed to find a person suitable to fill the position of Ambassador to Great Britain, as possessing both the intellectual equipment for the place and a large fortune besides. Probably this notion was conceived by some candidate who has a larger stock of the latter than of the former qualifications, and whose imposing dinners are his principal distinction. It is, perhaps, worth while to show what a flimsy basis this vulgar idea rests upon. The truth is, that not one of our Ministers to England in recent years has been a man of any considerable means, unless possibly Mr. Hay may be so considered. Going back to the time of Charles Francis Adams, who are the men that can be recalled as having shed lustre on the office? The names of Motley, Lowell, Phelps, and Bayard are the ones most readily recalled, none of whom was a rich man. Besides these were Reverdy Johnson, Robert C. Schenck, Edwards Pierrepont, William Welch, and Robert Lincoln, not one of whom could be accounted a rich man. Hence the latter-day conception that somebody ought to be appointed Ambassador to Great Britain on account of his dollars, or that some other man should not be appointed because of his lack of dollars, is as baseless as it is grovelling and un-American.

The remarkable silence about the successor whom the new Legislature of this State is to elect to Mr. Murphy in the United States Senate continues, though the assembling of the Legislature is only ten days away. Scarcely a word on the subject is heard in any quarter. Many columns are devoted in the newspapers daily to speculation and gossip and views about Gov. Roosevelt's appointments, but the reporters are not able to find anybody who has anything to say about the senatorship. Is Mr. Root still a candidate? Is Mr. Depew "sure" of getting the place? Has Mr. Odell decided that, after all, he may be able to accept it? Mr. Platt comes and goes, holds long consultations with the new Governor, decides upon the organization of the new Legislature, but says not a word, apparently, about the senatorship. As for the Republican members of the Legislature, if one of them has a candidate in mind for whom he wishes to vote, he has kept the name a profound secret. Was there ever before such a dense silence as this on the eve of the election of a United States Senator in any State? It seems to show that, however the Old Man may be faring in his efforts to have a voice in the appointments of the new Governor, he has the senatorship completely in his own hands. Whoever gets that office will receive it as a direct personal gift from the boss.

It is not surprising that Senator Quay desired to have his trial postponed till after District Attorney Graham's term had expired. The language which Mr. Graham uses in his formal answer, filed

in court on Monday, is the most unpleasant ever directed against a United States Senator, and the most extraordinary on that account in the court annals of this country. What could be more merciless as well as more terrifying than the following about the records of the People's Bank:

"The books show that hundreds of thousands of dollars of public money deposited in the People's Bank were set apart for the use of M. S. Quay, and used by him; and that he was charged no interest thereon. The books show that hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of stocks were bought for M. S. Quay with this money. That whenever he failed to use his full allowance of public money thus set apart for him, interest was carefully calculated upon the balance not used by him in the purchase of stocks, and paid to the State Treasurer."

Well may the retiring District Attorney say that he would have failed in his duty had he not proceeded against Quay under such circumstances, and, outside of Pennsylvania, it would seem to be needless for him to say that he "has no other purpose than that of bringing to justice persons who, the respondent believes, have persistently violated the laws of the commonwealth, and used the public moneys of the State as though they were part of their own private property." His rebuke to the court which granted the stay that enabled Quay to say that the "damned case is over," is equally forcible and just, for it was indeed a proceeding which "interrupted the regular and orderly progress of the administration of justice in the lower courts, and was calculated to do irreparable injury, and to make it impossible to successfully prosecute persons of wealth and power."

When trouble arose in Illinois over the "importation" of colored laborers from Alabama to take the places of white strikers in coal-mines, the New Orleans *Picayune* predicted that similar difficulties would arise in other Northern States from the readiness of black men to work for lower wages than whites, and the temptation for employers to save money by hiring the cheaper class. West Virginia is not in the North, but it has a smaller percentage of negroes in its population than any other commonwealth south of the Potomac, and its conditions approach more nearly to those of Pennsylvania and Ohio than to the state of things among its Southern neighbors. Trouble has now arisen in West Virginia over the importation of negro miners. The operators in the Kanawha district, claiming that more men are needed than are now employed or can be secured in the State, recently sent an agent to Richmond to hire Virginia negroes, and two carloads have already arrived. As might have been expected, the white miners do not like the prospect of competition from the negroes, and the President of the State organization of the United Mine-Workers has appealed to Gov. Atkinson to stop further importation of such laborers. Gov. Atkinson has shown that he is not "up to date." He weakly replied that there was no law to prevent the coming or bringing of workingmen from other States, and that consequently he could do nothing in the premises. This official actually seems to think that the duty of an Executive is to enforce the laws—and only such laws as have been already enacted. What a slow-going old fogy Atkinson must seem to Tanner!

After the Populists were badly beaten at the November election, the people of Kansas congratulated themselves that they had practically done with that party, as it could do little further harm in the few remaining weeks of Gov. Leedy's administration. But they did not make due allowance for the mischief-making character of the average Populist official. Although the present Populist Legislature must expire by constitutional limitation within a fortnight, and no interest of the State requires the immediate meeting of this dying body when the regular session of a new Republican Legislature is at hand, Gov. Leedy last week issued a proclamation convening these discredited members on the 21st of December, to pass various measures favored by the defeated Populist party. The chief object nominally aimed at is the passage of "suitable legislation for the regulation of railroad charges," and in his proclamation the Governor professes to have assurances that such legislation can be secured. This is the most impudent performance in the whole history of the Populist party, and justifies the general indignation which it has caused outside the little band of leaders who are responsible for it. The Legislature has been repudiated not only by the people of Kansas, but also by the Populists themselves, who defeated the renomination of almost every representative from that party. A large number of these members have been morally convicted of bribe-giving and bribe-taking, upon the sworn testimony of many of their fellow-members.

The harsh treatment which one of our most eminent local statesmen, the Hon. Mike Dady of Brooklyn, has experienced in Cuba is likely to convince him and other enthusiastic expansionists that our new possessions are in danger of being closed to real enterprise. Mike, being out of a job in these parts, because of the dominance of political influences with which he is not in sympathy, turned his eyes to Havana soon after Spain lost possession of Cuba, and began to examine it as a field for "plums." He established friendly relations with the expiring autonomist Council in Havana, and on Friday last induced it to award him a $12,000,000 contract for a sewer system of the city. Mike went to bed that night the most jubilant expansionist the world has yet seen. But on Monday Gen. Clous, of the American Commission in Cuba, called the attention of the head of the expiring government, Gen. Castellanos, to the Dady contract, convincing him so thoroughly of its hasty and ill-considered character that he decided at once to order the Council to annul it, which it must do. He has also decided to issue a general prohibition against all such acts during the remaining days of the Council, which expires on January 1. Now, we should like to ask, in the name of all the Mikes, What kind of expansion do you call this?

Sir William Harcourt has resigned the Liberal leadership in England. Sir William is a charming man, but only when he pleases. His defects of manner are among the most notorious things in his career. They have been the one impediment to his success in public life. He is an incomparable debater, both on the stump and in the House. Men of all parties in the House are delighted when he rises with hostile intent, and cheers from all quarters are sure to greet the play of his bludgeon. His talents as a constructive legislator are also of a very high order. They were, perhaps, a little obscured in Gladstone's lifetime by Gladstone's still greater talents in the same direction; but his exploit, after Gladstone's disappearance, in drafting and passing by a very small majority the death-duties bill, in spite of frantic Tory opposition, is justly considered one of the greatest parliamentary feats of the century. Much as they have complained of it, the Conservatives, great as is their strength, have never ventured to disturb it. He is, in fact, a first-rate parliamentary leader as far as ability to lead goes. But, ever since Lord Rosebery resigned, in 1895, when Sir William assumed the first place in the party, the latter has suffered from a trouble that dates back to 1874, when, rightly or wrongly, he is believed to have wavered a little between Gladstone and Disraeli. This little rift in his lute was widened during the home-rule agitation. People never thoroughly believed in Sir William's conversion. His home-rule speeches always had a perfunctory sound, and his private conversation did nothing to put fire into them. Under his leadership, home rule as an article of the Liberal creed became very languid, and in politics no party likes to seem to hold anything languidly. He was too much of an Englishman ever to win the Irish even by pretence. Nothing else was substituted that was calculated to stir the Liberal blood. The trouble about manners, too, began in Gladstone's day. It reached a savage point with Lord Rosebery, both in Gladstone's cabinet and after he had succeeded to the leadership. The two men have not spoken to each other for several years.

MEMORANDA.

The treaty has been signed by the Spaniards, and our Peace Commissioners are bringing it home for ratification by the Senate. The wretched man who spread the report that they were coming home in an English or German or anything but an "American" steamer, we shall deal with later. We presume the treaty is now "sure to pass," and that anything that can be done or will be done hereafter in opposition to expansion will be done by some alteration of its provisions. But before it is finally laid away in our archives as the "supreme law of the land," we may be allowed to say a word of what is passing in the minds, and has taken root in the memories, of a comparatively small, but absolutely large, number of Americans who love their country but have "got left." They also are entitled to some record.

In the first place, they wish that the person who, before the war began, received a private letter of the Spanish Ambassador in Washington, knowing it to have been stolen from the mails, and, instead of returning it to the writer as soon as he ascertained his name, with his compliments, read it through, and then proceeded to use its contents for the injury of the writer, had been William McKinley of Canton, Ohio, and not William McKinley of the United States. Why they wish this, we need not explain.

In the next place, they wish that after Sagasta had acceded on paper to the first demands of William McKinley of the United States, and William McKinley had expressed his satisfaction with his answer, his cordial sympathy with the difficulties of his position, and his desire to aid him in his "herculean task," and, then, at the end of three months, informed Congress that he "had exhausted his powers," and encouraged Congress to slaughter Spaniards and destroy their property—they wish, we say, that he had informed Congress, as the representatives of a free people, how he had "exhausted his powers," considering that the "exhaustion" was to have such fearful consequences.

In the third place, they wish, since the terms of peace with the Spaniards were settled unalterably before the Commissioners left Washington, that they could have been then and there set on paper and transmitted to Madrid, or other appointed place, for simple acceptance. They wish this in order to have saved the Spaniards the humiliation and anguish of sitting two months at a table in front of the Americans, to hear from their conquerors the well-known story of their helplessness and of the unimportance of any wishes they might express. There was, to this portion of the public, an unhappy resemblance between the sessions of the commission and a cat playing with a mouse. The wretched Spaniards were kept there simply that their victors might see them kick and squeal. The Hon. Whitelaw Reid was every day telegraphing to his paper how "firm" the American Commissioners were, and how badly the Spaniards felt, in characteristic ignorance of how it all looked to people who loved honor more than a good bargain. We find in the Century Dictionary that "negotiation" means "mutual discussion and arrangement of the terms of a transaction or agreement." There was no such negotiation in Paris. There was simply the communication, by a conqueror, to a most miserable vanquished and impoverished man, of the terms on which he could save a portion of his clothing and his life.

Finally, the fantastical people aforesaid wish to put on record an expression of their regret that a "war for humanity," which is, of course, a necessary war, should have been made an instrumentality for diffusing through the country, and even for having shouted from the pulpit, proclaimed from the universities, and talked by "honorable women not a few," the doctrine that any war that the class of men who carry on politics at Washington chooses to bring on, must be good for the character of any young man who shoulders a musket in it. Worse still—that a young man who follows an honest industry, to support his family and provide for his old age, declines morally if he does not, at some period in his life, take arms and kill somebody at the command of the politicians aforesaid.

Eighteen hundred years ago, or thereabouts, a pagan Roman jurist said that to do justly and be a good citizen was to live honestly, to give every one his due, and to injure no man. The Jewish moralist, long before Christ, expanded this into doing justly, loving mercy, and walking humbly with God. But, 1900 years after Christ, it has been discovered in America, of all countries in the world, that more than this is necessary; that a young man's moral nature deteriorates if, in addition to earning an honest livelihood and meeting all the responsibilities of civil life, he does not take arms once in a while and kill anybody that Morgan or Gorman or Platt or Hanna points out to him. All this must be said now, so that the future historian may not suppose that — at this tremendous crisis in the nation's life — honor and justice were left without witnesses, and that we all supposed it was the bullies and not the meek who are to inherit the earth.

A NEW KIND OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

The number of things, in the way of comfort and convenience, which are being supplied to the inhabitants of cities every day, is so great, and they owe their possibility so much to the fact that a large population is concentrated in one place, that the attention of municipal reformers has long been occupied with the question who should own them. As a general rule, if private individuals own them they insist on being protected, by a monopoly, against competition. But they are no sooner protected by a monopoly than the citizens are exposed to disregard of their wishes, exorbitant charges, and, above all, indifference to improvement in methods or in service. The private individual or corporation is concerned in the main about profits; he has no motive for improvement except a prospect of increased profits. Consequently, however popular he may have been when he first introduced his convenience, he becomes before long very unpopular, on account of his unwillingness to "progress"—that is, to give the public more than he originally bargained for. Finding public opinion pressing on him, he then, at least in American cities, takes refuge in corrupt alliances with the city authorities, who protect him solely on condition of sharing his gains. In the majority of American cities this is very much the state of things to-day. In fact, there are but few cities in which the principal source and proof of municipal corruption are not furnished by the relation of the municipal government with corporations that find the city to be the most profitable place in which to carry on their business. In this city most of the money by which State and city politics are debauched is notoriously furnished by corporations which do really supply the inhabitants with some great convenience of life.

These evils are very well known and incessantly discussed. Two years ago Massachusetts sent a commission to Europe to see how they dealt with the matter there. England was of course the only country which could furnish us with much useful information. In the Continental countries the central authority plays a far more prominent part in municipal affairs than it does with us, doubtless to the advantage of the bodies of the citizens, but not to that of their character. Nothing can compensate in a free country for the absence of complete local government. We believe the commission discovered in England that the favorite remedy was municipal ownership, and that it had worked very well—that is, the possession and operation by the city of such things as water supply, gas, and street railroads. London furnishes probably the most flagrant example in the civilized world of the inconvenience of the private ownership of such things, in the possession of its water supply by private companies.

But the stories of our municipal corruption are so widespread in Europe that the opinion seemed generally held in England, and was expressed as politely as possible, that a system that

might do for them would not do for us, owing to the difference in the character of our municipal authorities. In fact, in America we can hardly be said to have municipal authorities to turn to from the corporations, as, if we enter the municipal halls in search of relief, we are apt to find the corporations seated in close divan with the various bosses. Some reformers have tried to cheer us by assuring us, under instructions from the new "political science," that if the city owned gas and water and railroads, a new spirit would enter into the officers who administered them, who would undergo something like the process known among evangelicals as a "conversion," and cease to "knock down fares," or levy blackmail on the taxpayer, or "sass" him when he asked for information. This furnished so much merriment, however, at evening meetings of drivers and conductors, that it naturally made little impression on the general public.

An entirely new plan has, however, been struck out by a public-spirited citizen of Indianapolis, which is described in the last number of the *American Journal of Sociology*, published in Chicago, and is very interesting. It was suggested to him by a successful attempt to resist extortion on the part of a corporation which supplied the city with natural gas from wells at some distance. He—a certain Mr. Potts—went about and raised among the citizens $500,000, in shares of $25 each. On this a charter was obtained from the city, and the company thus formed supplied the gas at reasonable rates, saving to the consumers over a million a year. In fact, the plan has, by general consent, worked so successfully that it is proposed to apply it to other works "affected," as the courts say, "with a public use."

But what is this, it will be said, but an ordinary corporation, with the ordinary temptations? It differs in this: the stock is not salable; the trustees serve without pay. Here is a part of Mr. Forrest's account of it in the *Journal of Sociology*:

> "The trustees serve without compensation. The board appointed in the beginning by the articles of incorporation is almost certain to be composed of reliable men. Their terms are not limited in the case of the Gas Trust, but it may seem more desirable to have a certain number of the trustees go out of office at stated intervals in order to bring new ideas in, and to prevent the whole board from growing too old. The board fills vacancies in its own body. It is, therefore, not under the control of stockholders, nor of the political authorities, though it may be controlled by a legal process if there is evidence of corruption or mismanagement. The organization is thus seen to be similar to that of our best universities. The means of public control must be found in public opinion, which needs to be aroused only when friction occurs. But since the trustees can derive no pecuniary advantage from the management of the concern, they must serve from the social motive, and may be expected to regard their trusts."

THE FRENCH TROUBLES.

It is unfortunate, but it is true, that when we speak of the temper of the French nation at the present moment, we must mean simply its temper as revealed by its visible exponents — the Chambers, the press, the army and navy. The great bulk of the population of France is undoubtedly industrious and thrifty and peace-loving. It goes about its daily business with no thought either of glory or revenge. But, as is the case with the similar classes in all modern democracies, this hard-working but inarticulate body of French peasants and artisans has very little to do with the government, least of all with questions of foreign policy. These are the province of upstart politicians, bent on winning fame by some great stroke, of a press which is too largely either venal or reckless, and of professional military men. It is hard, indeed, to get at the real sentiment of the French nation when you have first to run the gauntlet of all these self-appointed guardians of the national honor. Salisbury is plausibly thought to have tried to do it by setting up Sir Edmund Monson to speak directly to the French people instead of to their official representatives; but his success is as yet problematical.

The alliance of a vitriolic press with an inflammable Chamber is not, perhaps, clearly enough perceived by most outside observers. In fact, the two excite and feed each other's passions. The alliance, in truth, extends almost to identity. There are thirty-two professional journalists who are also members of the Chamber of Deputies; about as many more having an "occasional" or irregular connection with the press also have seats in that body. One sees how easy it is, under such circumstances, for the Chamber to respond to the intelligent demands of the nation as expressed through the great newspaper organs of public opinion. The editors who shriek in italics and the Deputies who thunder from the tribune are one and the same. And what a chivalrous and high-minded set they are, some recent incidents show. One of the editors of *Le Jour* fought a duel lately with a lawyer, M. Morel, whom he wounded. The next day this soul of honor and humanity wrote as follows in his own paper: "We are happy to learn that M. Morel's wound is more serious than was thought. Complicated by a bad state of health, there is every reason to hope that this wound will make an end of him" *(aura des suites)*.

The same savage ferocity which thus animates French editors in their private quarrels, too often moves their pens when they write of international differences. Thus, the *Petit Journal*, the most widely circulated newspaper in France if not in the world, charged on November 1 that the "treacherous English" had "got up" the Armenian troubles, had "originated the whole Dreyfus affair," and had gone the length in Uganda of "provoking massacres of their own missionaries in order to acquire thereby the right of annihilating the whole aboriginal race." "These," it added, "are but a few of the horrors perpetrated by these civilizing shopkeepers." A few days later the *Patrie* argued that British foreign policy was simply "systematized assassination." And here are some of its proofs:

> "The Czar Paul I. discussed with Napoleon a plan for invading India. He died by the hand of an assassin. Radama, King of Madagascar, asked for the protectorate of France. He was assassinated. M. Lambert, Consul of France at Aden, wished to create a French settlement on the coast of Arabia, on the route to India. He was assassinated; and when his assassins, wretched natives, were searched, their pockets were found to be full of English *guineas!*"

To such frantic terrorism exercised by the press in France we have to add the military reign of terror—for such it is hardly too much to call it. Listen to Gen. Mercier, speaking at a banquet in Paris the other evening. He was Minister of War when Dreyfus was condemned. Addressing 600 army officers, he said that France would be estimated abroad by the foreigner "according to what her army is." "We do not wish to be men of discussion," said the oratorical General, but "we know that at the very moment when the Turkish army was forcing the ramparts of Constantinople, the self-styled 'intellectuals' of the capital were passionately discussing theological subtleties." France was now passing through "an acute crisis of intellectual Byzantinism." But "we men of action" must keep ourselves in a condition to "fight and beat our Turks under whatever form they present themselves." Is it any wonder, with the army hurling such firebrands, that the *Spectator* predicts a military revolution in France?

The French are proud of their army and of land victories, but, as Bismarck acutely remarked, they are all the more desirous to win naval victories from the fact that they have never been able to point to any fair offset to Dominica, Aboukir Bay, or Trafalgar. Hence it was a source of the keenest national humiliation that, when it came to measuring up fleets with England, they found it better to retreat from Fashoda than to fight. M. Delcassé had flatly told Salisbury that France could not stand an ultimatum. "Who, knowing France, could doubt what her answer would be?" But the ultimatum had to be swallowed, because it was found that the English fleet would simply overwhelm the French, even with the Russian thrown in. Still, the French naval experts have been getting a good deal of comfort out of their theorizings about a naval war with England. They admit that their own ships could not keep the sea, but they are sure the war would be a great disappointment to the British

public. There would be no great spectacles, no lovely hells of death and destruction, for the French navy would deliberately bottle itself up, and the British men-of-war could do nothing except the humdrum work of blockading, with now and then an ineffective bombardment thrown in or the seizure of some French colonial possession flung as a scrap to the English hunger for naval glory. The war would be very dull, says a naval writer in the *Débats*, and a dull naval war is intolerable. But the editor of the *Débats*, one of the few rational newspapers of Paris, arrives at the juster conclusion, which his countrymen would do well to accept:

"A war between France and England would be a calamity for both countries. Neither the one nor the other would have anything to gain, and the losses caused would be incalculable. It would end in the exhaustion of the two belligerents without either having succeeded in dealing one of those great blows which render resistance impossible. Let us, then, settle our colonial differences in that spirit of justice which should always preside over the relations of two great peoples, and, above all, avoid those explosions of Chauvinism or Jingoism which compromise the peace of the world."

CHIPS OF GREAT WORKMEN.

We have been almost deluged in the past few weeks with reprints of suppressed, or rare, or hitherto unknown writings of authors, great and small. W. M. Rossetti, for example, has begun a diligent sweeping of his brother Dante Gabriel's portfolios and writing-desk, and has set about publishing the scraps he has been able to find—the rough drafts, the trifles, the burlesques, the notes and memoranda. Some of these, it appears, are not so absolutely novel as Mr. Rossetti declares. One fragment of which he speaks as a notable discovery, he had forgotten that he had already included in the 1886 edition of his brother's writings, with remarks then upon its novelty and its significance. There seems to be no reason why, after ten years more, the same thing should not be again sold to a confiding magazine editor as absolutely *inédit*.

That new things of Thackeray's should also have turned up is, in one sense, not so surprising, in another sense more so. Thackeray served long and hard years of literary apprenticeship, and it would be strange indeed if some prowler could not find fugitive writings of his, dating from that period of his life, which had never been republished—which, indeed, Thackeray would have wished never to be republished. Mrs. Ritchie has dug up out of *Punch* some contributions of her father's not before known as his, and has included them in the "Biographical Edition" of his works which she is editing. To tell the truth, she has included some things which Thackeray did not, in fact, write. Mr. Spielmann, the great *Punch* authority, has proved this to be so. But the undoubtedly genuine Thackerayana thus resuscitated might, for the most part, have been left in their kindly grave, so far as adding anything to their author's reputation is concerned. If Thackeray, or his editor, or his public thought them witty, so much the worse for them. That any separate, even if privately printed, publications of Thackeray's should have escaped the collector's fine-toothed comb down to the present year is, however, more startling. Yet this is what has occurred. Two little plays of his, "King Glumpus" and "The Exquisites," unknown to either Mrs. Ritchie or Leslie Stephen, have only now turned up and fallen into the rapacious maw of an American collector.

Stevenson's unconsidered trifles have been earlier in getting to market. This is, perhaps, only Scotch thrift, considering the unsettled question how long their author's reputation is likely to endure. *Les morts vont vite*, and if the next generation ceases to care very much even for Stevenson at work, it is probable that its interest in "Stevenson at Play" will be very languid indeed. But the great find of the year, in this sort, is a volume of poetry, partly written by Shelley, and of which the existence was only suspected until an actual copy came to light a few months ago. Now here, at any rate, is a case where we have a writer of uncontested excellence, whose lyrical gift and product will be, unquestionably, of high interest to students and lovers of English literature as long as there shall be an English literature. Hence the publication of 'Original Poems by Victor and Cazire' ("Victor" being Percy Bysshe Shelley and "Cazire" his sister Elizabeth) furnishes a kind of touchstone by which the whole question of collecting and preserving the chips of great workmen, so to speak, may be tried.

Passing by the suggestion that a generation absorbed in reprints of the departed great argues in the act its own literary barrenness, what are we to say of the practice of rescuing from the dust-heap productions of famous writers which they, as was the case with these immature verses of Shelley, deliberately suppressed, and apparently hoped, for their fame, might never be known? Well, the answer seems to us to depend upon the question whether the particular author is great enough to merit, and to endure, the process. These unearthed verses by the boy Shelley are sorry stuff enough, all competent critics agree. But, as it has been said, great poets must pay the penalty of their greatness in the form of alms to curiosity. We desire, we are entitled, to know all that can be learned of their discovery of themselves, of their blossoming genius, of their perfecting themselves in technique. The case is admirably, and, we think, unanswerably put by a weighty critic:

"If Shelley had had to decide whether all his works should be abandoned to oblivion, or the best of them should be so highly prized as to make all his worst sins, literary and other, an object of interest, he could not have done otherwise than choose the second alternative. The twentieth century will probably produce some monumental biography of the greatest lyric poet of the nineteenth; and it will not be done till all the outlying rubbish connected with his life has been sifted and resifted, passed out of individual remembrance, and the net result built into some stately fabric making no account of rubbish. Those who twit Dr. Garnett with doing Shelley a disservice by godfathering 'Original Poetry by Victor and Cazire' are looking at the matter too narrowly. It had to be reprinted; and Dr. Garnett was the right person to explain the whole episode. The 'Victor and Cazire' incident will be dealt with in that monumental biography of the twentieth century; a generation or two of Shelley students must learn all about the book and its *entourage;* and if they are not thankful for what Dr. Garnett has done, God forgive them for their ingratitude!"

This, it seems to us, is what the whole thing comes down to. If a writer is one whose study is of supreme interest, then no trifle concerning him can be neglected, no smallest scrap or remnant of him is too petty to deserve scrutiny or to warrant bringing to the light. If anybody finds the rough draft of the Prologue to the "Canterbury Tales," or Shakspere's first sketch of "Hamlet," in Heaven's name let him get it into type with all speed. But as for the secondary scribblings of secondary men, the very shards and scoriæ of the literary rubbish heap, let the man who drags them from their friendly oblivion beware lest there light on his head the curse which Sainte-Beuve pronounced upon the needless disturber of the dust on manuscripts which it is a toil to decipher and almost a crime to publish.

GERHART HAUPTMANN'S LATEST DRAMA.

CAMBRIDGE, December 12, 1898.

After the appearance of Gerhart Hauptmann's "Die Versunkene Glocke," not a few of his admirers thought that this drama would mark a turning-point in the poet's development, that he had at last struggled through the gloom of his early imaginings, that from now on he would accentuate the joyous, the harmonious notes of human life. This hope has been cruelly disappointed by his latest production, "Fuhrmann Henschel," a dialect tragedy which has been the doleful *pièce de résistance* of the Deutsches Theater of Berlin during the last few weeks. Nothing could be gloomier and more depressing than this mournful picture of Silesian peasant life. Even Tolstoi's 'Power of Darkness,' which undoubtedly suggested the outline of characters and the general trend of action in Hauptmann's drama, is, in its final effect, less oppressive and saddening; for although it presents to us a succession of the most horrible atrocities, it leads in the end to a genuine delivery of soul, to a spiritual purification such as we experience in all truly great works of art. In Hauptmann's "Fuhrmann Henschel," on the other hand, there is much less of outward offence against the laws of society, much less of violation of the accepted code of morality; and yet we seem to sink resistlessly and irretrievably into utter degradation and ruin.

The plot as well as the characters of the drama are of the simplest. Henschel, a teamster in a Silesian mountain village, has hitherto been leading a humdrum and uneventful married existence. Both he and his wife have passed middle life when the first child is born. As a consequence of childbed the mother falls into a lingering illness from which she does not recover. Shortly before her death, she exacts from her husband a promise that he will not marry their servant-girl, whose ambitious schemes upon the unsuspecting man she has discerned with the mental clear-sightedness that comes from bodily weakness. This is the situation at the end of the first act. In the second act we see the helpless widower, struggling along in his loneliness and isolation, seeking comfort in idealizing the memories of the past, but at the same time unconsciously breaking away from them; constantly holding before himself the promise that he made to his dying wife, yet by this constant ruminating over it weakening his sense of moral obligation to it, and thus gradually drifting into a second marriage.

In the third act, Hanna, the servant-girl, has attained her purpose: she has become the mistress of the house; and now she reveals her true character. She treats her husband with brutal scornfulness; she lets the child of the first marriage die from sheer neglect; she dismisses an old and trusted man servant; she flirts with all sorts of doubtful characters; she ill disguises her wrath and disgust when the good-natured husband, thinking to please her thereby, adopts the offspring of a former liaison of hers whom she had left to misery and starvation. The fourth act brings the beginning of the catastrophe. Thus far Henschel has borne all the contumely and shame inflicted upon him by his second wife with mute resignation. He seems to live on in a sort of dazed half-wakefulness, apparently unmindful of the scorn and disrepute into which he has fallen in the village community. But now a chance word rouses him to sudden consciousness of his condition. Being involved, one evening, in a quarrel at the tavern, he hears the insinuation that his second wife is leading him by the nose, nay, that she was not without responsibility for the death of his first wife and child. Now his long-repressed despair breaks forth with boundless fury. Like a maniac he rages about, he strikes down whoever comes in his way, he has his wife brought to the tavern to confront her with her accuser; and, when she haughtily defies them all, he sinks down utterly prostrated.

From here on, throughout the fifth act, he appears well nigh out of his mind. Only one idea is ever present with him, one fact stands out before him with terrible distinctness: the violation of the promise given to his dying wife. This, he thinks, is the cause of all his troubles, for it has prevented his wife from finding rest in the grave. Wherever he goes he sees her face. She looks at him, sad and pale, from out of the moon. She stands by his side when he is grooming the horses. She walks about in the house, rearranging the furniture. When he is going to sleep at night, he finds her lying in his bed; and she presses her hand upon his breast and chokes him. At one time it seems as though he revelled in taking the whole responsibility of his misfortune upon himself: he finds no fault with his second wife; he retracts whatever he said against her. But then, again, he gives way to fatalistic ravings, with genuine peasant superstitiousness throwing the whole blame upon the baneful chain of circumstances.

"Yes, yes; I am at fault in it all, I know it, I am at fault; have done with it. But before that happened with my wife, I mean before I took Hanna, it had begun already, and slowly, slowly it went down-hill with me. First my whalebone whip broke in two. Next, I remember it plainly, I drove a wagon over my dog; it was the best Spitz I had. Then, three of my horses fell dead, one right after another; and one was a stallion, too, worth three hundred thalers. Then, at last, my wife died. I knew well enough that I had been marked out for all this. But when my wife died, I first thought, it had come to an end. Now he can't take much more from me, I thought. But now, you see, he has managed to do me still another turn."

It is easy to imagine what the result of all these mad hallucinations is; a man of such hopelessly hypochondriac temper cannot live, and we are glad for him when he has ended it all.

Hauptmann's consummate skill in depicting diseased states of mind has perhaps never been as strikingly illustrated as in this pathetic figure of a man who goes to ruin from sheer mental disintegration. But never, too, has there been a more striking illustration of the inevitable failure of exclusively pathological poetry. The whole drama, to speak plainly, is as intolerable as it is perfect. There is not a glimpse of the higher life in it; not a single figure which calls out our affection; not even an appeal to our sense of indignation or our righteous wrath; nothing but the cold analysis of a scientific observer. And that from the author of "Die Weber," "Einsame Menschen," and "Die Versunkene Glocke"! Indeed, the extraordinary wealth and versatility of Hauptmann's genius could not be more graphically brought to our minds than by placing "Fuhrmann Henschel" side by side with the three dramas just mentioned. And herein lies the ground for the hope that his next drama will again be a surprise, and lead us into those regions of higher spirituality which in this latest production of his are so entirely hidden from view.

KUNO FRANCKE.

HERMELIN'S MOREAU.

PARIS, November 30, 1898.

The name of Jacob Nicolas Moreau is quite unknown, though he was historiographer of France, Librarian to Queen Marie Antoinette, and first councillor of Monsieur (afterwards Louis XVIII.), and his *secrétaire des commandements*. One of his compatriots, M. Camille Hermelin, has just published the 'Souvenirs' of Moreau, or rather begun their publication, as the first volume, which has appeared, extends only from 1717 to 1774, and Moreau died as late as 1803. Moreau, as appears from these dates, had a hand for forty years in the greatest events, though he remained always behind the scenes. Few people have written more in their lifetime than he, though he never attained literary fame. The catalogue of his works, prepared by himself, occupies as many as ten pages of the preface written by M. Hermelin. We find in it many essays which belong to the domain of political economy; many memoirs written at the request of the Dauphin, the father of Louis XVI.; a memoir written before the convocation of the States-General, in which he presented a summary of all the sessions of the States-General at various periods of the French monarchy. This last memoir was in time greatly developed, and became an 'Exposition and Defence of our Monarchical French Constitution.'

Our time will pay more attention to the volume of 'Souvenirs,' as we prefer inedited details about persons and families to general considerations.

"During the last malady of King Louis XV.," says Moreau, "I was at Ville d'Avray, tired of business and resolved to ask for my retirement. I began making an exact and sincere history of all the events in which I had been able to have some part, since I had been called, by my writings themselves, to the posts where I could render the services which the Government expected from me. I gave to this work the title of 'Mes Souvenirs,' and I much desire that it be printed after me."

He says afterwards that he gave his manuscript to be read by the ministers who shared in the government:

"M. de Maurepas was the last to read it; but before him princes, princesses, and in general all who composed the court, wished to read it and guaranteed its truth to me. . . . The last person to whom I could not give it to read was our unfortunate Queen. Alas! in this work itself will be too well shown the motives which the Choiseul party had for concealing from her the knowledge of all I then attempted in order to save her."

Moreau was born December 20, 1717, at St. Florentin, a small town of Burgundy, the eldest of six children. His father sent him, at the age of fifteen, to the College of Beauvais in Paris. The father was poor; and when he left college, Moreau was glad enough to get a little money by writing for Colombat, publisher of the almanacs of the time (many of these almanacs are now much prized by bibliophiles on account of their illustrations). Moreau was fortunate in being received into the family of the famous Chancellor d'Aguesseau, and treated with the greatest kindness by him and his children. The D'Aguesseaus were related to the Chastellux family, to two young members of which Moreau became a companion and at the same time a sort of tutor. He pursued the while his law studies. One of his pupils, the Chevalier (afterwards Marquis of) Chastellux, stayed two years in America, during the War of Independence, and was honored with the friendship of Washington. He was a great Liberal; Moreau says of him: "The poor Chevalier died in 1788, at the time when he was beginning to abandon his revolutionary and philosophical prejudices. He had always been the dupe of his heart, and liked in good faith the philosophers before becoming an enthusiastic follower of their systems." These few lines sufficiently show that Moreau was not a partisan of the philosophical school. He had been brought up in a Jansenist surrounding; in Paris, he was thrown among the members of the Parlement, who were great Jansenists. These he abandoned by degrees, but he never joined the philosophers, whom he attacked in his writings, less on religious than on political grounds. He considered their doctrines destructive of monarchical government.

He found a powerful protector in the person of Marshal de Noailles, who was in 1755 the real Minister of Foreign Affairs, under the name of M. Rouillé. Moreau had written a small pamphlet, in which he attacked, with the weapon of ridicule, the double fanaticism which at that time divided France, the Jesuits on one side and the Jansenists and Parlementarians on the other. The Marshal read

the pamphlet and said, "That is the man we want." He wished to see Moreau, who was conducted to him by Madame de Chastellux.

"I went to him," records Moreau, "with joy. From that day there was formed between this old and respectable Minister and myself, then only thirty-three years of age, a confidential relation which was never interrupted. From that time to his death, there never passed a week without my seeing him three times. He made me work at a number of researches and memoirs which procured me many new acquaintances. I can say that, from 1755 to the time of his retirement from the Council, I was acquainted with all the great questions in which he took part."

Among these questions were the limits of the French possessions in Canada. Moreau wrote on the subject of the relations of France and England a series of letters which had a wide circulation, under the general title of "L'Observateur Hollandais." These letters, to the number of forty-six, were translated into many languages. From the time of this publication Moreau had to live at Versailles; he became a sort of official pamphleteer and legal adviser. He was married to Mlle. de Coulange and mixed in the best society. His 'Souvenirs' are full of details about the Choiseuls and the Talleyrands.

He came to be looked upon as the enemy of the parlements. His moderate opinions were obnoxious to the Jansenists of the Parlement; he attacked them not as Jansenists, but as enemies of the royal prerogative. The Parlement of Paris delivered a judgment against the Jesuits which obliged them to abjure their Institute and to give an oath to that effect. This judgment was rendered on the 22d of February, 1764. "On Sunday, the 26th, the reverend fathers, confessors of the King and of the royal family, received, from M. de St. Florentin, an invitation to leave the court. He gave his message very civilly, but in the name of the King, saying that his Majesty had much esteem for them, but was obliged to yield to circumstances." All the Jesuits left Versailles and took refuge in Paris. The struggle between the parlements and the Jesuits was one of the first forms of the spirit which broke out in 1789. France had no written constitution, and the parlements tried to form the embryo of a parliamentary régime. The court party stood fast by the royal prerogative, and was helped by the antagonism between the peers and the judicial members of the Parlement. Moreau took an important part in agitations which seem to us, at a distance, very confused, and which arose from the want of separation of the executive, the legislative, and the judicial powers.

Moreau received a pension from the Foreign Office, and was, besides, appointed Councillor to the "Cour des Comptes, Aides et Finance" of Provence. He lost his wife, and some time afterwards married Miss O'Neill, granddaughter of one of the Irishmen who came to France in the time of James II. In 1768 M. de Maupeou was made Chancellor and *garde des sceaux*. Moreau knew him, and paid him a visit. Maupeou gave him a rendezvous in Paris, and received him with the greatest courtesy. "He asked me for my friendship; he wanted the help of my intelligence, saying, 'I have long known your worth.'" The Chancellor meditated great changes in the parlements, and asked for many details upon the Parlement of Aix and the Cour des Aides of Montpellier. Maupeou used afterwards the information which Moreau gave him.

The history of the Maupeou Parlement is well known. Moreau gives many details upon this subject, chiefly those which concern the Parlement of Aix. He played a very important part in the changes which prepared the revolution in the French judiciary courts. It is not always easy to follow him in the intrigues which preceded and accompanied this revolution, and in the personal questions which were mixed up with general questions. His likes and dislikes play a great part in his opinions. He sometimes speaks well and sometimes ill of Choiseul, of Maupeou, of many others. He is flattered when the ministers use his pen, and angry with them when they dispense with his collaboration. His great friends procured him the sinecure of the Librarianship of Mme. la Dauphine, and he took the opportunity of writing the 'Numéro premier de la Bibliothèque de Mme. la Dauphine.' This first number had no successor, though it was much praised at the time. Moreau was also appointed Councillor to the Count de Provence (who became Louis XVIII.).

In 1769, Chancellor Maupeou began his open war on the old Parlement and the Duke de Choiseul, their protector.

"It was a time," says Moreau, "when the Chancellor, if he had had broad views and much patriotism, could have rendered great services to the King and become the benefactor of the nation by saving it from the despotism of the Parlement. He possessed sufficient authority to give force to the fundamental laws of the Kingdom, to restore to the companies their ancient spirit, and to the Government its activity and vigor. The Parlement had taken itself out of all regulation; it was absolutely necessary to bring it again within the rules, and in the place which was assigned to it."

Unfortunately, all questions at the time were obscured and poisoned by personal considerations. Madame du Barry, who had been presented to the King in 1769, was, consciously or unconsciously, the enemy of the parlements. The Choiseuls, who despised Madame du Barry, represented the opposite cause. "All goes wrong," says Moreau, "when the spirit of intrigue obscures the greatest designs." The exile of Choiseul at Chanteloup was one of the great events of the reign of Louis XV. Moreau has nothing to say about it that is not well known; he is more interesting when he speaks of his mission to Provence, his relations with the King's officers in that province, and the installation of the new Parlement. The people in Provence had not the same feelings as the people in Paris. The former Parlement was very despotic; its members formed an oligarchy which was master of the country, and there was an old proverb which said, in the provincial patois, "The Parlement, the mistral, the Durance, are the three scourges of Provence." The new Parlement, composed of the creatures of Maupeou and of Moreau, was well received by the population.

The last part of this first volume of Moreau's 'Souvenirs' has many details on the final malady of Louis XV. and on his death. The closing chapters give a new version of the dramatic end of the King. Moreau knew almost hour by hour what was going on in the palace at Versailles. He tells us how nobody at first dared to speak to the King of the last sacraments; how they were finally brought, after a long struggle between the friends of Madame du Barry and her enemies, after the King, aware of his fate, consented to dismiss Madame du Barry. He tells us how Louis XV. was abandoned as soon as he was dead; how few people joined his funeral on the way to Saint Denis. "No Prince," says Moreau, "was less regretted than poor Louis XV. Immediately after his death infamous epitaphs were circulated about him." Moreau reports one in verse, which I dare not repeat here, and another in prose: "Here lies one who gave us the system [Law's system] on being born, war while growing, famine while getting old, and the pest in dying." The pest was the smallpox, which Louis XV. gave, on his death-bed, to his daughters, who fortunately did not die of it, though they were at death's door. Moreau, who was a financier, enters at the end of his work into some curious details on the King's private expenses, on his constant habit of having a privy purse, and on the way in which irregular payments were made to him.

Correspondence.

SELLING THE REPUBLIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: What is the use of President McKinley trying to persuade the people of the United States that the Philippines are to be annexed for the sake of humanity? Every one knows that it is being done for the sake of the facilities which the possession of those islands will give to certain capitalists in extending the Chinese trade. In other words, the conscience of the people of this country, their aspirations for the freedom and equality of mankind, the very foundations of this great republic—the noblest ideal of government which has ever been put before the world—all these things are to be sacrificed in order to enrich a cabal of manufacturers and traders, to be sold for certain trade advantages in the Pacific.—Yours truly, S.

Chicago, December 11, 1898.

THE COST OF NATIONAL GLORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: National glory is an attractive bauble, but it comes at so high a price that the sober judgment of Europe, and it is hoped the second and soberer judgment of the United States, raise the question whether in purchasing it we do not pay too much for the whistle. To occupy the foremost place in the world for a whole year, to be most written about in the critical reviews, to be uppermost in world thought and conversation, surely this is a consummation to make those who direct our national affairs stake a tremendous risk, but in doing so they ought to count the final cost. Our supreme danger just now is in seeking national glory, and in seeking it at any price. It is not the first time that Americans have been tempted in this wise, but heretofore they have profited by the experiences of others who paid too much for the whistles. More than three-quarters of a century ago Americans were allured to the same path by brilliant achievement on the high seas. At that time the following wise counsel was given by one who spoke as with the experience and kindness of an elder brother:

"David Porter and Stephen Decatur are very brave men, but they will prove an unspeakable misfortune to their country if they inflame Jonathan into a love of naval glory, and inspire him with any other love of war than that which is founded upon a determination not to submit to serious insult and injury.

"We can inform Jonathan what are the

inevitable consequences of being too fond of glory: TAXES upon every article which enters into the mouth, or covers the back, or is placed under the foot—taxes upon everything which it is pleasant to see, hear, feel, smell, or taste—taxes upon warmth, light, and locomotion—taxes on everything on earth, and the waters under the earth, on everything that comes from abroad, or is grown at home—taxes on the raw material—taxes on every fresh value that is added to it by the industry of man—taxes on the sauce which pampers man's appetite, and the drug that restores him to health—on the ermine which decorates the judge, and the rope which hangs the criminal—on the poor man's salt, and the rich man's spice—on the brass nails of the coffin, and the ribands of the bride—at bed or board, couchant or levant, we must pay. The schoolboy whips his taxed top—the beardless youth manages his taxed horse, with a taxed bridle, on a taxed road—and the dying Englishman, pouring his medicine, which has paid 7 per cent., into a spoon that has paid 15 per cent., flings himself back upon his chintz bed, which has paid 22 per cent., and expires in the arms of an apothecary who has paid a license of a hundred pounds for the privilege of putting him to death. His whole property is then immediately taxed from 2 to 10 per cent. Besides the probate, large fees are demanded for burying him in the chancel; his virtues are handed down to posterity on taxed marble, and he is then gathered to his fathers—to be taxed no more."*

Before any piece of foreign territory is permanently annexed to the United States, or before the United States becomes attached to any foreign territory, certain things ought to be more carefully considered.

(1.) Is a war which was begun from altruistic motives, for humanity, to end in national vanity and the pursuit of national glory?

(2.) In the light of all experience, may we not say that those nations which have joined in the dance of national glory have in the end paid very dear for the piper?

(3.) In the formulation of a foreign policy, can the Americans afford to do otherwise than go slowly, and be sure that they go safely? CHEESMAN A. HERRICK.

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA.

*Sydney Smith in the *Edinburgh Review*, 1820.

THE RIGHT TO ACQUIRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am thoroughly opposed to the annexation of the Philippines, but I think we ought not, in the interest of that position, to contend that our government has no power to acquire them. The United States has, as incidental to sovereignty, the power to acquire territory, and use it and govern it under the direction of Congress. Nothing can be more clear than this on abstract reasoning. The Dred Scott opinion, so far as it relates to this point, is an *obiter dictum* at best and should have but little weight in the discussion. When analyzed, it will be found to be specious, partial, and prejudiced.

The simple question is this. Granting that the United States Constitution nowhere prohibits Congress from acquiring territory by treaty, purchase, or otherwise, does it not follow that the right to administer the affairs of such territory follows the acquisition, and becomes a necessary duty rather than a mere right? This is founded upon article 4, section 3, clause 2, of the Constitution: "Congress shall have full power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States or of any particular State."

It is quite true that, according to article 6, section 2, all treaties made under its authority shall be the supreme law of the land, and for this reason it is not only important, but the clear duty of the treaty-making power, that a treaty concerning territory *to be acquired* shall not contain any provision with regard to the *method* of government to be adopted by Congress after the acquisition. That is a matter for full discussion and mature deliberation; and not until *all the people* of the United States have been consulted in a referendum of some sort, like that suggested by Carl Schurz, should Congress venture to make laws for the permanent government of the newly acquired territory. This would not preclude a military government by the President as Commander-in-Chief of the armies of the United States, but this would be only a temporary measure, leaving the mode of civil administration to be determined upon by Congress.

Calamitous as I think it would be to annex the Philippines, it seems to me it would be a greater calamity to make the refusal to take them a precedent in favor of the want of power under the Constitution to acquire them. ISABELLA BEECHER HOOKER.

HARTFORD, CONN., December 19, 1898.

POLITICS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of September 8 last a correspondent gave a detailed account of how politics play an important factor in the University of the State of Washington. Let me point out to you a striking parallel case in our own State University. During the session of '96 and '97 of the California Legislature, the Board of Regents of the State University had a bill passed increasing by direct taxation the annual appropriation for the University. It was, indeed, an edifying spectacle to behold the University's venerable President, together with other professors financially interested in the passage of the bill, lobbying for days in Sacramento in behalf of the proposed increase.

The measure was finally passed, and, nearly two years later, in the heat of the campaign of our recent State election, the Governor of California, James Budd, gave the inside history of the passage of that bill at the great students' meeting held in San Francisco. Here is what Governor Budd said on the evening of October 9 last:

"The Democrats and the Republicans in the last Legislature stood side by side. In the House, Coombs, the Speaker, presided—a Regent and a Republican. In the Senate, Jeter, a Democrat and a Regent, presided. And in the Governor's chair sat a graduate of the University of California, a Regent also. [Applause.] And these three, with the work of the gentlemen from San Francisco and Alameda and elsewhere, made sure the passage of that bill so necessary to the existence of the University of California. And we all worked for love—except one. Ye Republicans who brag and boast that it is ye who have supported that institution, let me tell you that but one man had a price for his work. He charged the Regents of the University of California $2,500 for lobbying in the interest of that bill, and that man was a Republican.

"A Voice—Who is he?

"Governor Budd—Who is he? His name is Julius Kahn. He is running for Congress in the Fourth District. Yes, gentlemen, that is the record. He got his $2,500, but Jim Barry will go to Congress just the same. [Applause.]"

The exposure, however, did not harm Mr. Kahn at all. He was subsequently elected in a strong Democratic district, and will, a year hence, grace the halls of the House of Representatives. California morals cannot be gauged from a narrow-minded Eastern standpoint. A CALIFORNIAN.

SAN FRANCISCO, December 7, 1898.

SHELLEY IN AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following item from the December, 1898, catalogue of Henry Stevens, Sons & Stiles, London, England, just to hand, may give additional information as to the publication of Shelley's works in America (see letter in the *Nation*, December 1, p. 409):

"Shelley (Percy Bysshe). Queen Mab, a philosophical Poem. New York, printed and sold by J. Baldwin, 1821.

"This first American edition was reprinted from a copy of the privately printed edition presented to the publisher when in London, by Shelley himself. It is quite uncastrated." J.

TORONTO, December 13, 1898.

TENNYSON AND HORACE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few notes on some matters recently touched upon in your columns may be of interest to readers of the *Nation* (unless they should appear little more than the additions of "a snapper-up of unconsidered trifles").

(1.) *Tennyson and Horace.* To Mr. Mustard's wonderfully interesting catalogue of parallelisms (*Nation*, June 9, 1898, pp. 438-39) should apparently be added one more instance, namely, Tennyson's lines in his "Ulysses" (near the end):

> "Come, my friends,
> 'Tis not too late to seek a newer world.
> Push off, and, sitting well in order, smite
> The sounding furrows; for my purpose holds
> To sail beyond the sunset," etc.

In these lines we have a most charming "reminiscence" (shall we not say?) of this passage in Horace, Od. i., 7, 30-32:

> "O fortes peioraque passi
> Mecum sæpe viri, nunc vino pellite curas;
> Cras ingens iterabimus æquor."

(2.) *Sugar-bush.* John Burroughs may be added to the list of those who use this expression as meaning "a growth of trees" (*Nation*, October 27, p. 311, and November 10, p. 350). In his chapter, "In the Hemlocks," he writes: "I descend a steep hill, and approach the hemlocks through a large sugar-bush" (p. 53 of his 'Wake-Robin').

(3.) *Cockney rhymes and other ineffective rhymes.* To the observations already made in the *Nation* (September 29, p. 241; October 20, p. 294; October 27, pp. 310-11; November 3, p. 332; November 10, p. 350) may be added the following, quoted from an article on Kipling in *Blackwood's* for October, 1898 (p. 481): "It is the more provoking that he frequently indulges in Cockney rhymes, such as *abroad* and *Lord*. The final verse of 'The Last Chantey' is disgraced by a false assonance of this sort, and so is the closing couplet of 'M'Andrew's Hymn,' where, of course, it is peculiarly out of place."

One scarcely needs to be reminded, in reading the above, that *Blackwood's* is published north of the Tweed, where the rolling of the *r* is not likely to receive any less than its due, to say the least. W. E. F.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., December 12, 1898.

Notes.

We have received from the American Library Association (Publishing Section, 10½ Beacon Street, Boston) a pamphlet of "Annotated Titles of Books on English History published in 1897." These titles, printed on one side of a leaf only, have been deliberately selected and prepared by Mr. W. Dawson Johnston, of Harvard University. The bibliographical particulars (in a form suited for a catalogue) are followed by a summary evaluation of the book, as derived from authoritative reviews indicated at the foot, often with the critic's name. This publication, taking up next the titles of 1898, is to proceed in quarterly issues, and subscribers will have their option between the pamphlet form and the cards of regulation size. The enterprise commends itself not least because the work is not done in a hurry.

'The Dreyfus Case,' by F. C. Conybeare, is about to be issued by Dodd, Mead & Co.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Deutsche Gedichte: A Collection of German Poems for High Schools,' arranged by Hermann Mueller; and 'Seed Dispersal,' by Prof. W. J. Beal of Michigan Agricultural College.

Mayer & Müller, Berlin, have undertaken the publication of Leibnitz's correspondence with mathematicians, in three volumes, of which the first is now ready, an octavo of nearly 800 pages with a facsimile. The editor is Prof. Dr. C. J. Gerhardt, who in effect carries out Leibnitz's own intention to establish his claim to the discovery of the differential calculus; at the same time supplying "the basis for a history of mathematics in the second half of the 17th and the first half of the 18th century."

Ten years ago we reviewed at some length Mr. Archibald John Little's 'Through the Yang-tse Gorges' (London: Sampson Low; New York: Scribners), a work forcibly exhibiting the decay of the great Chinese Empire, as well as furnishing much valuable information from the commercial, social, and picturesque points of view. It had the success of a second edition, and recent events in the East have given it a fresh claim on public attention. It is accordingly reissued in an orthodox yellow cloth cover, stamped with an ominous map of China in black, with red lines making a band through which runs the Yang-tse, and which is inscribed "British Sphere." The author had asserted the navigability by steam of the Upper Yang-tse, and he now adds a chapter describing his own ascent in a light-draught steamer of his construction 1,470 miles above Shanghai, the first ever made. The book contains a large number of highly interesting photographic views.

Mr. John C. Hemment's 'Cannon and Camera' (Appletons) merits a place among the authentic records of the war for Cuba. The author is a man of courage and of feeling, and, having been a National Guardsman, he could judge fairly the military operations which fell under his eye. He was making photographs in Havana before and after the blowing up of the *Maine;* he witnessed the advance on Santiago; he saw Cervera's fleet destroyed; he was at Camp Wikoff. His numerous views illustrate these various phases of the campaign. His unaffected narrative shows the horrid side of war as well as the brilliant and fame-making. Mr. Hemment concludes with some hints to amateur and professional photographers in like circumstances.

Mr. Ben LaBree is the editor of another book of short anecdotes and reminiscences of the civil war, which he calls 'Camp Fires of the Confederacy.' Like his 'Pictorial Battles,' it is a compilation from very numerous sources and writers, known and unknown. He has put under contribution a large number of prominent Confederate officers, and has diligently collected literary waifs of all sorts, representing the wit, humor, and pathos of the camp. It is a really remarkable collection of the kind; and if the stories are sometimes, like the illustrations, crudely sketchy, something amusing will be found on almost every page. Among the illustrations are many portraits of Confederate officers, reproduced from photographs. The book is a showy small quarto of nearly 600 pages, published by the Louisville *Courier-Journal* Printing Company.

'With the Greeks in Thessaly,' by W. Kinnaird Rose, Reuter's correspondent in the Greco-Turkish war, is published in good form by L. C. Page & Co., Boston. It is of course based on Mr. Rose's dispatches from the seat of war during the campaign, and is a sprightly and interesting story, with just that degree of partiality to the Greek view of affairs which is proper from a friend in their camp. His account of the stampede from Mati to Larissa, and the hardly less disorderly retreat to Pharsala, is a strong bit of description. It pictures the "press-gang," also, as caught in perils quite as great as those of the troops in the line; greater, in fact, than of those who kept in line. The illustrations, by W. T. Maud, are some of those which appeared originally in the London *Graphic*, and are very effective.

Those who enjoyed the clever stories contained in 'Many Cargoes,' by W. W. Jacobs, will be pleased with the new collection now issued by Messrs. Frederick A. Stokes Co. under the title **of** 'More Cargoes.' Like their predecessors, these stories of ships and sailors have a decidedly salty flavor, and are ingenious and amusing.

Oliver Herford's humorous pencil is seen to advantage in 'The Bashful Earthquake, and Other Fables,' from his own rhyming pen (Scribners). Genuine humorist he is, in either medium, and his dainty little volume will help spread the gospel of hilarity. The fables are of uneven merit, but the best are very good, and none are flat. The natural history of "The Untutored Giraffe" is much assisted by the drawings, as is the deeper satire of "The Lovesick Scarecrow" (that "felt the influence of Spring And fell in love— . . . he loved a crow!") and "The Doorless Wolf." The title-fable is, as often happens, not the most worthy of its place in the collection. Better stuff is the related cataclysmal stanza of the frontispiece, imagining the sudden falling of the earth through space, shedding "Ants, philosophers, and mice," only to furnish delight to a watching child on another planet—"See the pretty shooting-star!"

The *Youth's Companion* calendar for 1899 is a very ornamental triptych fitted to stand upright on table or mantel. The opening of the wings discloses three pretty color designs of female figures and faces.

Uniform in size with a fresh reprint of Gelett Burgess's 'The Purple Cow,' William Doxey sends us from San Francisco 'The Lark Almanack' for 1899, with familiar designs by the same eccentric hand, taken from the defunct *Lark*, a quarry which shows no sign of exhaustion.

We have more than once spoken of the awakening of intelligent and devout Catholics to the necessity of raising the standard of educational institutions for the orthodox youth of both sexes. A commotion, more serious than that following the appeals, two years ago and later, of the Vicomtesse d'Adhémar, has been recently created in religious circles in France by Mme. Laroche's (La Mère Marie du Sacré-Cœur) 'Les Religieuses enseignantes et les nécessités de l'apostolat.' This nun boldly denounces the inferior education afforded by the Catholic schools, and the profound ignorance of the teaching *congrégations*. Her call for the foundation of a superior normal school for young women in Paris, as the centre of enlightenment, is seconded by Brunetière, Coppée, De Vogüé, and several other academicians and leading scholars and statesmen. But, according to the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, only fourteen out of sixty-seven bishops seem to look with more or less favor upon the project.

The noble dignity, both of thought and language, of Else Hasse's essay, 'Moderne Frauenbildung und ihr sittlicher Inhalt' (Braunschweig: Sattler), entitles it to special mention among the more noteworthy recent German publications of its class. No friend of womankind, we believe, can read these pages without a sense of entire satisfaction, and without wishing that the writer's ideas may find more and more adherents among men and women the world over.

An entertaining volume, as well as valuable contribution to the intellectual and political history of Germany during the present century, is a biography entitled 'Heinrich Abeken: Ein schlichtes Leben in bewegter Zeit, aus Briefen zusammengestellt' (Berlin: Mittler & Sohn). Abeken was born August 19, 1809, and died August 8, 1872. He studied theology, and was an intimate friend of Schleiermacher, Humboldt, and other illustrious personages in Berlin. On the recommendation of Baron von Bunsen, he was appointed chaplain to the Prussian embassy in Rome, where he enjoyed the society of Overbeck, Thorwaldsen, Schnorr, Cornelius, Niebuhr, and other men of note. He travelled in Palestine, and accompanied Lepsius on his expedition to Egypt and Ethiopia. From 1848 till the time of his death he held the position of Legationsrath in the Foreign Office at Berlin, and was highly esteemed by Friedrich Wilhelm IV., Wilhelm I., and Bismarck as a confidential councillor. In this capacity he showed himself to be a man of keen insight and sterling merit.

The *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for December has for frontispiece a portrait of the late Sherman Hoar, one of the victims of the recent war for humanity, through his humanity; and half-a-dozen portraits of collegians who died as soldiers accompany Mr. W. G. Brown's biographical annals of "Harvard in the Spanish War, 1898: I. The Volunteers Who Died." Out of ten (not including Mr. Hoar) whose lives are briefly sketched, six are credited with a special fondness for athletics; and if the inference be that athletics breed warriors (as is in the contemplation of our Roosevelts when they favor football), we may also conclude that heroes can still be made in the old-fashioned way. What is more striking is, that nine of the ten died of disease and one by accident in camp.

Seven of the ten, again, were born in the West; one each in Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania. The opening and most important paper is from the pen of F. L. Olmsted, jr., naming some, but not all, of the schemes for connecting the college grounds with the Charles River (and so with Boston by the only possible pleasant access), and concluding that now or never, within five years at the utmost, can this great desideratum be attained. It is a millionaire's opportunity.

Various places on the west coast of Sumatra are pleasantly described by Mr. David G. Fairchild in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for November. The beautiful mountain scenery, the charm of the tropical verdure, the brightly colored costumes of the natives make an exceedingly attractive picture. The last place visited was the fortified town of Kota Radja, the old capital of Achin, where for the last twenty-five years the Dutch have striven unsuccessfully to conquer "one of the most warlike and stubborn races of savages in all the Orient." "A string of some fourteen forts and blockhouses," he says, "has been thrown—horse-shoe-like, with either end on the coast—about the town of Kota Radja, and are all connected by a narrow-gauge railroad with each other and with Kota Radja itself. The coaches are provided with iron-plating, and serve for the transport of supplies, of troops, and seemingly of school-children as well, for, as we made our visit to the blockhouses along the line, some bright-looking girls scrambled in, books in hand, bound for the day school in Kota Radja, and they seemed quite as unconcerned as if no war was in progress, and heedless of the fact that, from the jungle in the near distance, might at any time issue a hail of bullets." In a suggestive paragraph at the close, referring to the similarity of these forts to the blockhouses of our colonial Indian wars, Mr. Fairchild says: "Should we see fit to undertake the control of such an archipelago as the Philippines, the training of our regulars as Indian fighters would come into excellent play!" The paper is illustrated by numerous reproductions of photographs, mainly of the picturesque houses. Mr. M. S. W. Jefferson discusses the question, "What is the tide of the open Atlantic?" in which he argues in favor of the oscillation theory as opposed to that of a progressive or a stationary wave.

The main contents of the *Annales de Géographie* for November are a discussion of some problems of the geological history of valleys, with especial reference to those of Enns-Salzach; an orographic study of Le Morvan in France; a sketch of the geological surveys of the Russians in northern Asia; and a study of the inland ice of Greenland, founded on a recent work by E. von Drygalski. There is also a short account of the Congo Railway, with a hopeful forecast of its influence on the development of the material resources of central Africa. "Optimists affirm that, before ten years, the Congo will raise all the coffee consumed in Belgium, and will, moreover, be one of the leading markets of the world for cacao and tobacco."

Formosa and the inhabitants of its mountain districts are the timely subject of a lively paper by Robt. Schumacher in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number ten, in which the origin of these little-known people is discussed. The excessive mortality (66 per cent.) from disease among the Japanese soldiers recently sent to occupy the island is shown to have been due not to the climate, as was asserted, but to an inefficient commissariat and long marches. In the closing paragraphs, attention is significantly directed to the strategic importance of Formosa. There is also a notice of a geological tour in northern Iceland by Dr. Thoroddsen, and an interesting schedule of the geographical instruction given in forty-two German universities and technical schools for the present winter term, in which are to be found the names of the professors and the subjects of their lectures. A supplemental number, 126, contains an account, by Dr. G. Radde, of an expedition sent out by the Russian Government in 1886 for the scientific exploration of Transcaspia. To a description of the noteworthy incidents of the journey, which included a visit to Khorasan, is joined a brief sketch of the geology, fauna, and flora of the region. The expedition, it may be of interest to add, was prevented from landing at Krasnovodsk on the Caspian, in a latitude south of that of Naples, by the ice!

The last issue of the *Boletin de la Sociedad Geográfica* of Lima *(trimestre tercero,* vol. vii.), continues the publication of the Raimondi MSS., one on the physical geography of Peru, and two others which are brief accounts of the leading features of the islands and rocks, bays and capes, of the entire Peruvian coast. These details may supplement the data available for our sailing-masters, so far as relates to the minor bays at least. Dr. Villar's contributions on the Keshua language (this time on Uirakocha) are always noteworthy. The amount of meteorological information respecting many parts of Peru, east and west, and of various altitudes, is of great practical value. A table of vital statistics of Iquitos during 1897 throws light upon the conditions of health in the very heart of the Amazonian forest—truly continental tropical conditions. The population in round numbers is 7,000. Births were 684, deaths 382. Of the fatalities the most important were, 52 due to dysentery, 49 to fevers (malarial), 40 to influenza, 26 to anæmia, and 111 to consumption. 177 deaths were among adults and 205 among children. A curious circumstance is that 288 out of the total 382 died without having had the benefit of medical attendance.

Pope Leo XIII. from time to time evinces his interest in the cause of literature and scholarship. Lately he caused to be sent to the officials of the German Museum at Nürnberg a set of the Vatican library catalogues in eleven volumes, as "a token of his special regard."

We must not reopen the discussion of the origin of the American college word "campus," but a correspondent in Columbia, S. C., sends us what may for the moment stand for the earliest observed appearance of the word in print or in a book, whether American or British. Robert Mills, in his 'Statistics of South Carolina' (Charleston, 1826), in describing South Carolina College, which went into operation in 1804, speaks (p. 701) of the buildings disposed about a hollow square of ten acres "which is called the *Campus.*"

Frederik Winkel Horn, who died November 18, was born in Copenhagen July 19, 1845. He was the author of an immense number of works, chiefly on Danish literature; and translated among others the 'Elder Edda,' in verse, the 'Heimskringla,' Saxo Grammaticus, and many English novels, including 'Waverley.' At the time of his death he was editor of a Danish illustrated Cyclopædia. He is best known in this country through his 'History of Scandinavian Literature,' translated by R. B. Anderson. He was an industrious, enthusiastic, though not original, bookman, with an apparently unlimited capacity for work.

At the suggestion of Sir Walter Besant, a "Charlotte Yonge Scholarship" Fund is being raised in honor of the prolific author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe,' in connection with the Winchester High School. This school is for girls from all parts of the kingdom, and was founded in 1884, since which date Miss Yonge has been one of the Council of Management. The sum of $30,000 is aimed at. Contributions in any amount may be sent to the honorary treasurer, the Rev. J. H. Merriott, Dormy Cottage, Winchester, England.

The American Economic Association, Prof. A. T. Hadley, President, will hold its eleventh annual meeting at New Haven, December 27-29. The coming Twelfth Census will receive discussion in an entire session.

The Central Division of the Modern Language Association of America will hold its fourth annual meeting at Lincoln, Neb., December 27-29.

In answer to a correspondent's inquiry, Dr. Billings informs us that the New York Public Library, while not perhaps rich in Persian books, etc., probably has the best collection of Persian in the country. It does not possess the Calcutta edition of Sadi's complete works, but it has the edition of 1847 and of 1880, Bombay, both complete. The collections are at the Astor.

—Oscar Klaussmann published some time ago a gossipy German book on William II., with minute details regarding the Emperor's private and family life and the administration of the imperial palace, from the pomp of the throne-room to the circumstance of the sculleries. Maurice Leudet utilized this material for a French book, omitting Klaussmann's panegyrics, and seasoning the German writer's details with an occasional pinch of malicious comment. He added also an irrelevant description of German duels; an unconsciously humorous collection of French opinions, elicited by the suggeston that William might visit Paris; and a final chapter upon the Emperor's supposed foreign policy. Leudet's book has now been translated into English by Virginia Taylour (London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.) under the title 'The Emperor of Germany at Home.' We glean from it the facts that, in the intervals of his activity as German Emperor, Prussian King and Premier, war-lord, painter, sculptor, writer, composer, architect, and globe-trotter, William II. finds time to cane his boys when they prove intractable to other authorities; that he is the first Prussian King who has inspected his own kitchens; that he personally determines the menu of state dinners, the Empress being trusted with this duty only as regards ordinary meals; and that the conversation at court banquets is essentially an imperial monologue. The statement that during his progress through the palace kitchens he harangued the assembled cooks and scullions, we reject as an invention of M. Leudet. The book is well printed and profusely illustrated; and those who care for this sort of literature will doubtless like it.

—One of the many practical methods by which the Germans are trying to fight Social

Democracy is the establishment of workingmen's colonies. These agricultural *Arbeiter-Kolonien* are farming establishments on a grand scale at which all who are out of work, but are anxious to get it, can find it and a Christian home until they can arrange for permanent employment. The originator of the scheme is Pastor von Bodelschwingh of Bielefeld, whose colony at Wilhelmsdorf has, in the fifteen years of its existence, given to 9,000 colonists work for the average period of three months. The idea took, and, as a consequence, nine other workingmen's colonies have been established, some through private enterprise and others by the governments, so that there is practically a network of these establishments throughout Germany, and they have been the means, to a certain extent, of furnishing a substantial solution of the tramp problem. Recently Von Bodelschwingh, who had bought up all the available land at Wilhelmsdorf, purchased the famous Hochmoor, the so-called Wietingsmoor, fully 2,000 acres of morass land in the district of Lübbecke, and proposes now to convert this into arable land with the help of his colonists. Bodelschwingh's projects are warmly encouraged by the Government, and the Emperor and Empress of Germany recently visited Bielefeld and Wilhelmsdorf. The former commended in enthusisatic terms the work there done for social reform.

—The rich collection of papyri finds made at Oxyrhynchus by the English scholars Grenfeld and Hunt, of which a portion was recently published by the Egypt Exploration Fund, as Part I. of the "Græco-Roman Branch," is evidently destined to prove a fascinating source of historical and archæological data. One of these fragments, covering four columns, each of fourteen or fifteen lines, has already excited international interest. Mommsen, who spoke on this fragment at a meeting of the Berlin Academy of Sciences soon after its appearance, and whose view is published in the report of the session, p. 498, called it "remnants of a remarkable protocol in which an Alexandrian ambassador and gymnasiarch Appianos stands before the Emperor for judgment and is condemned to death, probably on account of impudent insults to his Majesty uttered during the trial." The Halle professor Blass, in the *Literarisches Centralblatt*, expresses similar views, as also do O. Crusius and some others. An altogether new face is given the matter by a detailed discussion by Professor Deissmann of Heidelberg, in the *Theologische Literaturzeitung*, No. 23, who, upon a close analysis and comparison with other similar accounts, makes it quite possible that this fragment is a specimen—the largest of the few extant—of a remarkable kind of literature, viz., protocols of an anti-Jewish embassy sent by the citizens of Alexandria to complain about their Israelitish neighbors to the Emperor. As nearly all the other fragments of this kind belong to the era of Claudius, it is quite possible that similar complaints nearer home induced that Emperor to expel the Jews from Rome. If this new interpretation, as seems not improbable, is correct, it furnishes us with a curious glimpse of the kaleidoscope of nationalities that composed the Roman Empire of the period. The text of the fragment is published in full by Deissmann.

—The Dieppe school of map-makers, of which Pierre Desceliers was perhaps the earliest important member, became established during the second quarter of the sixteenth century. More maps, of finer technique and of greater diplomatic interest, were made during the succeeding half-century at other centres of geographic and commercial knowledge, at Lisbon, Seville, and the Italian and German cities; but none of these excelled the Dieppese maps in accurate, honest portrayal of what was actually known to the men who sailed the ships which were tracing their way along the unknown coasts of Asia, Australasia, and America. Three of these maps, drawn by Desceliers, the priest of Arques, across the river from Dieppe, in 1536 or thereabouts, in 1546, and in 1550, have recently been published in facsimile for a few of the more important libraries by the Earl of Crawford and Balcarres. It would be hard to name three maps of this period of greater intrinsic interest, or three about which there was greater need of accurate information. These maps have been known for a considerable time, and that of 1546, now owned by Lord Crawford, was facsimiled twenty-five years ago for Jomard's 'Monuments de la Géographie.' But Jomard failed to discover the legend on this map which gives its date and the maker's name; and of the other two maps, preserved in the British Museum, there was no satisfactory description prior to the preparation of Mr. Coote's introduction to Lord Crawford's facsimiles. The detailed study and comparison now made possible promise to reveal many points which will throw light upon the progress of discovery and upon the increase of knowledge of the border lands of the earth. Not only were these maps drawn during an especially interesting period, but their value is greatly increased by their being the work of one man, who utilized from year to year each addition to his stock of information, eliminating superseded guesses and theories as they came within the range of actual exploration reported by returning voyagers.

FRAZER'S PAUSANIAS.—I.

Pausanias's Description of Greece. Translated with a Commentary by J. G. Frazer, M.A., LL.D., Glasgow; Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge; of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law. Macmillans. 1898.

Mr. Frazer's six stately volumes, translating, elucidating, and completing Pausanias's Description of Greece in the second century A. D., must henceforth be a landmark upon the constantly expanding domain of Hellenic Archæology. More than any other connected work of our time, his Commentary brings into focus the scattered dissertations of specialists and the elusive broadsides of controversialists. Moreover, he has shown a surprising skill in digesting and clarifying for the judicious reader the important gist of those portentous tomes which register the results of vastly planned excavations. Absolved alike from worrying our attention amid swarms of pamphlets, and from weighting our shelves with tons of officially promulgated folios, we are bound to express the liveliest gratitude for the three thousand-odd pages of this all-comprising work, as well as for the learning, the labor, and the judgment here lavished in our behoof. If any should incline to murmur at the dimensions assumed by Mr. Frazer's magnum opus, let him reflect that a work which not only gives a trustworthy version of a great author of considerable bulk, but also is an itemized specification of the stock-in-hand of Hellenic Archæology, and an arbitrator's award upon its leading points in controversy, a Gazetteer of Anthropology and a Thesaurus of Folklore, will never find house-room in the fifth dimension of space or accommodate itself to the waistcoat pocket. Indeed, though the most cautious of the anthropologists and the Hellenists whom Mr. Frazer's 'Golden Bough' has left unconvinced, may sigh a little over him at moments when he turns his back upon Pausanias and hastily dashes through the least-frequented extremities of the earth, telling his litany of primeval saws and savage instances, the judicious layman will be sure to find our author's array of curious lore about primitive man a constant and welcome relief from the strain of prolonged archæological discussions. Still, these anthropological catalogues have a monotony of their own, which is often aggravated by the fact that the only obvious thing to be done with them is to recommit them to the sort of card-catalogue from which they seem to derive.

There is, however, another conspicuous feature in Mr. Frazer's work which occupies a vastly larger space than is given to primeval man, and is everywhere refreshing and uplifting, since it grows out of a sustained enthusiasm for Greek landscape and displays unparalleled powers of description. Always scrupulously specific, never careless as to the fauna, the flora, the soils, the minerals, or the geological facts presented to his scrutiny, constantly mindful of topographical niceties and debates, Mr. Frazer nevertheless contrives at every turn to inoculate the reader with his own ardent delight in Greek scenery. Attica, in every nook and cranny, he not only has seen with his own eyes, but can describe with an eloquence the more convincing because never out of touch with definite and concisely summarized facts. The landscapes of Bœotia and Arcadia have also given him peculiar delights which he again contrives to share with his reader. There are also passages not easy to forget on the Parnassian wilds of Phocis (vol. v., 230, 399), the alpine recesses of Laconian Taygetus (vol. iii., 363), and the rugged district of Maina (Ib., 392 f.), and Cape Malea (Ib., 386 f.). In fact, the gallery of landscapes through which our commentator guides us, whets and sustains appetite for more throughout these volumes. Each picture is made doubly effective on the one hand by the obliviousness of Pausanias to all beauties of nature as such (vol. i., introduction, xxx f.), and on the other by its setting in the midst of highly technical dissertations on points of archæology. The total result is that these notes have a charm, quite independent of Pausanias, which has rarely or never been equalled in a commentary. A comparison to be made is with the late Prof. Freeman's 'Sicily,' a work abounding in beautiful landscapes nobly described. Mr. Frazer has nothing of Freeman's unique gift for interpreting the far-off site or landscape by swift and unerring flashes of comparison with places better known and nearer home; on the other hand, he has a firmer hold than Freeman's upon the specific minutiæ of the scene he is describing. Plainly, Mr. Frazer learned the love of scenery in his native Scotland; otherwise he could not in the course of two visits to Greece, both of which together hardly covered half a year, have lived himself so

completely into the genius of the countryside of Hellas.

Mr. Frazer gives, in the first of his six volumes, a complete translation of the ten books of Pausanias, covering 550-odd pages. To this he prefixes an introduction of a hundred pages, and the volume closes with critical notes of like amount. The sixth and last volume is almost entirely occupied by an admirably minute index to the translated text of Pausanias, and, along with a short index to the Commentary (volumes ii.-v.), a serviceable key-map and nine large-scale maps, each of which covers one of the several regions of Greece dealt with by Pausanias. One whole volume of the four devoted to Commentaries is given to Pausanias's forty-four chapters on Attica and the Megarid, and here, for every page of his text, our commentator supplies ten pages explanatory and supplementary. When we have noted that the pages of the Commentary are more closely printed than those of the text, to which they stand in the ratio of 5:4, and that Mr. Frazer is always scrupulously brief and commendably concise in his diction, we begin to realize very definitely how unparalleled has been, especially during the last fifty years, the amount of enthusiastic work and intellectual energy expended upon the records and monuments of the ancient Athenians. Just here either a contrast or a parallel—perhaps it is both—presents itself. The historians of the later Crusades, unlike the chroniclers of the earlier ones, had much of the impersonal interest in facts about Greece and the Levant so marked in our modern explorers, who are indeed like the Crusaders of old in representing all the more vigorous national stocks of Christendom. But our workers in Greece to-day have one great advantage over their intellectual forerunners of 500 years ago, since they find in the land itself which they are exploring a host of Greeks trained in the school of the West, who are willing and able to do a vast share of the necessary work. Indeed, a prevalent tendency to belittle the capacities of the modern Greek must receive a rude check from Mr. Frazer's record of sound work in archæology done by contemporary Greek scholars. These observations inevitably suggest themselves after a glance at the first volume of our author's Commentary (which deals with Attica, where all the excavations on a large scale have been the work of native scholars), but they also hold good elsewhere.

The scale of Mr. Frazer's Commentary is considerably reduced as soon as he has done with Attica. He still gives us, however, six pages to every one of Pausanias's text throughout the Book (ii.) on Corinth and Argolis. As an offset to the enforced amplitude with which these first two books have to be elucidated, we may turn to the notes on Achaia (vii.) and Messenia (iv.), where Mr. Frazer contrives to say all that is necessary in just about the number of pages occupied by the text elucidated, nor does Pausanias's account of Laconia (iii.), largely devoted as it is to a summary of Laconian history, require of him more than two pages to every one of the text commented upon. Elis (v., vi.). Arcadia (viii.), Bœotia (ix.), and Phocis (x.) remain, and here the Commentary has what is its average bulk throughout the whole work—four pages of explanation to every one of Pausanias. Why Mr. Frazer could not be more brief in commenting on these particular books is apparent when we note that his account of Elis contains a summary of the German excavations at Olympia, while Arcadia is of cardinal importance in the study of the most primitive aspects of Greek worship, not to speak of its varied and remarkable scenery. Of Bœotia several parts are, like Arcadia, primitive, while small but by no means few or unimportant excavations have greatly multiplied the points of archæological interest in this region. As to Phocis, Mr. Frazer's readers are to be congratulated on his success in obtaining access to the plans and accounts of French excavations still in progress at Delphi. This book is the first one of note which systematically lifts the veil behind which Apollo's greatest Sanctuary has been hidden for so many centuries. Before turning to details, we may remark that these Commentaries as a whole have not been fashioned into a working substitute for an extensive and not inexpensive archæological library without lavish, varied, and costly illustrations. The four volumes of Commentaries contain 91 figured coins, 57 reproductions of statues, bas-reliefs, and pictures, and 41 cuts of various sizes, supplying for the most part important architectural and topographical ground-plans. To these must be added the most noteworthy of all the illustrations, 32 large plates. Sixteen of these are plans, eleven are maps, and five are carefully executed engravings.

DARWIN'S TIDES.

The Tides and Kindred Phenomena in the Solar System. By George Howard Darwin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 378.

There are probably not a great many people who feel any burning desire to know just how the tides behave, and just why they behave as they do, and just how predictions of them are made; so that this book may not be much sought after at the mere mention of its title. Readers of it must pass around from mouth to mouth how interesting it is, and how much the author had made of a seemingly most refractory subject. He has shown us that it is possible to write a popular book upon a branch of mathematics without childishness, without sensationalism, and to give it a real value for him who is versed in the science as well as for him to whom it is all new.

The variety of topics that are found pertinent to the general theme is astonishing. No less than twenty chapters treat of nineteen different questions, each of great interest quite apart from the rest, but at the same time the whole nineteen have such a unity that we cannot say that any one of them could have been omitted without serious detriment to the general sketch of this branch of science.

All these topics are so interesting that we hardly know which ones to choose in order to give our readers an idea of the contents of the volume. Perhaps chapter ii., partly (no doubt) from its giving the first marked impression of the work, is as striking as any. It relates to "seiches" in lakes. The word "seiche" is vernacular, we believe, only on the shores of Lake Leman, where alone this phenomenon has attracted the general attention of the inhabitants. It is a rise and fall of the water on the shore of the lake of a few inches, sometimes with a period of about an hour, sometimes in a less regular way. This phenomenon has been investigated, not by a mathematician or physicist, but by a naturalist of the school of De Saussure and De Candolle (not to leave the shores of the lake for exemplars), Dr. Forel of Lausanne, a town well placed for observing the seiches. It is interesting to see the methods of observation of this naturalist in physics; they are very ingenious, and are such as a physicist would hardly have lit upon. The observations render the nature of the seiches quite evident. The commonest are just like the slopping of a tea-cup carried in the hand —that is, the whole mass of water of the lake rocks about a nodal line in the middle. In other seiches there are two nodes or even more; but these are infrequent. It is important, in view of phenomena presently to be mentioned, to note the periodic times of these oscillations. The uninodal seiches are observed to have a period of 73 minutes, the binodal of 35 minutes. Ordinary visible waves on the lake have a period of 4 to 5 seconds. Intermediate between these there are waves having a height of from 1-25 to 1-10 of an inch, and of periods of from 45 seconds to 4 minutes. Of course, they can be observed only by a delicate recording instrument. Some of these waves, which Dr. Forel designates as "vibrations," are due to the wind, but the most interesting ones are caused by steamboats. When a steamboat running at full speed is still twenty-five minutes from the pier, as soon as she rounds a point that gives a clear way for the wave the vibrations are plainly marked upon the instrument. After the boat leaves, they are much more violent, and it is more than two hours after her departure before they disappear. These waves are entirely unlike anything that can be seen with the naked eye, as their periods show.

As we have space only for one other example of the interest of the matter of this volume, we will pitch almost at haphazard upon chapter xvi., on tidal friction. Since the tide-wave moves with the moon and sun, from east to west, while the earth rotates daily from west to east, it is plain that the friction of the tide against the earth tends to retard the earth's rotation. Now, since it is the action of the moon that mainly makes the tidal wave, and, therefore, thus retards the earth, and since action and reaction are always equal and opposite, it follows that the moon in thus drawing the earth towards the east must itself be drawn towards the west. But that is the direction in which the moon is moving in its revolution round the earth; and thus the motion of the moon in its orbit is accelerated, as the comparison of ancient and modern observations shows it to be. This acceleration of the moon's velocity causes it to fly off a little further from the attracting centre of the earth, and enlarges its orbit, and the complete revolution in this enlarged orbit takes more time than that in the unenlarged orbit; but since the day is also considerably longer, there are fewer days in the month than there were at first. All this is familiar to everybody who has recently read a good treatise on astronomy. But at this point Mr. Darwin starts a most interesting question. Namely, he asks when this process of gradual recession of the moon from the earth could have first begun. Clearly it must have been going on whenever the moon was making tides upon the earth. It must, therefore, be traced back to the time when the moon was so close to the earth as to form one mass with it, when it would, of course, make no tides. But however the moon came

to be thrown off from the earth, it would be likely to preserve its linear velocity tangential to the earth, while, the circumference in which it moved being larger than the earth, the month from the very start must have been longer than the day, which is sufficient to insure the recession of the moon. M. Poincaré, a mathematician of great genius from Nancy, has shown that one form that a mass of liquid rotating about an axis in equilibrium might have, would be a pear-shape, the axis of the pear being at right angles to the axis of rotation. Now there can be litttle doubt that the protuberance at the stem of the pear would tend to become a bulb and finally to be thrown off from the rest. What would ensue? The tides caused by the earth's attraction in the satellite so formed would tear it to fragments. The fragments near the earth would be just small enough to hold together, those further away would be larger, while the part of the satellite farthest from the earth would form a satellite of such a size as to be distant from the earth about two and a half of its diameters, which would be the moon. The small pieces nearest the earth would probably return to the earth. Those somewhat further away may very likely be there yet; for any appearance of them could be distinguished from the zodiacal light only by more careful observations than any that have yet been made. This theory of the genesis of the moon seems to us, we must confess, not so "wild a speculation" as the author is willing to grant that it is.

The only chapters of the book with which we cannot feel ourselves quite satisfied are those which deal with mathematical arguments. We are here sometimes at a loss to understand what it is that the author is aiming at. He seems to be *explaining* the reasoning of the mathematician. But mathematicians, especially when they are dealing with the most difficult applications of mathematics, have not been inventing abstruse and difficult ways of reasoning; on the contrary, they have been trying with all their might to find the simplest and easiest ways; and they are men of great genius and training in finding out simple methods of reasoning. By far the shortest way to understand the reasoning of the mathematician about the tides is to begin by buying a book on the calculus; and when that is mastered, to go through with the rest of the course required for a thorough understanding of hydrodynamics. Any pretended "explanation" of the reasoning shorter than this either is fallacious, or covers only a small and insufficient piece of the reasoning for even a vague conclusion, or it is open to both criticisms.

The author, in his preface, has this remark:

> "A mathematical argument is, after all, only organized common sense, and it is well that men of science should not always expound their work to the few behind a veil of technical language, but should from time to time explain to a larger public the reasoning which lies behind their mathematical notation."

There is more than one fallacy here. In the first place, the term common sense, the middle term of the first half-expressed syllogism (whose strict conclusion Mr. Darwin would not have found it convenient to state), is ambiguous. Common sense, in the proper acceptation of the term, resides mainly in the subconscious department of the mind. It informs us how things go in this world of ours, and in this world exclusively. It has nothing whatever to say about the pure hypotheses of the mathematician, and therefore has no bearing whatever upon mathematical reasoning. But it appears that in the sentence quoted something quite different is meant, which is called "common sense" only because these words impart that popular tone and that *bonhomie* which the author is endeavoring to assume. What seems to be meant is, that each step of the mathematical argument is perfectly evident to the vulgar equally with the learned, to the mathematically dull as much as to the mathematically bright, *provided he clearly apprehends the premises.* But this proviso contains the whole difficulty. Every mathematical premise contains so many elements, so intricately related, that most minds are unable to apprehend the proposition distinctly. The ability to do so is precisely what makes the mathematical mind. It is impossible to dissect a mathematical reasoning so that the mathematically very dull can apprehend it, because, when the dissection reaches a certain point, the logical relations become different; and the result is a fallacy.

It is not true, then, in any acceptation of the terms, that a mathematical argument is only organized common sense. As for what is said about a "veil of technical language," it involves an egregious begging of the question. The technical language of science is composed of words intended to aid the search after truth by facilitating the work of the mind in dealing with complicated conceptions. If, instead of fulfilling that purpose, it is that Talleyrand dialect which veils the thought, it ought to be altogether spurned, and will be so treated by every real devotee of science. But the "language" which Mr. Darwin has in mind is not speech—it is the language of algebra and the calculus. To the disciple of Lagrange and Laplace, the analytical formula is simply the most perfect possible description of the hypothetical phenomena. It is something into which geometrical representations ought to be translated, being itself as near pure thought as it is in the nature of thought to be. When it comes to such a question as the phase of a forced oscillation, especially of an oscillation in two dimensions (and such is the problem of the tides), the frankest way is to leave the mathematical argument untouched in that utmost simplicity to which generations of the most skilful reasoners have been able to bring it. By all means illustrate any steps of it that you can, by parallels drawn from familiar experience; but do not attempt to "explain" that which, on the contrary, must explain your explanation. Is there one bicyclist in five hundred who thoroughly understands why his wheel behaves as it does? Is there one in fifty who does not imagine that it stands up because of its rectilinear velocity? How utterly visionary, then, it is to attempt to popularize the mathematics of any less familiar and still more intricate subject.

Charles Lamb and the Lloyds: Comprising newly discovered letters of C. Lamb, S. T. Coleridge, the Lloyds, etc. Edited by E. V. Lucas. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1898.

Four years ago, in a mass of correspondence relating to the family of Charles Lloyd, the Quaker banker of Birmingham, were discovered twenty new letters of Charles Lamb, with others by Coleridge, Southey, Anna Seward, and other more or less famous friends of the Lloyds. Portions of these letters have since appeared in periodical literature, but we now for the first time meet them in book form in this pleasing little volume. Mr. Lucas recognizes in his title that the chief interest of the book is due to Charles Lamb. He announces in his preface that his aim is to tell the "story of a notable family"; he has at least succeeded in showing that the dull and estimable Lloyds had notable friends, and throughout his pages these Birmingham Quakers shine with a borrowed light.

The elder Lloyd may be dismissed in a few words. He was a pious and kindly banker, with a taste for the classics, which he would not permit to lie lost and extinct, in prose and business, like Prior's muse. The sixty-four pages that Mr. Lucas devotes to Lloyd's translations of Homer and Horace are of a dulness to threaten lockjaw. They are illumined for us by two critical letters by Anna Seward, the "Swan" of Lichfield, which, as specimens of feminine arrogance and majestic diction, will rank henceforth among the curiosities of literature. The lady, who knew no Greek, weighs critically the rival merits of Pope's and Cowper's translations of Homer, and justifies her preference for Pope by the assertion that "he chose to throw a veil of poetic light over a great number of the original passages, which have the duskiness of low and prosaic language" (p. 197). She goes on to quote the author of 'Sandford and Merton' to the effect that "Pope's Homer was, as *poetry*, very superior to its Original, by exalting all that there is low, animating what is tedious, and equalling in strength as well as beauty almost all the noblest passages of the old Bard" (p. 203). There is much more in the same strain, and it must always be a source of regret that Matthew Arnold did not incorporate a commentary on Anna Seward in his celebrated "Essay on the Art of Translating Homer." To do her justice, she formed a pretty fair estimate of Lloyd's merits as a translator; her comments were too unflattering to be borne, and Lloyd defended his version with energy. In the course of their controversy, having pitilessly dissected his description of a moonlight scene, she adds:

> "I am tempted to the egotism of inserting a moon-light landscape of my *own* from an unfinished Epic Poem, built in wide paraphrases upon Fénelon's 'Telemachus,' which in itself contains few poetic essentials. It forms but the mere *outline* of my attempt, which as yet consists only of 3 books."

One realizes dimly what Scott had to face as the literary executor of this gifted woman. Over Anna Seward and her conviction that Pope "substituted intrinsic gems for the dross of Homer," the imagination loves to linger. But we must turn to Charles Lloyd, the younger, the friend and pupil of Coleridge, and to his brother Robert, since their letters and literary adventures form the *pièce de résistance* of Mr. Lucas's book. They were morbidly serious young men, who seemed frivolous to their home circle because they wore Hessian boots and were irregular in attendance at meeting. Charles Lloyd is well known as one of the earliest and least critical of Coleridge's disciples. He retired with Coleridge, when the latter decided to abandon the restraints of cities and "to take a cottage and half-a-dozen acres of land in an enchanting situation" (p. 36). In 1797 the poems of Coleridge, Lloyd, and Lamb appeared in one luckless volume, and with that date we gladly welcome the entry

of Charles Lamb, "the frolic and the gentle," the only member of that group who could take life and himself lightly, and refuse to be morbid. His obstinate cheerfulness in the face of tragic misfortunes, his genuine *joie de vivre*, are in trenchant contrast with the lugubrious pessimism and sentimentalism of the younger Lloyds. When they all fell out—we know not why—it was Lamb who refused to be estranged. A letter to Robert Lloyd gives us an enchanting glimpse of that Elia who, in virtue of his peculiar qualities of whimsical humor and pathos, secures a personal affection from his readers which probably only Stevenson has evoked in the same degree:

"You say that 'this world to you seems drain'd of all its sweets!' At first I had hoped you only meant to insinuate the high price of sugar, but I am afraid you meant more. O, Robert, I don't know what you call sweet. Honey and the honeycomb, roses and violets are yet in the earth. The sun and moon yet reign in Heaven, and the lesser lights keep up their pretty twinklings. Meats and drinks, sweet sights and sweet smells, a country walk, spring and autumn, follies and repentance, quarrels and reconcilements, have all a sweetness by turns. . . . You may extract honey from everything; do not go a-gathering after gall. I assure you I find this world a very pretty place."

Lamb's love of London streets is familiar to readers of his published letters; the following is certainly the most effective variation of this theme:

"Let them talk of lakes and mountains and romantic dales—all that fantastic stuff; give me a ramble by night, in the winter nights in London—the Lamps lit—the pavements of the motley Strand crowded with to-and-fro passengers, and the shops all brilliant, and stuffed with obliging customers and obliged tradesmen—give me the old bookstalls of London—a walk in the bright piazzas of Covent Garden. I defy a man to be dull in such places—perfect Mahometan paradises upon earth! I have lent out my heart with usury to such scenes from my childhood up, and have cried with fulness of joy at the multitudinous scenes of life in the crowded streets of ever dear London. . . . A mob of men is better than a flock of sheep, and a crowd of happy faces jostling into the playhouse at the hour of six is a more beautiful spectacle to man than the shepherd driving his 'silly' sheep to fold" (p. 144).

Lloyd's friends were greatly put to it when he sent them his translations for criticism and approval. Lamb showed both tact and candor; and his corrections of the translator's lapses of scholarship and taste were well received. When the word "sentiment" occurred, he wrote: "I would root this word out of a translation of Homer. It came in with Sterne, and was a child he had by Affectation" (p. 240). Lamb's glowing eulogies of Jeremy Taylor's 'Holy Dying' and of the 'Complete Angler'—"Everything is *alive;* the fishes are absolutely *characterd*"—and the fresh glimpses of his private life, run through the book like a gold thread; and as we pursue it we learn to tolerate the Lloyds and their large, sober English families.

From the point of view of the malicious, perhaps the gem of Mr. Lucas's collection is a letter from Wordsworth to the elder Lloyd. It is too much to ask of a poet that he should reduce his principles to the level of his practice. Still, we commend the following to the notice of the superior Wordsworthian. He at least may be assumed to admire the sonnet, "Proud were ye mountains," in which occur the lines:

"Now for your shame, a Power, the Thirst of Gold,
That rules o'er Britain like a baleful star,
Wills that your peace, your beauty, shall be sold,
And clear way made for her triumphal car
Through the beloved retreats your arms enfold!
Weighing the mischief with the promised gain,
Mountains, and Vales, and Floods, I call on you
To share the passion of a just disdain."

Here is the letter of a poet betraying Nature with the heart that loved her:

"My Dear Sir: . . .

"To come to the point at once, I have been led to consider Birmingham as the point from which the railway companies now forming receive their principal impulse, and I feel disposed to risk a sum—not more than £500—in purchasing shares in some promising company. I hope I do not presume too much when I request that you would have the kindness to point out to me what companies are thought the most eligible, etc."

After this we are steeled to learn that Mr. Ruskin is a railway director, and we see the point of J. K. Stephen's parody of Wordsworth entitled "Poetic Lamentation on the Insufficiency of Steam Locomotion in the Lake District":

"Wake, England, wake! 'tis now the hour
To sweep away this black disgrace—
The want of locomotive power
In so enjoyable a place.
Nature has done her part, and why
Is mightier man in his to fail?
I want to hear the porters cry:
'Change here for Ennerdale'!"

Glimpses of Modern German Culture. By Kuno Francke. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898. 233 pp.

It is refreshing to renew contact with a mind that, having found its standpoint, will not depart from it. Among the puzzling contradictions and startling complications of modern life, such a standpoint is a welcome *point de repère* from which with dignity and at leisure to survey the encompassing turbulence. A standpoint of this kind Professor Francke has found in his theory of the perennial conflict between individualistic and collectivistic forces. It was on these lines that he so admirably traced the history of 'Social Forces in German Literature,' announcing his programme in his title. The present volume is a collection of articles written in a lighter and more intimate vein, dealing with a variety of topics for the most part unrelated, but each revealing the same breadth of view and seriousness of purpose that gave distinction to the larger work. Germany of to-day he calls the "classic land of moral contrasts." By fixing his attention upon this conflict of opposing forces as an essential factor in each problem, he is enabled to get his bearings amid the most confusing manifestations of intellectual activity in modern Germany, and his adherence to a guiding principle gives to this collection a psychological coherence and consistency which enhances the charm of each separate article.

Nine of the fourteen articles here included were originally contributed to the *Nation*, four appeared in the *Bookman*, and the last, on "Bismarck as a National Type," came out in the October *Atlantic*. This study of Bismarck is representative of Prof. Francke's attitude. Prof. Munroe Smith, in his masterly monograph which appeared in an abridged form in the *Nation* at the time of the ex-Chancellor's death, did not neglect to point out the contradictory traits of the Prince's character. Under Prof. Francke's treatment, however, these contradictions find their explanation and reconciliation in this, that they completely represent the moral contrasts which characterize modern Germany. Bismarck is thus the national type. In Hauptmann the same moral conflict is apparent. Certainly it is a far cry from the slums of "Vor Sonnenaufgang" to the fairy realms of the "Versunkene Glocke," and it requires something more than the comparatively brief time-difference between the two plays to account for the moral and artistic chasm which separates them. The poet seems to have been exploring the depths of his own nature, finding now pearls, now pebbles, but in either case irresistibly impelled to give a literary setting to what he found.

But this inner conflict of tendencies is not found in each individual only; it is found in the age itself, which admits besides a Hauptmann and a Sudermann also an Ernst von Wildenbruch. In this particular instance, and from a strictly critical standpoint, the reader will perhaps find it harder to follow Prof. Francke. Is it not the Hohenzollern blood which flows in Wildenbruch's veins, and the favor of a Hohenzollern king upon the Prussian throne and the subsidized Royal Theatre in Berlin, that partly account for the success of Wildenbruch's patriotic plays as much as any spontaneous aspirations of the age that find expression through them? Nevertheless, the fact remains, whatever the cause, that this brilliant portrayer of Brandenburg's past and reviver of what he is himself pleased to call "deutscher Vers" is playing a conspicuous part in the dramatic life of the German capital.

Thus the reader may wander at will through these fascinating pages, questioning this, assenting to that, but always entertained, always in sympathy. The splendid tribute to the genius of Herman Grimm is already familiar to our readers, as is also the delightful characterization of "Alt-Schottland," the work of his wife, Frau Giesela Grimm. This wafts us back to the days when her mother, Bettina von Arnim, was a potent force in the romantic literature of the reactionary years which followed the wars for freedom. And with the essay on Bettina's friend, the unhappy Karoline von Günderode, we are in the twilight haze of Romanticism where blue flowers nod and lovers die for love. It is characteristic of Prof. Francke that he should correlate Fräulein Günderode's death with the battle of Jena, which occurred two months later. That crushing defeat cleared the moral atmosphere; men awoke to nobler obligations, and went to meet death for the rescue of the fatherland as before they might have done to escape the pangs of disappointed love.

Prof. Francke does not wish these sketches to be taken too seriously. Enough, however, has been said to show that they are pervaded by a large-eyed, sympathetic appreciation of all that is uplifting, of whatever school or tendency; indeed, as we have said, it is in the contrasts of schools and tendencies that he sees the promise of growth, and there is something in his freedom from philological formalism and pedantic pettiness, in his reverence for the idealistic past, his understanding for the materialistic present, and his prophetic faith in the osmotic force which shall blend the two elements, that eminently fits him to be an interpreter to the American people of the works of the reawakened German genius.

The book is tastefully printed and simply bound. A just cause for complaint is the running book-title, which makes the search for a particular article unnecessarily complicated. The book will be a welcome Christmas contribution to all whose intellectual interests extend to the attractive topics which have here been treated.

Causes and Consequences. By John Jay Chapman. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

Mr. Chapman's cleverness and originality have already attracted attention to him as an essayist. In the present volume he applies an essayist's method to questions connected with government and society. The result is that he has written a book which no one can read without finding in it something instructive and suggestive, but which will probably leave as a whole on the reader's mind a different impression from that which the author avows his intention to produce. There are five essays, on Politics, Society, Education, Democracy, and Government; and Mr. Chapman, in his preface, declares that they are all "little more than presentations from different points of view" of a single idea—that "man is an unselfish animal." As we understand it, what is meant by this is best seen in the essays on Education and on Politics. In the former, which is a development of ideas derived from Froebel, our author says that Froebel's discoveries in education may be formulated as follows: "The child is a growing organism. It is a unity. It develops through creative activity. It is benefited by contact with other children, and is happy in proportion as it is unselfishly employed." Unselfishness and intellectual development (that is, we suppose, of the creative sort) are one and the same thing, and "there is no failure of intellect which cannot be expressed in terms of selfishness, and no selfishness which cannot be expressed as mental shortcoming." "Criminology," he adds, "has reached the same point by another route." The matter "is really very simple, for anything self-regardant means a return of the organism upon itself, a stepping on your own toes, and brings self-consciousness, discomfort, pain. Self-sacrifice, on the other hand, brings fulfilment. The self-sacrifice is always illusory, and the development real."

Mr. Chapman's book, then, is written to show that the best self-development comes thrugh devotion to something outside one's self. Put in this way, the proposition is one with which most persons would be disposed to agree. Most philosophers and moralists have taught the same thing, in some form. The late J. S. Mill, if we remember right, caused some astonishment by announcing it, in the account he gave of his life, as a discovery of his own. No doubt it may be found in Froebel, and Mr. Chapman frankly admits that "the substance of everything Froebel says was known before." Mr. Chapman has, however, invented a new way of saying it. "Man is an unselfish animal." This is in the true essayistic vein. It startles, it is paradoxical, it challenges denial. It calls aloud for explanation, and gives an opportunity for ingenuity just such as Mr. Chapman possesses.

Some people rebel at this way of being taught. Why not say what you have to say in plain English, without paradox? Why use the word selfish in different senses in premises and in conclusion? If you devote yourself to something outside yourself in order to develop yourself, your object is still obviously selfish. To be perfectly unselfish, you must devote yourself to something which actually makes you miserable. So far from being an unselfish animal, man's objects necessarily relate to self in a lower or higher sense. If we "scorn delights and live laborious days," it is because we know of a higher species of satisfaction, mental or moral, which means for us happiness.

To all such critics Mr. Chapman's obvious reply would be that he does not pretend to be a logician or a systematic philosopher, and that life is too short to be for ever occupied in making premises and conclusion tally; and, besides that, when you have made premises and conclusion agree, some people maintain that you have only stated an identical proposition and added nothing to the sum of knowledge. What he wishes to do is to throw light on admitted facts and draw attention to existing problems, and for this purpose paradox and metaphor are the essayist's time-honored weapons.

Mr. Chapman's method is best seen in his first essay, on Politics. He begins with the statement that "misgovernment in the United States is an incident in the history of commerce." He then proceeds to examine the corruption and dishonesty in government, of which so many complaints are made. These political troubles come from the great accumulation of wealth. Capital has obtained control of the Government itself, and commercialism has produced "boss government." The essay is an argument in favor of idealism in politics, and contains a very entertaining analysis of the process by which, under the influence of the commercial spirit, the bosses obtain dominion. It also contains a good many sound and pointed observations. For instance, speaking of those reformers who think to improve politics by imitating the regulars, and getting up the same sort of party machinery, Mr. Chapman says: "They would expel Tammany Hall, and lo, Tammany is within them." "Executive capacity," of which we hear so much, "is simply that capacity which is always found in people who really wanted something done." The intelligent people of America "think they are not affected by the commercialism of the times; but their attitude of mind is precisely that of a lettered class living under a tyranny."

The essays are those of a littérateur turned politician. The author's real merits—his facility of expression, his idealism, his turn for paradox and satire—are all the qualities of the literary man. Of knowledge of or interest in the business of government, or economical questions, or law, he shows little trace. He is an enthusiast for humanity converted by stress of circumstances into a preacher against corruption. There is an echo of Emerson in his philosophy, and even (without imitation) in his style; there is an accent of sincerity in his detestation of wrong and injustice which is unmistakable. His book is a manly appeal to the rising generation, for whom it has a message of courage and hope sadly wanting nowadays.

Hitting vs. Missing, with the Shot-Gun. By S. T. Hammond. Forest and Stream Publishing Co.

Manual of the Canvas Canoe. By F. R. Webb. Forest and Stream Publishing Co.

As game and fish become less numerous, treatises on how to kill the one or take the other increase proportionately. Mr. Hammond's little book, however, comes not amiss, for what he has to tell is the outcome of fifty years' experience. In that time he has seen the evolution of the shot-gun from the muzzle-loader to the latest development of the multiple-fire. Mr. Hammond does not write from the standpoint of a maker of shot-guns, but from that of the sportsman whose knowledge of them has come from persistent following of the sports of the field. His acquaintance with the subject is clearly defined in his chapter on the choosing of the gun. He there emphasizes the prime condition of accurate shooting—the fit of the shot-gun to the physical peculiarities of the gunner. Where this requirement is neglected, no normal man can hope to become what is known as a "dead shot." Mr. Hammond exhibits equal common sense in his treatment of other topics connected with the use of the shot-gun. His chapter on ammunition is, however, superfluous, for the perfection to which the commercial loading of cartridges has attained eliminates entirely any personal attention of the sportsman to that matter.

Mr. Webb, in his 'Manual of the Canvas Canoe,' offers to lovers of out-door life a means of more comprehensive enjoyment than Mr. Hammond in these days of scarcity of game. Avoiding the use of involved technical terms, and explaining clearly the simple lines upon which the canvas canoe is constructed, Mr. Webb places it within the power of any one endowed with a minimum of mechanical skill to construct one of these boats. It involves nothing more than the ability to trace the details of the working drawings of the canoe, which are given on a single sheet contained in a pocket attached to the cover of the book. This sheet represents two designs of canvas canoes. Either one may be built at a cost of from $12 to $15, of the dimensions of 14 feet in length, 28 inches beam, 16 inches at bow, and 14 inches at stern. The cockpit is 8 feet long and 20 inches wide, and affords ample sleeping and stowage room. Model No. 2 in the working drawings has 30 inches beam instead of 28 inches. For all the purposes to which a cedar canoe can be applied the canvas canoe can be used, except, perhaps, in water where sharp rocks are encountered, and even then the latter's easy repair counterbalances the superior solidity of the former. As regards the first cost of two boats, the advantage is greatly in favor of the canvas canoe. Mr. Webb's chapter on hints of cookery for canoeists contains the most admirable formulas for the preparation of a few simple aliments that have ever come under our notice.

Social Ideals in English Letters. By Vida D. Scudder. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

Readers of Miss Scudder's book will be a little puzzled to know whether its aim is mainly polemical or expository. If the former, the author's position, while implicitly clear, is discreetly veiled and non-explicit; if the latter, why so much homily and fervor of the faith? Indeed, this division of purpose seems to us the chief structural fault in a work otherwise of undeniable ability. This book is essentially, we take it, a series of lay sermons, seeking in English literature a sequence of documents for the illustration of the growth of the socialistic idea. The method is strictly selective: Langland, More, and Swift supply the material for study in the earlier periods, and these chapters, while limited in scope, contain much excellent interpretation and constitute a series of good popular lectures on the old topics. In the modern period, the treatment is more scattering; but, intermingled with a vast deal of author's comment, there is much suggestive and penetrating generalization as to the social bearing of the writings of Dickens, Thackeray, Carlyle, Ruskin, and Matthew

Arnold. The social ideals of the great Romantic poets are very briefly passed over, while the Victorian poets are dismissed as unworthy of consideration. Full justice is done to the deep sincerity and the breadth of Matthew Arnold's writings on social questions, and the interpretation of Ruskin's views is remarkably sympathetic. The treatment grows more and more didactic as the book goes on, and we cannot but think the latter portion far inferior to the first.

Miss Scudder is a talented victim of "sociology," if not of "socialism." The earnestness of spirit, the sincerity and poise of thought throughout this work are undeniable. It is valuable as literary interpretation when it does not stray into homily; and its unwavering loyalty to the large idea of socialism and of industrial regeneration must render even its homily sympathetic to those who can fully accept its creed. But, like so much of the thinking of the day, cultured and uncultured, it too readily contents itself with the large idea and the sweeping generalization. Fervor and absence of doubt are cheaply purchased at this price. No reader, unless he be captious and apt to be maddened merely by the more or less neutral term "socialism," can fail to agree placidly (or even fervently) with ideas which are so very large and generalizations which are so very general. But what, then, if we others perhaps have found the truth in these matters not so easy to come by, even if conviction of the truth has yet reached us at all? Is there then left for us only

"A smile of wistful incredulity"?

It is for some such reason as this that we consider the literary interpretation of Langland and More and Swift in this book much better than the later polemics. In these later essays we get the impression, not of ripe thinking, but of partisan and one-point-of-view thinking. At least, for all its dignity and admirable fervor of thought, we discover no articulation of thought, no original note. Indeed, the writer's philosophy throughout is too intense and high-strung, as, for example, in the interpretation of the eighteenth-century attitude in social matters, in the section on Swift. The interpretation given by Frederic Harrison in his famous essay is much more reasonable and faithful. Or, again, was the influence of Christianity on the Anglo-Saxons only or chiefly that described at pages 8 and following? The same quality vitiates much of the more purely literary criticism, as that of Thackeray and Dickens for example. But the eye throughout the book is far too earnestly fixed on sociological questions to admit of successful literary criticism.

The style, while somewhat monotonous, is clean-cut, balanced, and terse. There is some rhetoric, and adjectives are occasionally obtrusive, especially "winsome," "fearsome," "wistful," and "lovely."

John Keble's Parishes: A History of Hursley and Otterbourne. By Charlotte M. Yonge. Macmillan. 1898.

Twenty-six years before Keble came to Hursley, a history of the parish had been published by one of its curates, the Rev. John Marsh, so we must not assume that the annals of this quiet spot in Hampshire centre solely about the Tractarian leader and Anglican poet. "The Author of the 'Heir of Redclyffe'" (a phrase familiar on title-pages) has, during her long life, been a resident of Hursley and the neighboring Otterbourne, where her father, William Crawley Yonge, was a great friend both of Sir William Heathcote, the leading personage of the region in Keble's time, and of Keble himself. Her sketch of these adjoining parishes is a further illustration, if one were needed, of the interest which Englishmen take in their local annals. During all the time since John de Raleghe was ordained Vicar of Hursley in the middle of the thirteenth century, no one of striking political importance has been connected with it. The nearest approach to a genuine historic name is made by Richard Cromwell, who married Dorothy Mayor of Hursley, and went forth from this place in 1658 to become his father's inept successor. For the rest, the atmosphere of the parish is that of Stoke Pogis as it is depicted in Gray's "Elegy."

Concerning Keble's private life nothing very new and striking is vouchsafed in this volume, but much is said about him as a builder and restorer of churches. During the thirty years of his incumbency he watched over the erection or reconstruction of three churches: one at Otterbourne, a second at Ampfield, and a third at Hursley. The proceeds of his two principal books, the 'Christian Year' and the 'Lyra Innocentium,' were largely devoted to the joint cause of architecture and religion. Incidentally it is observed that the composition of the children's poems "cheered him when the great sorrow of his life befell him in the secession of John Henry Newman, . . . though he went out alone to a quiet, deserted chalk-pit to open the letter which he knew would bring the final news of the reception of his friend into the Roman Church."

What Miss Yonge styles "the golden days of Horsley" coincide with the joint reign of Sir William Heathcote, representing the secular, and Mr. Keble, representing the spiritual, power. The Baronet, who for many years was Chairman of the Winchester Quarter Sessions and also member for the University of Oxford, maintained the highest traditions of the English country gentleman. The most valuable part of Miss Yonge's parochial history is her sketch of this highly educated and philanthropic landlord. Perhaps the rarest distinction which he ever gained was an appointment to the Privy Council at a time when he was opposed to the Government. "This gave him the greater satisfaction as a testimony to his consistent integrity through his whole parliamentary career, as it came from the Gladstonian ministry, and he had been forced by his deep church-and-state convictions to separate from Mr. Gladstone, the friend and fellow-worker of his younger days."

Without being unpleasantly obtruded, the Establishment is a very conspicuous feature in Miss Yonge's pages. She gives, for instance, a list of the rectors and vicars of Hursley between 1279 and the present date. After John Hardy, who was ejected in 1645, comes the entry, "(Several Puritan Intruders)." Then follows "Robert Maunder, 1660-1673." Not only were Puritans held to be intruders at Hursley in the days of Cromwell, but we imagine that modern Nonconformists would be regarded by our author in the same light. The type of society which she brings before us resembles that dealt with by Trollope in his Barsetshire series, except that here the ecclesiastical tone is more sincere. The life of the parish seems to centre about the church edifice; lecterns, corbels, and fittings for the chancel become important subjects, and ecclesiology is raised to a leading place among the sciences. Those who have come to look upon England merely as a great producer of coal and cotton goods, etc., or as a voracious land-shark, will derive some profit from contemplating rural life in the southern shires.

This volume is beautifully printed and illustrated, and should make an extremely acceptable gift to such persons as take an interest in the pleasant monotony of English country life, and are particularly pleased when the element of Anglicanism is rendered prominent. It contains a glossary of local phrases, besides notes on the natural history of Hursley and Otterbourne.

Beiträge zur Amerikanischen Litteratur- und Kulturgeschichte. Von E. P. Evans. Stuttgart: Cotta; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1898.

It is an experience illustrated by many examples that the best literary criticisms are written by those who are able to view their subject from a distance sufficient to give it artistic perspective. This perspective is for the most part one of time; the most just criticisms are those of authors of past generations. For the criticism of contemporary writers, the necessary remoteness is hard to attain, but Prof. Evans is perhaps in a better position than most of us for such a task. His thirty years of uninterrupted residence abroad have removed him in a measure from the heat and turmoil of the day, and have given him a vantage-point from which he can judge the entire field by comparison.

Perhaps no one has done more within the last two decades towards introducing a fair estimate of American literature and culture into Germany, and towards removing many of the ungrounded misconceptions of our civilization, than Prof. Evans. For a number of years he has contributed to the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, to the Berlin *Nation*, and to the *Blätter für litterarische Unterhaltung* (Leipzig) a series of articles on subjects connected with the history of American literature and culture, and the best of these have been finally collected and revised, and reappear in the volume now before us. The essays are on a variety of subjects of a literary and social nature, for the most part called forth by the appearance of important books from American publishing-houses. A partial list of the titles of chapters will sufficiently indicate their scope: An American Idealist (Margaret Fuller), Emerson, A Characterization of American Humor, The American Novel, Mormonism, Andrew D. White, Bryce's American Commonwealth, The New South, Patrick Henry and Henry Clay, John Lothrop Motley, American Poets (short characterizations of six of our standard poets). These contributions are, however, in no sense mere book-reviews, but offer a fund of original suggestion and criticism, rendered very attractive by an abundance of allusion and of shrewd humor. Especially sympathetic is the portrait of Margaret Fuller, while the series of essays on Emerson is a valuable contribution to our Emerson literature. From his life-long friendship with Mr. White, our present Minister to Germany, Mr. Evans is peculiarly fitted to do justice to his services both as a friend to higher education in this country and as an advocate of the importance of German culture for America.

The chapter on Motley presents Bismarck in a genial light as the close friend and *Dutzbruder* of the historian of the Dutch Republic. Bismarck and Motley were roommates at the University of Göttingen, and in all the harassing cares of his political life the great Chancellor repeatedly found time to write boyish, jovial letters, half-English, half-German, to his old university friend, "dear Jack." By its clear and idiomatic German, and the interest its contents possess for American students, this volume recommends itself for use as collateral reading in the German classes of universities and of advanced grades in the high school. It might supplant with profit many of the texts now in use.

Prof. Evans is already well known to the English public by several works on German literature, and by his 'Criminal Prosecution of Animals in the Middle Ages' and 'Evolutional Ethics and Animal Psychology,' both of which have received appreciative reviews in this country, and which are now in process of translation into German. The present volume of *Beiträge* is to be followed by another on the same subject (*Neue Folge*), whose appearance, we hope, will not long be delayed.

Egypt: the Land of the Temple Builders. By Walter Scott Perry, Director of the Department of Fine Arts, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y. Boston: The Prang Educational Co. 1898. Pp. 249.

This volume is made up of two parts, text and illustrations (or, rather, pictures). The text is little better than that which might have been produced by a thousand travellers in the Nile Valley if they set themselves the task, but not nearly as good as a careful perusal of Prof. Steindorff's edition of Baedeker's 'Egypt' might have made it. For the uninitiated it will prove very pleasant reading, but one must not put too much faith in the details of the treatment. The author has made some unfortunate errors which rob the text of its value except in a general way. He appears, for instance, never to have heard of the prehistoric remains discovered by De Morgan and Petrie, and his whole book gives the impression of the methods of the photographer trying to string his pictures on a thread of discourse, rather than the art critic or the observing traveller or student.

His description of the graphic system has all the faults of the old explanations, and is misleading and incomplete, and his statement that the "hieratic" character which resembles an italic *three* might "stand for the word *bird*," is as far as possible from the fact, since it is simply the most common sign for the letter *m*. The author mistakenly ascribes the difficulty of translating a hieroglyphic text to the multiplicity of signs, and he far exceeds the fact when he says that "Egyptian inscriptions may now be translated with great ease and rapidity," for our knowledge of grammatical forms is far too meagre for us to appreciate the difficulties which actually exist. Again, the royal list of Abydos is not a particularly "recent" discovery; and since it consists of a selection from the list of native rulers, it can scarcely be said to give "a correct chronological record of the kings." Osiris, Isis, and Horus are spoken of as "the trinity of Egyptian gods" instead of one trinity out of many, and Isis was not "another name of Mut or Hathor," nor were Mut and Hathor identical, as seems to be implied in the words just quoted. The statement that, "according to the belief of the Egyptians, every individual consisted of three distinct parts," is inaccurate, for the ordinary division was a fourfold one, into *cha*, body, and *ka*, double or "genius," both of which abode in the tomb, and *ba*, soul, and *chu*, intelligence, neither of which remained near or in the mummy. The doctrine of "reincarnation" of the soul in inferior animals was not Egyptian, and the nearest approach to it, transmigration, was not parallel to the doctrine of future punishment, but was regarded as a privilege of those already perfect. The author's statement seems to be based upon the report of Herodotus, and is due to a misunderstanding of the actual fact. It is also a mistake to say that a copy of the 'Book of the Dead' "was buried with every mummy," because this was done only occasionally and in exceptional cases as compared with the total number of mummies; and when it was actually done the copies were not alike in extent, since the Egyptians had no fixed canon and no approach thereto till very late in their history. In speaking of scarabs, the author omits to state that they were made of paste or pottery as well as "stone, gold, ivory, and wood"; in fact, the bulk of those preserved in the museums of the world are of pottery or stone, while those in other materials are exceptionally few. Finally, it is a mistake to call a temple-pylon a "watch-tower," whereas it was merely an enormous gateway or principal entrance, intended to be impressive in proportion to its height.

These matters have been rehearsed by way of indication of the author's inexact method of presentation, and by way of justification of the statement that the book consists of two parts, text and pictures. The latter are illustrations only in small degree, as they are not even referred to in most cases. But they form the valuable portion of the book. There are one hundred and twenty-seven half-tones, beautifully executed, artistic and clear. It is in this field that the author has done himself credit, and afforded pleasure to those who love fine work of this sort for its own sake or for the sake of the subject. One might wish that all the pages had been similarly occupied. The range of subjects is wide, scenery being represented as well as temples, pyramids, and ruins. The localities depicted range from the harbor at Alexandria to the first cataract at Philæ. Some of the scenes are novel, and all are so well done as to be a constant and permanent pleasure to the eye. To the full extent of the total number of pictures, the author deserves the heartiest of acknowledgments.

Progress in Women's Education in the British Empire, being the report of the Education Section, Victorian Era Exhibition, 1897. Edited by the Countess of Warwick. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

The reader who should dismiss this book as futile because most of what it has to say of women is outside the field of education, and most of what it has to say of education has no specific relation to women, would be seeking a quarrel with the modern spirit of the "congress," which is genial rather than relevant. Apparently no effort was made by the Education Section to give a complete historical account of the remarkable advance made in England during the present reign in the education of girls and women, or even a systematic statement of the present aspect of the matter. But the fact that the first section of the report, dealing with the education of children, and the third section, dealing with education in India and the colonies and university extension, consist of addresses which mostly state explicitly that the subject admits of no discrimination between the sexes, is in itself evidence useful to the historian.

In defiance of the title, more than a third of the volume is included under the heading "Some Professions Open to Women," and here, among a good many addresses which might have been composed by "Marcella," are a few interesting and well-written accounts of personal experience, notably Mrs. Garrett Anderson's paper on women in medicine, and Miss Nancy Bailey's on their prowess in the profession of indexing. This section is, however, like the other two, deficient in system, and throws no light whatever on the scientific aspect of one of the most remarkable economic and sociological phenomena of the past half-century. On the whole, the volume is in the main a mass of friendly and rather simple-minded gossip on the woman question, such as is evolved when good society congratulates modest merit over the mollifying tea-cup.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Annual of Photography. Scovill & Adams Co. 75c.
Astrup, Eivind. With Peary near the Pole. London: C. A. Pearson; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.50.
Belinda—and Some Others. Appletons. $1.
Bowser, Prof. E. A. A Treatise on Roofs and Bridges. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Breen, M. Mayotte. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Bronson, Prof. W. C. The Poems of William Collins. [Athenæum Press Series.] Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Burrows, Capt. Guy. The Land of the Pigmies. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.
Chandler, W. H. Chandler's Encyclopedia. 3 vols. New York: P. F. Collier.
Clegg, James. International Directory of Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual. Rochdale, Eng.; Aldine Press; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
Clemens, W. M. The Depew Story Book. F. T. Neely.
Cooper, J. F. The Last of the Mohicans. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Dick, H. B. Games of Patience; or, Solitaire with Cards. Dick & Fitzgerald. $1.
Dickens, Charles. The Uncommercial Traveller. [Gadshill Edition.] London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Dumont, Arsène. Natalité et Démocratie. Paris: Schleicher Frères.
Ellis, Prof. R. Vellei Paterculi ad M. Vinicium Libri Duo. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Emerson, Prof. O. F. Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Edward Gibbon. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.20.
Garland, A. H. Experience in the Supreme Court of the United States. Washington: John Byrne & Co.
Hale, E. E. Historic Boston. Appletons.
Hay, Miss Helen. Some Verses. Chicago: A. S. Stone & Co.
Lloyd, Dr. Wallace. Houses of Glass. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Lockert, Louis. Petroleum Motor-Cars. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Marr, Kate T. Bound by the Law. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
O'Brien, B. Life of Charles Stewart Parnell. Harpers. $2.50.
O'Hara, J. M. At Erato's Fane. Chicago: Mayer & Miller.
Paine, Thomas. The Age of Reason. New York: Truth Seeker Co.
Palmer, W. Hazell's Annual. 1899. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney.
Peabody, Josephine P. The Wayfarers. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Potter, E. T. Bible Stories in Bible Language. New edition. Appletons. $1.
Rackemann, C. S. The Land Registration Act of Massachusetts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Read, Opie. A Yankee from the West. Rand, McNally & Co.
Sanderson, Edgar. History of the World. [Concise Knowledge Library.] Appletons. $2.
Savage, P. H. Poems. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Talbot, Dr. E. S. Degeneracy: its Causes, Signs, and Results. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Thackeray, W. M. Christmas Books. [Biographical Edition.] Harpers. $1.75.
Tucker, G. F. Mildred Marville. Boston: G. B. Reed.
Vibart, Col. Edward. The Sepoy Mutiny, as Seen by a Subaltern. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Winkler, Prof. Max. Goethe's Egmont, together with Schiller's Essays. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90c.
Winthrop, Alice W. Diet in Illness and Convalescence. Harpers. $1.50.
Woodbridge, Elisabeth. The Drama; its Law and its Technique. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 29, 1898.

The Week.

Senator Frye's account in the *Tribune* of the "negotiation" of the Peace Commissioners in Paris shows that he evidently has not much idea how it will look to civilized men. "Negotiations" of this sort have been familiar to all highwaymen and burglars since the practice of robbery began. The burglar gets somehow into the citizen's bedchamber and wakes him up and asks for his money. The citizen says he has no money. Then "negotiation" continues. The citizen admits, on being pressed, that he has some, but very little, money. He is requested to indicate where it is. He declines to tell. The robber is firm with him. He points out to him that he must see that his visit has not been made for mere pleasure, that its object is the acquisition of wealth, and he requests him to think more deliberately over his refusal to say where the money is. The citizen considers the matter, and states the reasons for his unwillingness, in good logical form. The robber is still not convinced, and asks the citizen whether he is aware that further persistence in his refusal will be followed by the presentation of an "ultimatum." The citizen asks whether no modification of his demands is possible. The robber says not, but adds that his patience is becoming rapidly exhausted, and produces a revolver which he informs the citizen is in his business called an "ultimatum," and will be used on the citizen's person in case of further delay. The citizen then tells where the money is, and a treaty of peace is signed. The "negotiations" in highway robbery or the "holding up" of a train follow substantially the same course. They are always closed by the presentation of an irresistible "ultimatum." It is probably owing to this resemblance to the criminal offence of extortion under threats that it is not the custom of civilized nations to present ultimatums personally, especially when it is well known that the wretched enemy cannot resist. Ultimatums are usually written in dispatches. Civilized people usually try to avoid the spectacle of a vanquished enemy's squirming or weeping over his own or his country's humiliation. Modern negotiations are supposed to have something "mutual" in them, some possibility of give-and-take. If there is no give-and-take in them, and they are sure to be followed by an "ultimatum," they are called, not "negotiations," but extortion. But it is pleasant to remember that we can "lick" any one who finds fault with our manners.

That there would be no organized Democratic opposition to the ratification of the treaty of peace with Spain, was certain after Mr. Bryan advised against it, a few days ago. He advised against it, of course, only after he had found out at Washington that no effective opposition could be made. The same truth was also made evident in the higher tone taken by the President in his speeches in the South. His last lingering doubts about our duty to hold all we had seized had disappeared—which clearly meant, to those versed in the workings of the Executive mind, that his last doubts about the Senate's ratifying the treaty had disappeared. Now comes Mr. Clark Howell, Democratic National Committeeman from Georgia, to declare, after conferring with political leaders of both parties at Washington, that the treaty is as good as ratified already; that the Democrats who thought it their duty to vote against it had changed their minds, and that there will practically be no opposition at all. There will be, however, asserts Mr. Howell, a determined effort to pass a resolution concurrent with the treaty and similar to the Cuban resolution, on the basis of which we went to war—a resolution, that is, reciting our purpose to give the Filipinos a free and independent government. Around this resolution it is expected that the anti-expansion sentiment will rally which otherwise would have gone against the treaty itself.

This programme does not, it seems to us, promise to be fruitful. In the first place, it is, in so far, playing into the hands of the expansionists. It is a part of the address with which Mr. McKinley and his managers have conducted their case, that they have represented the treaty as really settling nothing about the Philippines. It only "eliminates" Spain, they have said, and afterwards Congress can do what it pleases. In other words, after doing the actual expanding, you can pass as many anti-expansionist resolutions as you please. The President has no objection to a pious vow in favor of giving the Filipinos self-government when they are "fit" for it. If he is to be the one to determine when they are fit, that is all he cares to know. Meanwhile he can go on with a military government, and can so radically change the status and relations of the islands that any other solution than retaining them for ever will appear more and more impossible. And why do the Democrats limit their resolution to the Philippines? Why not apply their principles to Porto Rico as well? Is it only westward that they are opposed to expanding, and only to the Malays that they wish to secure a free and independent government? These questions suggest a moral as well as political weakness in this proposed Democratic resolution; and as Mr. Howell admits that many Democratic Congressmen will not vote even for that, the chances of their accomplishing anything of value in that way seem small indeed.

In some observations which are ostensibly in support of Col. Roosevelt's views as to the proper government of our new possessions, the *Tribune* says:

> "The final character of our colonial rule depends on the people, not on the President. No Administration makes the spoils system, but the popular pressure against which Presidents with varying force contend, and the public opinion which encourages or discourages them in resisting spoilsmen. The President may devise the best civil-service system imaginable for the new possessions, but it will not solve the problem unless American public opinion makes it discreditable and dangerous for politicians to try to make the colonial service a perquisite."

Why does not the final character depend upon the President? He is to make the appointments, is he not? If he submits to the popular pressure of the spoils system, how do you go about it to reach the conclusion that the people are responsible for his weakness? Did the people decree, when they elected McKinley, that as President he should make only such appointments as Quay and Hanna and Platt approved? How can the politicians succeed in making the colonial service a perquisite unless McKinley consents to it? Have you seen any sign that the people do not approve, heartily and unanimously, the selection of Gen. Wood and Gen. Ludlow, and can you see any sign that they will refuse to give like approval to every other first-rate appointment that he may make? Why do you put upon "the people" a responsibility which belongs entirely to the President? The people pay him $50,000 a year to bear this responsibility for them, and if he refuses to bear it, and throws it back upon them, he should not take the place.

The report of the minority of the Committee on Military Affairs against the increase of the regular army to 100,000 men is a strong document, and furnishes ground upon which all opponents of the mad rush for Imperialism can safely stand. This army will cost the American people $150,000,000. We are now paying $140,000,000 for pensions. So our military outlay, if the new army bill passes, will be $290,000,000, which is larger than the military charge of any European Power. This new charge cannot be met by the present revenues of the country. Shall the American taxpayer bow his neck to heavier burdens in order to bestow upon the

Filipinos, by powder and ball, a government which they do not want? This is the real question involved in the pending army bill.

A recent order of the War Department discharging a major, a captain, and a first lieutenant of one of the United States volunteer regiments for inefficiency furnishes an excellent example of what may be expected to recur often if the Hull bill for the reorganization of the army is allowed to pass in its present form. These three officers of the ten so-called immune regiments were appointed by the President early last summer, together with 427 other officers, of whom not more than fifteen were regular army men, the others being without special military fitness and experience. As a result, the condition of these regiments has given rise to one scandal after another. The two stationed at or near Santiago have been so totally lacking in discipline and efficiency that Gen. Wood was forced to send for a regular regiment to keep them in order and to do their work, while protesting against their retention in the service. Of the First Regiment a regular army officer reported in October that "150 men were sick and 11 officers, of whom over 80 have malarial fever"; that the "Colonel, Lieutenant-Colonel, one Major, and the Adjutant, are sick"; and that as regards discipline, the "state of affairs is deplorable; no control of the men is had by their officers." He furnishes also some almost incredible instances of lawlessness and debauchery in a long report to the War Department. Yet, in the face of such instances as these, the chairman of the House military committee is pressing a bill which will create at once 1,500 vacancies in the grade of lieutenant, with no provision whatever that the appointees to these places shall be any more competent than the three officers above mentioned. After wearing the uniform of the United States and drawing unearned pay for five months, the latter have been returned to civil life by a military board which found them totally incompetent to perform their duties.

Gen. Miles did not hesitate to tell some plain truths in his testimony before the War Investigating Commission on December 21, and in the very short time allotted to his examination he placed the inefficiency of various staff departments beyond all doubt. We have had all sorts of contradictory testimony as to the medical supplies of Gen. Shafter's army, but Gen. Miles has settled for all time the question as to the accountability for the shortage. "There was at no time a sufficient medical supply," either of men or materials, was his summing up of the situation, and his statement that to Gen. Shafter alone was left the proper loading of the transports, places the responsibility fairly and squarely upon the latter for the loss of the four soldiers of the Thirty-third Michigan Regiment, among others, who died because of "lack of medicines," and for the total giving out of the supply within fourteen days after reaching Cuba. Gen. Ludlow, the new Military Governor of Havana, according to Gen. Miles, has to answer for the lack of any proper boats for disembarking the army on its arrival off Siboney, he having been sent to several places to collect a proper equipment. The Quartermaster's and Commissary's departments also came in for sharp criticism from the commanding general, and his account of the "embalmed beef" furnished to his troops, "which I had expected you gentlemen [of the Commission] to get on to," may furnish another reason for the rapid physical deterioration of the army, as well as the clue to one of the worst outrages committed or permitted by the War Department at the expense of the soldiers of the United States.

Senator Hanna, it appears, is opposed to the increase of the navy which has received the sanction of the Department. He thinks that we have ships enough now, either afloat or under contract, to meet our probable needs, and that the science of naval architecture is in such a changing and fluid state that the ships we build now may be obsolete almost as soon as they are finished. If Mr. Hanna should add to these reasons for going slow the further one that we are actually facing a deficit, and that we shall not be able to pay for new ships without devising new taxes, he would supply a more convincing argument to his colleagues, and would divulge the reason which has most weight in his own mind. As surely as the seasons come and go, the surplus in the Treasury will vanish, and then political troubles will begin. Economies can be practised more easily in not building new ships than in any other way.

A correspondent engaged in the hardware trade calls our attention to the Cuban duties on cutlery and to those of the United States on the same articles. On ordinary pocket-knives, costing $4 per dozen, the American rate is $4 per dozen. The Cuban rate is 20 cents per dozen. "Comment seems unnecessary," our correspondent adds. We think, on the other hand, that comment is very necessary. We think that a Trust is needed to enable our manufacturers to undersell the British in Cuba by charging double the value of the goods to domestic consumers. Perhaps such a Trust already exists. The multiplication of the octopus tribe is so rapid nowadays that it is impossible to keep track of them. It will only be necessary, after a little, to find out what trades are susceptible of combination and monopoly and what are not. Then a catalogue of the Trusts can be made with unfailing certainty.

The United States Senate on Tuesday week ratified a bargain which was made by one of its members three years ago for the gift of an important Federal office in exchange for a vote and "influence" for McKinley in the Republican national convention of 1896. A. T. Wimberly was confirmed as Collector of the Port of New Orleans on the 20th of December, 1898, because Mark Hanna, in the winter of 1895-'96, promised him this reward if Wimberly would vote for McKinley instead of Reed at St. Louis the next summer, and if McKinley should be elected President. The agreement has been carried out, despite earnest protests by reputable Republicans of Louisiana, who showed that Wimberly had no commercial or social standing; that he had twice been removed from office under charges, once for conspiring to sell the Republican vote in the Louisiana Legislature to the lottery company—a charge which Wimberly confessed was true; that he had obtained money under false pretences; and that he was part owner of one of the lowest "dives" in New Orleans. All this counted for nothing against the fact that the President's personal representative had promised Wimberly the collectorship for his share in nominating McKinley in 1896, and the consideration that promises made three years ago must be kept if the Wimberlys are to take any stock in the similar agreements which within a year must be made for the convention of 1900.

The appointment of such a man to the most important Federal office in the metropolis of Louisiana illustrates very clearly why the Republican party is nothing more than a close corporation for electing delegates and securing "plums" in exchange, not only in Louisiana but throughout the South—for the same system prevails in all parts of that section. The incumbent of the chief Federal office in South Carolina has just slapped the business community of Charleston in the face. For eighteen years William E. Milligan has held a responsible position in the custom-house, which he has filled so satisfactorily under five collectors that the two Democrats among them retained him, although he is a Republican. Last week Collector Tolbert removed Milligan, without assigning any reason, and appointed in his place a negro politician from another part of the State, who is without a particle of experience or any known fitness for the place. When asked for an explanation, the Collector "emphatically said that the public had nothing to do with the appointment; that he did not care what the people thought, as long as he drew his

salary, conducted the office as he thought best, and to the approval of the authorities at Washington." The office in question is under the civil-service rules, which forbid a removal without the assignment of a reason and without an opportunity for defence, so that it is possible the wrong may be righted.

The South is behaving sensibly in the matter of what the nation may properly do for the ex-Confederate soldiers. President McKinley's suggestion that the graves of the men who died in behalf of the South ought to be cared for as well as those of the men who died for the Union, is universally commended in that part of the country, as it has been with almost equal unanimity in the North. But the proposition brought forward by an unrepresentative Southern man in the Senate and by a Southerner of no particular consequence in the House, that the surviving Confederates be put upon an equality with the Union veterans on the pension roll, does not arouse enthusiasm in the South. The Richmond (Va.) *Dispatch* says that it "cannot approve the course of those Southern members of Congress who have made moves looking to Federal aid for disabled Confederate soldiers"; that "they mean well, but err in judgment"; and that, if anything is to be done in this direction, it is for the President, his Grand Army associates, and the North generally, to take action in the matter. The Greenville (S. C.) *News* is still more emphatic. "The proposition that the Government shall take care of the Confederate disabled and aged is going too far," it says, and it adds:

> "For our living we should ask no favors. It is our duty and should be our privilege to care for them. We are rich enough and strong enough to do it. It would be disgraceful for us to allow the Government to care for our veterans, however good its will might be. The South can take care of its veterans and will do it. We hope every Southern representative and Senator in Congress will vote against every proposition to admit Southern veterans to national soldiers' homes."

Alabama is going to follow the example of Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana by practically disfranchising the negro. The Governor has just signed a bill passed by the Legislature for the election of a convention to make a new Constitution for the State. There are various things in the present instrument, framed nearly a quarter of a century ago, which need to be changed to adapt it to new conditions; but the chief motive for calling a convention is to devise a scheme for eliminating the colored vote under the forms of law. The most effective speech made for the measure in either branch of the Legislature was by the representative from Lowndes County, a white Democrat living in the heart of the "black belt," who pointed out that, when the State was "redeemed" from carpetbag rule, 28,000 negroes in his county confronted 5,000 whites, who for twenty-eight years "have upheld the banner of white supremacy and civilization"; that since then 1,000 of its white inhabitants have moved away, in order to avoid what they deemed the inevitable; "but 4,000 white people still remain, both Populists and Democrats, and with locked shields still remain holding the fort and looking to you for relief."

Col. Roosevelt made a very nice distinction—so nice, in fact, that it is extremely difficult for the average politician to draw it—in his speech on Thursday evening at the New England Society's dinner, when he said: "I trust it is not necessary for me to say that when I mean practical methods I do not mean foul methods. I have never regarded practical politics, for instance, as being the politics of foulness. I think they are unpractical in the long run." This is in line with all the new Governor's utterances, both during the campaign and since election. It is also in line with his entire public career, for in everything that he has said and done he has held the unvarying position that all political rascals look alike to him, whether they be marked with Republican or Democratic labels. He is clearly going to put in operation in the government of this State his ideas of practical politics without foulness. It will be interesting to notice what members of his party will separate themselves from him in this experiment, thus taking the position that really practical politics must be allied to foulness. The sad fate of Gov. Black is likely to exert a restraining influence upon all persons inclined to take this step.

Quay has decided that audacity is his only safety. The election of a United States Senator by the Pennsylvania Legislature will not take place until some days after the 7th of January, when his case is to come before the Supreme Court on the appeal carried to that tribunal on technical grounds. Of course, every consideration of propriety, and even of decency, demands that no action shall be taken by the Republican members of the Legislature which will commit them, until after a decision by the court which shall vindicate the boss from the charge of stealing public funds deposited in the Philadelphia bank which he controlled. But the only sure way of tying up doubtful Republican members is by holding a party caucus before the case comes up in court. So Quay has given orders that the caucus shall meet at Harrisburg on the 3d of January, or four days before the time set for the hearing. In other words, as the Philadelphia *Ledger* puts it, "the Republican Senators and Representatives are to be instructed by Mr. Quay to nominate him to the great office of Senator of the United States at a time when he is under indictment for conspiracy with others to improperly use the moneys of the State, and while he is endeavoring by legal technicality and device to avoid the opportunity given him to prove his innocency."

It is reported from Des Moines, Iowa, that at a conference of Democratic leaders of that State on December 20, it was decided to drop the issue of 16 to 1 in the next campaign, and, while endorsing the Chicago platform generally, to declare that it was only tentative as regards the money question. This decision is in accord with that which ex-Gov. Boies reached a year ago. He said then that the ratio of 16 to 1 was impossible. The Iowa Democrats did not agree with him then, but they have followed him a little later. Probably Mr. Boies is now opposed to any ratio, and probably the Iowa Democrats will be ready to drop the silver issue altogether, as Mr. Bryan seems inclined to, before the campaign of 1900 comes on. This education of the enemy is probably due to the Republicans of Iowa, who made the issue of the last campaign on the gold standard without qualification or apology. And this splendid example was the result in large measure of the intelligence and pluck of Gov. Leslie M. Shaw, who has proved himself a party leader of the old and honored type—men who frame policies for the country, instead of following what they conceive to be the drift of the majority.

Some voices are heard in Spain speaking words of truth and soberness. A distinguished Spanish scientist, Señor Federico Rubio, addressed a communication to the *Liberal* a little time ago, in which he spared no words in denunciation of the incompetency and corruption of the Spanish Government. He said that he had travelled extensively in Europe and America, and had studied the politics of the leading civilized nations, and nowhere, he averred, are "the elections so fraudulent, the boss system (*caciquismo*) so deeply rooted, the courts so venal, the law so little respected, or the administration so bad" as in Spain. Señor Rubio scattered to the winds the excuses made, in particular by the navy officials. Their ships, forsooth, had not their proper armament, and were otherwise in bad condition. Well, whose fault was it? That of the very officers who were now making such a clamor, but who for years had been idling about the departments, squandering the public funds, and preparing certain defeat for the navy. All that Spain had done was to demonstrate to the world the total incompetence and rottenness of her public service in all its branches. And the very politicians who had brought all these woes upon their country, were proposing to go on with their scheming and corrupt government,

THE CONSCRIPTION.

The *Economist*, perhaps the soberest and most thoughtful of the English newspapers, has an article on the Continental armaments which no civilized man can read without a shudder. The writer calls attention to the steady and enormous increase in the armies and navies of Europe. Within the present year an immense addition to the armies of both Germany and Russia is proposed. There is always some weak point which has to be strengthened, some designing neighbor whose force has to be equalled. We can all remember here when Lodge used to warn us of the danger we ran from England's occupation of Halifax. But more alarming than the increase of force is, the *Economist* says, the increasing power and importance of what is called "the general staff"—that is, the small group of officers who are in control of each army, and arrogate to themselves exclusive knowledge of what force and what measures are necessary for the defence of the country, and begin to treat the civil power with a certain contempt. Illustrations of this are best seen in France in the Dreyfus affair, but they may be found everywhere. In Germany, popular liberty has already been practically suppressed by the military power. The *Economist* says:

"The staffs are perpetually advising for sound reasons increases in the proportion of artillery and cavalry, both of them very expensive arms; they ask for new barracks or fortifications, and they suggest improvements in diet and equipment. More officers, too, and non-commissioned officers are needed for more men; short service implies strenuous work, which soon exhausts equipments; and behind all these sources of an outlay which bewilders the Treasuries, there is another, sometimes more expensive than all. Scientific discovery never ceases: some one is always inventing more rapid cannon, or machine-guns which will pour more bullets, or a rifle which will fire fifteen shots while the old ones fired twelve; and the moment the new weapons are proved and tested satisfactorily, they have to be accepted. If not, the Power which does accept them may master the whole Continent, for soldiers, however brave, will not stand to be shot down in masses by superior machines, to which their own machines can make no adequate reply. The Dervishes are among the bravest men in the world, but the slaughter caused by British Maxims and rifles cowed even them, and European soldiers in this respect are not more stanch than Arabs. There seems, indeed, to be no limit to the expenditure except the positive exhaustion of the Treasuries; and if these huge armies are determined to spend all revenue upon their own organization, that may be a long way off yet, for, though economists suspect, they do not yet know, where the productive limit of taxation is."

The writer adds that in his belief the peace proposals of the Czar will be more seriously discussed at the coming conference than most people imagine, and that a vigorous effort in the direction of disarmament may result from it. But he alleges that the military party in every country are thinking and talking of another remedy than disarmament, and that is the very characteristic one of forcing on a decisive war which would be so bloody and exhausting that it would settle all pending questions for one or two generations, and put every nation in its proper place for an indefinite period, as the long war with Napoleon did. Then, too, it would, they think, cause such slaughter as to put an end for the moment to that pressure of population (in all modern states except France) on the resources of the country which keeps up an incessant struggle for colonies all over the world. It must be observed, however, that the nation which has least need of colonies is to-day the most eager for a fight, and some slaughter—namely, our own. We have no pressure of population, no encroaching neighbors, and no "general staff," and yet there is no nation so desirous of a "set-to" with somebody as ours. This must be rather puzzling for the publicists and disheartening for the home missionaries.

There is an instructive passage in Taine's 'Régime Moderne' (in his 'Origines de la France Contemporaine') on the conscription, which was first introduced by Napoleon, and has since been adopted by all the European Powers except England. Numerous as were the wars before his time, this mode of raising an army was not thought of, and Taine points out powerfully how much more injurious to our civilization the present system is than the old one was. The old system drew off for military service only those men who had no regular occupation, who had, in some way, broken with society and disliked regular industry, and for whom the ordinary working of civil life supplied no discipline. The absorption of this class in a voluntarily enlisted army is a positive gain to any community, as it may be said to drain off the peccant humors from the body politic. The men whom it can best spare select themselves without trouble for what ought to be the meanest office in any state after that of the public executioner, the killing of public enemies. Under the conscription, the best as well as the worst young men are remorselessly seized, taken away from useful occupations, and compelled to pass the flower of their years with the scum of the population, learning an odious trade which they mean to drop as soon as they recover their freedom. The successful attempt made in our late war to persuade doctors, lawyers, and merchants that it was a glorious thing to serve in the ranks at $13 a month, killing people who had never injured you, under orders from the politicians, at a moment when, according to all reports, the souls of the Continental youth are, after ample trial, turning from the business with disgust, is one of the most curious episodes of the nineteenth century.

THE CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY.

It is reported that Sir Julian Pauncefote has received instructions from Lord Salisbury to negotiate with Secretary Hay for the abrogation or modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. This news may be premature, but, being in accord with the outgivings of influential organs of English public opinion, we may assume that there is considerable foundation for it. We have held heretofore that the treaty was a good thing for both countries, and we still hold to that opinion; but if both countries agree in good temper to change or repeal it, of course no objection can be found to such procedure. Nevertheless, the principles upon which the treaty is based ought to be preserved, and no doubt will be. The reason for such a treaty is that the opening of a passage for ships between the two great oceans saves about fifteen thousand miles of navigation to the commerce which has occasion to use it. The exclusive possession of such a route by one country would give it an advantage in competitive traffic that would amount to a monopoly, which other nations could not endure. It would be an unfair advantage, and would lead either to the construction of a second canal, or, perhaps, to war for the possession and use of the first one.

To avoid these contingencies the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was negotiated. It pledged the governments of the United States and Great Britain never to acquire or maintain for themselves exclusive control over a ship canal through Central America, or to erect or maintain any fortifications commanding the same, or in the vicinity thereof, or occupy, or fortify, or colonize, or assume or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito coast, or any part of Central America; or to assume or exercise dominion over the same, or take advantage of any intimacy, or use any alliance, connection, or influence that either may possess with any state or government through whose territory the said canal may pass, for the purpose of acquiring or holding, directly or indirectly, for the citizens or subjects of the one any rights or advantages in regard to commerce or navigation through the said canal which shall not be offered on the same terms to the citizens or subjects of the other. The treaty also pledged the two countries to guarantee the neutrality of such canal, and to permit its use on terms of equality by all nations, and to use their influence to secure the adhesion of other nations to the principles of said treaty.

It is understood that all that Great Britain desires is that the neutrality of the canal shall be guaranteed and its use for commercial purposes secured to all nations. Probably she will offer the text of the Suez Canal convention as a model for a new arrangement respecting that of Nicaragua. The Suez Canal, although controlled by Great Britain as the administrator of Egypt and as the owner of a very large, if not a ma-

jority, interest in its shares, is neutralized by an agreement of all the Powers which have made themselves parties to it, or may hereafter choose to make themselves parties to it. By this agreement the canal is open in time of war as well as in time of peace, on equal terms, to every vessel of commerce or of war, without distinction of flag, and is not liable to blockade. The canal itself in time of war is declared to be in the nature of a neutral port. During our recent war with Spain the Spanish warships were allowed to pass through it, and ours would have been allowed to follow them if there had been occasion. If Great Britain offers the text of the Suez convention as a substitute for the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, we shall probably object to the clause which allows its free use in time of war. There is no reason why we should so object, but the public mind is somewhat clouded by the spectacle of the *Oregon's* journey around Cape Horn, and will probably insist that we shall have the exclusive right to send fighting ships through the canal (if we own it) in time of war. The fact that this is a barren right unless we control the sea at both ends of the canal is lost sight of at the moment by us, but is evidently not lost sight of by Great Britain, since it is intimated that she will not insist upon the right to send her war-ships through it in case of war with us. As we could disable the canal at any moment and trap any of her ships that might be in it, she would not be likely to make active use of it in time of war with us even if she had the right to do so guaranteed by treaty. So she is not giving up anything valuable if she gives up that claim.

It is to be hoped, from all accounts, that a friendly negotiation on this subject is about to take place. A great deal of ignorance and prejudice will be cleared out of the way by it, and the people of the United States will thus be enabled to take a calmer view of the question of building the canal than they can take at present. When all other obstacles are removed, we shall be better able to weigh and estimate those with which Nature herself has surrounded the undertaking.

SHAFTER AND WELLINGTON.

We think too highly of Gen. Shafter to affront him by comparing him, as a General, with any such "back number" as Wellington; but there are some curious analogies between the latter's first military expedition to Portugal in 1808 and Shafter's to Santiago in 1898. Both consisted of about 20,000 men, and both sailed to expel a foreign army from a country which it was oppressing. Wellington counted upon the sympathy and coöperation of the Portuguese as Shafter did upon the Cubans, and both found themselves leaning on a broken reed. Both Generals were superseded in command, just after having fought a battle, by the arrival of a superior officer. The subsequent operations and negotiations led in each case to a vast amount of complaint and recrimination. Wellington was accused of having needlessly and rashly risked his force, as Shafter was. There were charges of inefficiency brought against the British commissariat in 1808, just as there were against the American in 1898. The historical parallel might, in fact, be pursued into many more details.

In one point, however, it fails. In Wellington's case a military court of inquiry was promptly ordered to sift the whole matter to the bottom. It sat for weeks and months. Wellington was heard and cross-examined, and so were his superiors in command, Sir Harry Burrard and Sir Hew Dalrymple. Each of them was allowed to call witnesses. Each of them was allowed to confront and cross-examine the others. The result was that the whole truth was brought out. The charge and prejudice against Wellington were dispelled, and he was sent back to Portugal in chief command the next year to begin that wonderful series of campaigns which led him on from Talavera and Badajoz and Salamanca to Waterloo.

What has been our course in similar circumstances? We have had, instead of a court of inquiry, an investigating committee unknown to military law. It was a body which (we say it without meaning offence) commanded the respect of the public neither by its personnel nor by its methods. It is notorious that the abler and better known men whom the President first invited to sit on the committee declined to serve. They did so, we presume, from no lack of patriotism, but because they clearly perceived that an investigation so conducted could lead to nothing satisfactory. The committee has no power to compel witnesses to attend, nor to protect them for testimony given. Its cross-examinations have been farcical. It has never brought differing officers together before it in order to reconcile their evidence or to discover which one told the truth. The general commanding has contradicted the officers under him, and they him. The Surgeon-General has said one thing and Gen. Shafter another. Commissary-General Eagan is just aching to get at Gen. Miles, and Adjt.-Gen. Corbin practically accuses him of lying. Meanwhile the committee have sat helplessly by, and allowed all this stream of accusation and rumor and insinuation to flow past them without making a single rational attempt to clarify its muddy waters. No wonder that the public have become wearied and disgusted with the whole wretched makeshift.

The extraordinary thing is that the statutes of the United States make full provision for just such inquiries, and prescribe the precise way in which they are to be pursued. It was said at the time that Mr. McKinley was obliged to take a haphazard and unauthorized committee because Congress was not in session. Nothing of the kind. Section 1342 of the Revised Statutes, containing the Articles of War, gives ample warrant and power for appointing exactly the kind of court of inquiry that was so effective in Wellington's case. Article 115 says that "a court of inquiry, to examine into the nature of any transaction of, or accusation or imputation against, any officer or soldier, may be ordered by the President." The next six articles specify the composition of the court; give it power to administer oaths and to compel attendance of witnesses, whom the parties accused are to be permitted to confront and cross-examine; and provide for authenticating the proceedings—describe, in short, the necessary machinery for a legal and searching inquiry into any subject affecting the well-being of the army or the honor and conduct of any officer. This is obviously the regular and accepted course which the President, if he wanted a real inquiry, should have followed. It is the course which the dragging and shuffling proceedings of the investigating committee make more imperative than ever.

It is indeed incredible that army affairs can be left dangling at loose-ends as they now are. Some suggest a congressional committee of investigation, and a resolution to appoint one is now before the House committee on military affairs. Such a committee might easily be superior to the broken-backed affair still prolonging a useless existence; but the proper method, the exact method, is to have a military court of inquiry, such as the laws prescribe. If the President does not order it, it may be demanded by the commanding officer or any "officer or soldier whose conduct is to be inquired into." We do not see how some of the men of high rank in the army can fail to demand such a court. As the case stands, more than one of them rests under grievous imputations. These they might be able to dissipate if brought face to face with their accusers before a court of inquiry. Certainly they cannot afford to lie down under them. We are glad to see that the Commissary-General has already said he will demand a court of inquiry to investigate the charges made against him by Gen. Miles. It is the least he can do. It is the only way in which the truth will be arrived at. Let Sternberg face Shafter, and Miles meet Alger, and Eagan and Corbin come together before a court of inquiry, with the right to cross-examine each other, and we shall have some chance of touching bottom. The present committee has done little but fling upon the public a mass of unpleasant scandal and rumor. The army cannot afford to rest under it.

Wellington once wrote bitterly that the British army could not stand either success or failure; our army has had both, but it has had something still more demoralizing, namely, a broadcast sowing of insinuations against the honesty or efficiency of its officers. The honor and discipline of the army demand that all these things should be cleared up as speedily as possible by a court of inquiry.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH TROUBLE.

There have been a great many allusions of late, in articles and speeches, to the French "pinpricking" of England and the protracted annoyance from that quarter borne by Lord Salisbury with saintly patience and resignation, though at last they became intolerable; but we have seen no statement of them as detailed, and supported with as much documentary proof, as an article by an anonymous writer which appears in the last number of the *Fortnightly*. He goes over one by one French offences against England. He begins with the French seizure of Tunis, which is as flagrant a breach of faith, the English try to think, as the English seizure of Egypt; but with this manifest difference, that the English asked the French to join them in the occupation of Egypt for reasons that were obvious, while Tunis was occupied on false pretences and without any apparent advantage for France except keeping Italy out. The pretence of repelling or chastising the "Kroumirs" was exposed almost as soon as it was produced. Then follows the case of Madagascar. This the French seized without any pretence whatever, and Lord Salisbury tamely acquiesced in it on condition that British goods should continue to be admitted to the island at lower rates of duty. To this the French consented, but after two or three years this condition was abrogated without any reason given, and Lord Salisbury again acquiesced, the main article in his policy being at that period that peace must be preserved with France at any cost.

The main charge which the writer brings, and the most serious one of all, is the charge that France has been engaged for some years in a conspiracy to stop the advance of England in the Sudan, to bring about her defeat by the Dervishes and the Abyssinians, involving as it would frightful slaughter of her troops and the triumph of barbarism in a peculiarly revolting shape in that vast region. He produces many quotations from official and other documents, showing that the formation of this conspiracy was going on for many months, if not for years; that all the Continental Powers were cognizant of it, that so were the leading French publicists, that Marchand's expedition was started in pursuance of it, that negotiations were carried on with Menelek in order to further the scheme. If his story be true, nothing more devilish has been concocted against a friendly people in modern times, or more damaging to civilization; and if the French are unable to deny his statements or explain them away, it is hard to see how the two nations can be on good terms for another generation.

There is no doubt that this story is supported, and given an air of probability, by the language of the Continental press and diplomatists during the past two years. Hatred of England and a desire to drag her down, very like what used to prevail in the United States, were their leading note. The appearance of the American fleet led to a distinct abatement of this hostility, and also to a proposal to interfere in the Spanish war which Germany and France are now stoutly denying, Bismarck fashion. The British refusal and the tremendous fuss raised in England about the Anglo-Saxon alliance seem to have blown the combination to pieces, and the Marchand occupation of Fashoda, of which the French boasted as a military operation of great glory, declined into a simple exploring expedition. The Omdurman victory gave the finishing touch to the whole business, and everybody concerned is busy denying, and wondering that such savage passions should agitate the breasts of Englishmen.

The whole affair is naturally treated as a great triumph for Lord Salisbury, whose patience and submissiveness are now said to be explained. It was to give the French a checkmate at Fashoda that he is said to have put up with the Venezuela outbreak here, with the Sultan's massacres in Armenia, and with the Russian trickery in China. He has, it is said, borne all these years with the French bluff in Africa, feeling sure that the day was coming when he would have to tell them they must fight or "skedaddle," and the curious part of the story is that the bluff, as carried on in all the French organs, seemed to make it sure that they would fight. But the thought of fighting seems never to have entered their heads, and all their little manœuvres in Africa really appear to have been designed solely to tease. According to the writer from whom we have been quoting, they were due to a fixed belief that had taken possession of the Continent that British dominions had outgrown England's powers of retention, and that if she were boldly collared by two or three Powers she would have to give way and calmly take her place as a second-rate Power. The navies of any two Powers, the German Emperor thought, might not be a match for her, but the navies of three certainly would. Dewey's and Kitchener's victories seem to have dissipated a great many pleasing plans for a rearrangement of the map of Europe. The sensation excited by the entrance of America on the scene has not been caused nearly as much by the magnitude of our armament, or the importance of our victory, as by what is considered on the Continent the "queerness" of both England and America, and the uncertainty which nearly all Continentals feel as to what Anglo-Saxons may do next. They do not fit into the Continental system either in manners or politics.

ANTI-SEMITISM IN FRANCE.

BOSTON, December 24, 1898.

Anti-Semitism has unquestionably, in the past few years, made formidable progress in France, and at the present moment plays a considerable rôle in that country. Its more recent manifestations are too significant and diverse to permit us to shut our eyes on this astounding fact, which humiliates every liberal Frenchman. Anti-Semitism has become a power, and has transformed itself into a political party in the very country which gave to the world the Declaration of the Rights of Man, in which it is said that "all men are born free and equal"; the country which, a century ago, accorded citizenship to Jews, and since 1831 has treated their religion as a form of worship recognized by the state, and salaried its ministers equally with those of the Protestant and Catholic faith.

Numerous facts, taken at random, show the position suddenly acquired in France by this movement, which, fifteen years ago, was unknown there, and which was then talked about only as a far-off epidemic raging in backward countries like Russia, Rumania, Austria, and Germany. It will be enough to recall the part played, consciously or unconsciously, by anti-Semitic prejudice at the very beginning of the Dreyfus affair, when officers notoriously anti-Semitic were the first to suspect the Jew Dreyfus of having written that bordereau which everybody knows to-day was written by the good Christian Esterhazy, former papal Zouave. We know, too, how this prosecution, born of anti-Semitism, gave birth in turn to a new eruption of anti-Semitic passion emitting in Paris that cry of the Middle Ages, "Death to Jews!" On the other hand, for the first time, in the general elections of May last, we saw Deputies elected with the label of Anti-Semites, and in the Chamber the formation of a group (very feeble, no doubt, fifteen at most) styling itself Anti-Semitic, and which has already made a hubbub out of proportion to its importance.

A month ago the city of Algiers, the capital of our great African colony, not satisfied with having chosen as Deputy the celebrated Drumont, who had failed of election in France, and with having been for a twelvemonth the scene of veritable Jew-baitings, boycotting of Jewish traders, street rows and encounters, elected as Mayor a young agitator of Italian origin, Max Regis, scarcely twenty-five years old, and whose sole claim to the place was his having been one of the leaders of the gangs who shout, "Death to Jews!" This singular Mayor was no sooner elected than he declared he would make Algiers "uninhabitable by Jews," decided that the cry "Death to Jews" was not seditious, and in his newspaper, the *Anti-Juif*, organized a special service unknown to the press of the entire world. It consisted in the creation of a photographic outfit directed

against the Christian women who patronized Jewish dealers, in order to publish their portraits and hold them up to the public. It must be added that the Government immediately suspended this bold and original magistrate for three months. Finally, as the latest feature betraying the violence of anti-Semitic passion in Algeria, a large French liquor-house having a Jewish representative in that country had to discharge him because its customers refused to give orders to a Jew, and a court denied the damages which the latter sought to claim from his employers.

These few details give an idea of the extent and violence of the movement. To appreciate more thoroughly its character, one need only read the report of an anti-Semite meeting in Paris or an extract from the *Libre Parole*, or call to mind the savage passions that characterized the prosecution of Zola. Not only did poor imbeciles or little street Arabs cry, "Down with the Jews!" I remember when, in the course of the trial, in company with some friends, I made signs of approval of Labori's admirable speech, officers turned furiously, saying, "They are Jews!"

Now, whence springs the anti-Semite movement, what are its causes and its real importance? I think it easy to answer these inquiries exactly and impartially. And first we must set one side the anti-Semitism of Algeria, which is peculiar to that country, and has relation to special economic and political conditions. The Jews, in fact, form in Algeria a population, scarcely assimilated, of usurers very unpopular with the lower classes, and who gained prematurely in 1870 the right of suffrage, denied to native Mussulmans. But in France anti-Semitism is quite otherwise explainable, and only through M. Édouard Drumont. To understand it we must know who M. Drumont is.

Up to 1886 M. Drumont was absolutely unknown to the public at large. He was an obscure Catholic journalist, contributing to clerical journals like the *Monde*, which is read chiefly by priests. Though graced with a certain literary and historic culture, and having published estimable historical works of which one was crowned by the Academy, Drumont vegetated poor and unknown. A Parisian by birth, he possessed by nature a railing spirit. Bred in Catholic surroundings, and living in the world of the clergy, he was at once devout and fanatical. As such, he naturally detested the republicans, who, in the train of Gambetta and Jules Ferry, made war on clericalism, expelled the Jesuits, and secularized education. The truth is, that Drumont hated with a savage hatred the enemies and what he called the "persecutors" of the Church. He swore to be revenged on them while revenging himself for the obscure mediocrity in which he had hitherto lived, whereas so many others rapidly attained success and fortune; and he wrote that astonishing book which burst like a thunder-clap, revealing his name to the general public and bringing him at once money and renown—I mean 'La France Juive.'

'Jewish France' appeared in 1886. In a very short time 115 editions were sold. On the morrow of its publication the press was full of protestations from men who declared themselves to have been libelled by the author, and of reports of duels between M. Drumont and some of his victims. Several pursued him in court, but the majority shrugged their shoulders and said: "It is a pamphlet, a raking together of calumnious stories, fabricated anecdotes, and veritable lies." A magistrate would presently, in a suit brought against M. Drumont, call it "the *Directory* of defamation." Polemics, duels, suits, are more than is needed to make a success of any book, and the public eagerly devoured that of M. Drumont.

What is to be found in the two compact volumes of which 'Jewish France' consists? First of all, scandalous tales about the principal leaders of the Republican party, whom the author reproached with being dishonest themselves, or of having disreputable relatives, or of having a foreign origin or a Jewish connection. Gambetta and Jules Simon are discovered to have been Jews—the former of Italian, the latter of German origin. Such as are not Jews themselves are accused of being in the hands of Jews. The number of worthy Christians denounced as Jews is considerable. There follows a long, bristling and pedantic history of the Jews, showing that Drumont had laboriously abstracted all the works written against them. His theory about them is summed up in this phrase: "The Semite is mercantile, avaricious, intriguing, subtle, crafty; the Aryan is a son of heaven constantly concerned with higher aspirations. The one lives in the real, the other in the ideal." Proceeding from this psychologic foundation, he shows the Frenchman that, while he was thus living, or was supposed to be living, "in the ideal," the Jew came from Frankfort, Hamburg, or Warsaw and seized upon his money, his occupation, and his land, and made him a pariah in the very country of his ancestors; has tyrannized over him by invading politics and grasping all the administrative posts and the magistracy; has insulted his faith, and expelled Catholicism from the schools and hospitals. For a thousand pages the author harps upon this one theme with examples often mendacious and with names for the most part non-Jewish.

The movement excited by Drumont's book was at the outset solely Catholic. It was singularly reinforced by two events, the Panama crash and the Dreyfus affair. In the former, by a deplorable coincidence, three of the most unpopular men, by reason of having acted as intermediaries in the great wastage and principals in the work of corruption, were Israelites. The incapable or criminal directors of the company, the corrupted Deputies or Senators were all Christians. But those who had squandered the shareholders' millions in bribes to journalists and legislators were that unscrupulous financier, Baron de Reinach; Cornelius Hertz, physician, electrician, and man of affairs; and Aaron (or Arton), clever swindler, whose history is a romance now being terminated in jail. It is quite intelligible that the small bourgeois of France who had read Drumont's tirades against the Jews, and who subsequently lost their savings in Panama, became anti-Semites with no great effort.

Next came the Dreyfus affair. In the interval, Drumont had founded his journal, the *Libre Parole*, in which he renewed daily the work of anti-Semitic defamation, by the same procedure as in his book. One may guess what arguments he could draw from the Panama revelations as from the Dreyfus process. His journal and Rochefort's were the most popular of those classed by Zola under the name of "the filthy press." But Drumont is much superior to Rochefort. However, in spite of the *Libre Parole*, and notwithstanding the support of some other reactionary journals which borrowed their anti-Semitism from Drumont, this doctrine remained purely a clerical weapon. Drumont tried in 1893 to become a Deputy, and failed pitifully. In the Chamber, anti-Semitism was represented solely by an obscure and moreover stupid Deputy, who was the laughing-stock of everybody. The Dreyfus affair, which roused this wind of folly in France, was needed to give anti-Semitism the appearance of taking shape and winning over the masses. In the May elections, Drumont was chosen in Algiers. In half-a-dozen other French districts Deputies wearing the anti-Semitic badge were elected. All without exception were charlatans who wanted to work the popular drift, or fanatics poisoned by reading the *Libre Parole*.

When once the Dreyfus affair is over, and the dementia calmed down, nothing will remain of all this, because anti-Semitism in France has no excuse for being. The Jews there are but little in excess of 80,000 to 100,000, of whom the great majority are thoroughly assimilated. If among them are many financiers who have come from Germany and have made rapid fortunes, a greater number were born in France or were brought there at an early age, and have made an honorable or illustrious name in the sciences, in literature, in the magistracy and the army. The University reckons among its best masters eminent Jews. Everywhere that competition exists, the Jews distinguish themselves by their brilliant success. The Reinach family comprises three brothers, of whom two are savants and one a politician, who are remarkable samples of the working powers and intellectual suppleness of the Jews.

Furthermore, the fact of being a Jew has not been an obstacle in the view either of popular suffrage or of the Government. In Parliament, since 1830 and 1848, there have always been representatives of Israel. At this very moment, the Senate includes four or five and the Chamber as many. In the last elections, for the first time, the fact of being a Jew proved injurious. If there have never been, as an English review recently maintained, 47 Jewish prefects out of 89, the proportion of Jews in the administration is very weighty: there are high magistrates and even generals holding to the faith of Israel. Consequently, the true France, sane and tolerant, is not anti-Semitic. The majority of the French have never seen Jews, who are in great part concentrated in the cities. And then, the French are too indifferent in matters of religion, and too deeply imbued with the principles of the Revolution, to make race distinctions. Even M. Brunetière has castigated Drumont's book (besides qualifying the anti-Semitic hatred as "animal"). Even Père Didon, a very popular Dominican preacher, has shown how puerile and absurd is the pretence that 39 millions of citizens are tyrannized over by 80 thousand.

At last even the Chamber of Deputies has struck at the Jew-baiters represented by Drumont a severe blow not to be forgotten. Only yesterday, after a speech, loudly applauded, of M. Dupuy's, in which the Premier sneered at Drumont, and declared that anti-Semitism was "an ugly and dangerous method that belonged to a past age," the Chamber condemned that "method" by a vote of 406. The Anti-Semites mustered 10 votes.

Othon Guerlac.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE PLAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We read in the public prints that when citizens of this republic present to President McKinley their objections to the annexation of the Philippine Islands, he listens to them respectfully, and then announces that he will be glad to consider their objections if they can suggest any better plan than the permanent holding of the islands. This on its face is a very unfair way of putting off those of us who are not dazzled by the thought of empire. If it is right for Mr. McKinley to exact of the non-expansionists better working plans than his own for a foreign policy, why is it not right, by the same logic, that when he tells us he intends to keep the islands, he should indicate his plan of government for them? In his message to Congress he says:

"I do not discuss at this time the government or the future of the new possessions which will come to us as the result of the war with Spain. Such discussion will be appropriate after the treaty of peace shall be ratified."

Has it ever occurred to Mr. McKinley that we had better have a look at our landing-place before we leap? And why is it our bounden duty to annex the islands before we have settled upon their future government? Would Mr. McKinley buy a horse if he had no place to keep it? But, notwithstanding these sober questions which merit sober answers, Mr. McKinley waves us aside with the "To-morrow, to-morrow" that brought Spain to her downfall. Yet he insists at the same time that if we expect him to recede from his present course, we must show him the way in which he should go. We decline with thanks, having no wish to do his thinking for him.

We shall have it cried in our ears that "where the American flag once waves it shall never be hauled down." It does little good to point out our course in 1848, or our pledges in the war resolution, or to remind Mr. McKinley of what he once said about "criminal aggression" and "our code of morality." We must prepare to expect scant consideration at the hands of those who are drunk with victory and the "lust of empire." But we cannot do it without first expressing our bitter sorrow at seeing the emblem of liberty being turned into an emblem of coaling-stations.

Henry Fredricks.

Germantown, Pa., December 24, 1898.

THE DEADLY PARALLEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the memorable year 1814, memorable in the annals of the Scandinavian North as ushering in a new political era, Denmark was forced to relinquish her sovereignty over Norway, which latter country, under the Treaty of Kiel, should have become a provincial dependency of Sweden. But the Norwegian people, denying the right of the Danish crown to dispose of its destiny, set up a government of its own, adopted a constitution, and resisted the Swedish attempts at enforcing the provisions of the treaty by arms.

The result was the still existing union between Norway and Sweden, the fundamental idea of which is the perfect political independence of both countries. In other words, Norway gained her point, establishing the very principle of sovereignty which Sweden, by virtue of the action of the Danish State, claimed to have assumed.

Now notice the parallel. Spain, by the Treaty of Paris, in the year of our Lord 1898, is forced to surrender her sovereignty over the Philippine Islands to the United States, just as Denmark, eighty-odd years ago, disposed of Norway. But, prior to such surrender, the Filipinos had disputed the Spanish rule by an all but successful insurrection, had aided and abetted the American invasion of their country, and, finally, even before the conclusion of the treaty, had established a republican form of government among themselves. With these facts at their back, the Filipinos contend that their sovereignty cannot be bartered away by Spain, that the United States has acquired no title in equity to the islands, and that Aguinaldo and his representative assembly should be recognized as the lawful rulers of the archipelago.

And why not? The stand taken by Norway in 1814 has received the sanction of the world, and may well be cited as a precedent. Is there any essential difference between that and the situation in the Philippines to-day? The United States, seizing and proposing to hold territory acquired by force and purchase, has no more right to hold the same against the will of its people than had Sweden when she claimed Norway as her legitimate prey. The Filipinos may be semi-barbarous, but they are on their native soil, they have established at least the form of a constitutional government, and their claim to be dealt with accordingly is probably just as strong as was that of the Norwegians in their day.

At any rate, we cannot afford for our own sake to act upon a contrary supposition. Our plain duty is to carry out in our dealings with the Filipinos the principles of justice, independence, and liberty which underlie our own political system, and which have made us what we are.

Luth Jaeger.

Minneapolis, Minn., December 19, 1898.

THE LATIN PLIGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Like Mr. G. Rodman Paul, I have read with interest and curiosity the discussion in regard to the effect of religion on national prosperity; and I have also read with something more than curiosity the contribution which Mr. Paul himself is able to make to the discussion, viz., his quotation from Montesquieu.

Various and widely differing comments suggest themselves, but, for the sake of brevity as well as clarity, I will confine myself to only one of these. Is it not manifestly unjust to any religion based on the doctrines taught by Jesus Christ, Protestant or Catholic, to make worldly prosperity the measure of its truth, or even the measure of its success? In the face of such an effort, may not a conservative reasonably inquire why Christians should set such traps for one another—traps that gape as widely for one denomination as for another? A much more convenient authority than Montesquieu is at the elbow of any one who will take the trouble to examine it. This is the account of the Saviour's ministry as set forth in the four gospels, and the acts and teachings of the Apostles as set forth in other parts of the New Testament.

Without insisting too much on the letter, is it not certain from the spirit of these writings that neither individual nor national prosperity can be taken as a measure of the effect of religion? The case is so far otherwise that it seems impossible for such a discussion to have arisen except as the result of a vagrant thought. National prosperity means national gain as the result of trade, commerce, and the like, and is the aggregation of individual prosperity. All this is wholly beside the scheme of Christianity as set forth in the New Testament, if not (as some have claimed) wholly opposed to it. Is it not true that a philosopher, coming impartially to the question, would conclude, after a careful reading of the New Testament, that, whatever else might be said for or against it, the scheme of life and conduct therein set forth would most certainly not tend to increase the worldly prosperity of the individuals or nations seriously engaged in its practice?

If the Apostles had been charged to go about building factories and ships and soliciting capital to complete and perfect the appurtenances of traffic and trade, one could more clearly understand the drift and purport of this truly remarkable discussion.

J. C. H.

Atlanta, Ga., December 19, 1898.

PENNSYLVANIA DUTCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While at the Moravian boarding-school at Gnadenberg, in Silesia, my brother attended the University at Berlin for a winter. Then he spent two years at Heidelberg before I met him again. It was amusing to me to hear him speak German, as he had entirely changed his intonation and expression. It proved conclusively that there is a vast difference between Badenese and Prussian German, and that even foreigners are influenced by it. So it is with the German spoken in Pennsylvania, which, although now intermixed with English, can at once be recognized as originating in the Palatinate, whence the first settlers emigrated. My friend, Senator William Beidelman, who has made a study of Pennsylvania German (erroneously but generally called "Dutch"), tells me that when listening to men or women in the streets of Heidelberg, Worms, and Speier talking to each other, he could imagine himself among his farmer friends in Northampton County or anywhere in this neighborhood. The most successful writer in Pennsylvania "Dutch" at this time is Edward Ebermann, whose "Danny Kratzer" annual Christmas letters in the Bethlehem (Pa.) *Bulletin* retain the patois in its pristine purity. Mr. Ebermann also understands how to enter thoroughly into the spirit and mode of expression natural to those of our people who keep up the Pennsylvania "Dutch." For the student of philology his letters are very interesting and amusing.

Armin de Bonneheur.

Bethlehem, Pa., December 17, 1898.

A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice an error in the issue of the *Nation* of this date. In giving the names of some of our Ministers to England, you mention "William Welch" (*sic*). Mr. John Welsh

of Philadelphia was the Minister you intended to name. William Welsh was a brother. Mr. John Welsh was not a rich man in the modern acceptation of the term; but in his day he was considered rich by his fellow-townsmen of this modest city.

H. G. C.

PHILADELPHIA, December 22, 1898.

Notes.

The prospectus of Mr. G. R. F. Prowse's 'Cabot to Champlain' (London: Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles) indicates "a cartological determination of the English, French, and Iberian Discoveries between Labrador and Maine, 1497-1633." The work will be illustrated with facsimiles and sketch-maps, and will be ready for subscribers next year at £1 12s., and £2 2s. for non-subscribers. "The object of the work, as a whole, is to systematize the study of early cartography, to form a basis for future research, and to provide the public with material at present inaccessible except to residents of London or Paris."

Three second editions of well-known works may be mentioned before the year closes which sees them published. One is Prof. Woodrow Wilson's manual, 'The State' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), now entering on its tenth year. It has been both revised and augmented, but without specification of these changes. In one particular at least it has met our strictures upon it by greater amplitude. Prof. John Watson's 'Outline of Philosophy' (Macmillan) was reviewed by us in the spring of 1895, under the now discarded title of 'Comte, Mill and Spencer,' but in broadening the scope of his work the author has availed himself of "Notes, Historical and Critical" massed at the end, and adding nearly 200 pages to the total. The group of essays 'Hellenica,' edited by Dr. Evelyn Abbott, has waited nearly twenty years for its reissue (Longmans), having first appeared in 1880. It has undergone but very few changes.

The foregoing should be accompanied by brief mention of a rather pleasing edition of Miss Burney's 'Evelina' (Lippincott), with slight but sufficient pen drawings by Arthur Rackham; and Dickens's 'Uncommercial Traveller' in Mr. Lang's Gadshill Edition (London: Chapman & Hall: New York: Scribners), with an etched portrait of Dickens dreamily surrounded by the characters of his fancy. Finally, we note the appearance of still another volume in Constance Garnett's translation of Turgeneff's works, 'A Lear of the Steppes, and Other Stories,' and the eighth in the translations of Björnson edited by Edmund Gosse, 'Absalom's Hair, and A Painful Memory'—both bearing Macmillan's imprint.

Thackeray's 'Christmas Books' come to us as the latest volume of the Biographical Edition (Harpers). Mrs. Ritchie's introduction shows the almost chance origin and slow accretion of these writings, in which, after all, so much of the author's most characteristic humor displayed itself. A separate "FitzGerald chapter" also finds room in the introduction, giving Thackeray's daughter an opportunity to display memorials of the friendship of her father and "Old Fitz." After the novelist's death, FitzGerald turned over to his family the letters and sketches innumerable which Thackeray had sent him in the course of the many years of unequally sustained intimacy; and these are here freely drawn upon, and some of FitzGerald's rejoinders are also supplied. It is a pleasant light, though it can scarcely be called a new one, thus shed upon a celebrated friendship.

Two new features greatly improve, while increasing the bulk of, the 'International Directory of Booksellers, and Bibliophile's Manual,' now in its fourteenth year (Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg). One is an inclusion of sellers of *new* books (as well as old); the other is a "Bibliography of Works of Reference," more accurately to be described as a list of bibliographies. It is immensely convenient to have in a compact little volume lists of booksellers, publishers, and public libraries the world over, of learned societies and institutions, theological colleges, book collectors; book-trade, antiquarian and historical journals, and much other pertinent matter. The typography is tasteful and clear.

We receive from Lemcke & Buechner the 136th edition of the *Almanach de Gotha*. In the always interesting words from the sanctum which introduce the invaluable world statistics, we read this year of attacks, almost minatory, on its genealogical impartiality in behalf of private interests; but "the *Almanach* is not in politics, and never will be," and those who do not like its abstention must lump it ("Sit ut est aut non sit"). To be accurate, the editors still spare no pains, and they tell what trouble they were at to assure themselves that the murdered Empress Elizabeth was born (as the *Almanach* has always recorded) at Munich, and not at Possenhofen, according to the newspapers, and even according to the inscription on her bier. The Emperor Francis Joseph is fitly honored with one of the regulation portraits of this issue, in view of his jubilee reign; and King Albert of Saxony, who has sat on the throne for twenty-five years, Oom Paul, and Prince William of Wied supply the other three. Much extension is given, and more will be given hereafter, to mention of the orders with which grand personages are decorated. The disturbance in political geography and government caused by the war with Spain can be straightened out only in another year. The protocol of peace textually reported in the appendix is accompanied also by the treaty between China and Germany respecting Kiao-Chau; and this most desirable innovation on the part of the *Almanach* will become a permanent feature, and will cause the back volumes to be cherished more than ever.

Two ex-consuls in Santiago, Pulaski F. Hyatt and John T. Hyatt, unite to produce 'Cuba, its Resources and Opportunities' (J. S. Ogilvie Co.). The authors write as frank annexationists, no matter what we said when going to war, and from the point of view of those who believe that there are millions in it for the men who are first in the field. The information and statistics they have put together on the usual topics of agriculture and mining and transportation are scrappy, but, we judge, sufficiently accurate. Exception must be made, however, of the chapter on "Language," with its list of "Spanish Words and Phrases." What with misprints and misunderstandings, many pitfalls are here laid for the feet of the unwary.

A unique copy of the first part of Paine's 'Age of Reason,' printed in Paris in the second year of the French Republic, lately discovered in this city, has been made the occasion for a reprint of the entire work by the Truth-Seeker Co. (It is stated also, that the incessant demand for the work has worn out the plates hitherto used.) The matter found in this, but suppressed in later editions, makes it probable that we have here the original and first. Mr. M. D. Conway's account of the discovery, and transcript of the new matter, communicated to the *Athenæum* in August last, are reprinted in the present preface. The volume is printed in liberal type, and is furnished with a number of portraits of Paine, views of houses associated with him, and of his monument at New Rochelle. There is, critically, very little transition in passing from 'The Age of Reason' to Prof. Goldwin Smith's 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence'; but while for Paine the stereotype plates of the "infidel" hue-and-cry are not yet worn out, his countryman across the border is perforce tolerated and not abused.

Another sign of the times is that the volume of selections of 'American Prose' edited by Prof. George R. Carpenter of Columbia and recently published by Macmillan, introduces for the first time, so far as we are aware, in any similar collection, examples from Paine; and that after gems from Cotton Mather and Jonathan Edwards. The selections from Paine have been made by Prof. Munroe Smith, who prefaces them with a brief biographical sketch and appreciation, without, however, attempting to characterize his author's style, further than in the remark that "Paine's best work is rather journalism than literature." But (speaking still of the best only) would there were more such journalism nowadays. Prof. Carpenter has been assisted, as by Prof. Smith, so by other well-known writers in the case of each of his prosaists—Poe by Lewis Edward Gates, Whitman by George Santayana, Charles Brockden Brown by T. W. Higginson, G. W. Curtis by Howells, Parkman by John Fiske, etc.

It is, at first sight, difficult to determine what may be the public addressed in 'How to Enjoy Pictures,' by M. S. Emery (Boston: Prang Educational Co.), the instruction given is so very primitive, while the book can hardly be intended for children. It is quite possible, however (it is even probable), that there exists a class of people not too uneducated to read a book who yet need to be told that the way to enjoy a picture is to look at it more than once, and to try to find out what the artist meant to say—to try to understand the story in a story picture, the character in a portrait, even the general lines of composition in a landscape or figure subject. Miss Emery gives a singularly mixed lot of examples, good, bad, and indifferent, and her exposition is generally not unsound as far as it goes, though it goes but a very little way. That her erudition is not profound is shown in her remarks on Bastien's "Jeanne d'Arc": "A vision is shaping itself," she says, "the vision of a warrior in armour. . . . Some think that the mail-clad figure is the Dauphin, others see in it the Maid herself. . . . The flower-crowned figures are at least angelic; the one most plainly seen has sometimes been thought to be the Virgin Mary. It is difficult, and indeed hardly necessary, to identify the figures beyond a doubt." The first child's book on Jeanne, that by M. Boutet de Monvel, for instance, would have informed Miss Emery that the visions which

appeared to Jeanne were St. Michael, St. Catherine, and St. Margaret. Miss Emery's rearrangement of Puvis's "Electricity" is certainly thoroughly bad and also perfectly impossible, but this hardly of itself proves the great merit of the composition as it was originally made, and her attempted analysis of a Madonna by Botticelli emphasizes a line which the artist evidently took great pains to avoid. Finally, the description of Sir Edward Burne-Jones as " a distinguished member of the Royal Academy" is, at least, misleading.

An interesting instance of useful work well performed is the translation of English scientific books into German made by the wife of Von Helmholtz in conjunction sometimes with the wife of Wiedemann, and sometimes with the wife of Du Bois-Reymond. The latest of this series (which has been hitherto chiefly confined to the works of Tyndall) is the book on the most recent views concerning electricity by Prof. Oliver Lodge, which was regarded by Von Helmholtz himself as a particularly admirable introduction to the subject.

Every upholder of the ancient order of things must be shocked at seeing the frequency with which the names of women appear as the authors of contributions in the learned periodicals, and especially the names of American women in the German scientific periodicals; this indicates a lack of modest retiringness on the part of American women which cannot but be viewed with alarm in some quarters. Thus, the last number of Roux's *Archiv für Entwickelungsmechanik der Organismen* (a subject which even did not exist a few years ago) has eight names of contributors on the title-page, four of them Americans, and two of them American women. Nor is this a solitary showing; to mention one more instance which lies at hand, more than half of the 260 pages of the last number of the *Journal of Morphology* are contributed by women.

Harper's Round Table for 1898 (aside from the standing departments, in which Photography has a large place) is composed mainly of fiction and tales of adventure. Echoes of the Spanish war are noticeably wanting. Two articles relate to Cuba, and there is a story of Dewey's mischievousness and strategy as a schoolboy. This reticence when the air was full of the great international controversy will not be laid up against the magazine. Some of Mr. G. W. Carryl's clever animal fables in verse are found here.

A few contributors and many features are common to the *American Annual of Photography* (Scovill & Adams Co.) and the *International Annual* of E. & H. T. Anthony & Co., and both plump volumes can be consulted with profit by professional and amateur. The range of illustration in the former excels, on the whole, and here alone we find examples of color printing, while Mr. F. H. Day's figure and Dr. Shufeldt's animal studies are worthy of special remark. The *International Annual* displays a series of convention prize photographs.

The third number of the second volume of *Camera Notes* (New York: The Camera Club, No. 3 West Twenty-ninth Street) contains, as usual, several admirable examples of the photographic art; the first being an English landscape, with sheep, by Tom Bright, and "A Wet Night, Columbus Circle, New York," by W. A. Fraser. The first volume of this quarterly periodical already commands a premium.

"Photography '98" is one of the rubrics in 'Hazell's Annual for 1899' (London), and is a good example of the survey which this very useful work gives all along the line of human activity. We notice in it mention of Mr. Birt Acres's new and simplified attachment for the ordinary camera for the making by anybody of cinematograph films; also, of the depositing by the National Photographic Record and Survey Association of several hundreds of excellent historical photographs in the British Museum. This article is cheek by jowl with one on the Philippine Islands. Under Cuba there is a succinct account of our late war; and generally the turbulent year the world over is well recorded. Maps of China, the Nile Valley, West Africa, and the Transvaal will, no doubt, as the editor says, continue for some time to have a current interest. Students of English political development will be glad of the concentrated information under "Local Government."

We have received the pamphlet recording the history of the Lovejoy monument erected a year ago at Alton, Ill., and the proceedings at its dedication. The silhouette portrait of the martyr by which alone his personal appearance has been handed down, is reproduced as frontispiece, and this will give the pamphlet a special value. There is also inserted an embossed picture of the monument. The speakers were not particularly felicitous or well-informed—certainly not the one who gave to Lovejoy the credit of being the first to publish an anti-slavery paper in a slave State. Nor did the colored clergyman who circumspectly read his remarks rise to his opportunity. The somewhat defensive tone of his peroration one may dimly connect with the contemporaneous efforts of the Alton School Board to prevent colored children from attending white schools even when named for Lincoln and Lovejoy! Finally, whoever composed the inscriptions on the base of the Lovejoy column missed one of burning appropriateness: "Wherefore ye witness to yourselves that ye are sons of them that slew the prophets."

Two sheet calendars for 1899 from the Pacific Coast (San Francisco: A. M. Robertson) compare favorably with their class at the East. One is "The Boys of '98," by Gordon Ploss, six wash-drawings of army scenes, with a sentinel cover; in the other, "Stanford," Blanche Letcher celebrates her sex as loyal student, basketball player, graduate, and tourist, in seven clever pen sketches.

It is reported from Munich that a number of American art students, especially women, who have heretofore pursued their studies at Paris, have joined the classes of Munich teachers. At the same time, a French critic, M. S. Rocheblave, discussing the rapid development of German art in the last decade (in the *Revue Pédagogique* for November), deems it probable that modern German painting may soon rival the French.

—The increasing frequency with which the opinions of Friedrich Nietzsche are quoted in this country is perhaps another symptom that, as a nation, we are in an abnormal mental condition. The recklessness with which we were stampeded into the war with Spain, the flippancy with which we now renounce the fundamental principles of the republic, the devil-may-care levity with which we adopt the policy of imperialism—all smacks of the insane psychological state which characterizes Nietzsche's works. The time seems almost ripe for a Nietzsche fad here. Until Nordau castigated the poor madman in 'Degeneration' four or five years ago, few Americans had ever heard of him; now his works are being translated into English in ten volumes, and books about him are multiplying. It is a pleasure, therefore, to call attention to the admirable exposition of Nietzsche's philosophy which Prof. C. C. Everett of Harvard gives in the *New World* for December. The summary is clear, comprehensive, and complete, and is likely to convince most sober readers that Nietzsche is not for them. "Man," he says, "should be educated for war; woman should be educated for man's recreation." Christianity, he teaches, is a religion formulated by an enslaved and abject race, who naturally magnified the virtues which restrain the strong from persecuting the weak. That doctrines like these, to the bulk of ten volumes, should find acceptance might seem incredible. Prof. Everett suggests, however, some good reasons for this apparent anomaly. His own analysis of the way in which our Government during the Spanish war really acted according to Nietzsche's doctrines, while pretending to be wholly Christian and humane, explains much. It is suggestive that the hopelessly insane Nietzsche is the favorite philosopher of latter-day Germany, while a neurotic if not unbalanced war-lord holds the life of every German at his caprice.

—Prof. Eastman's 'Second Washington Catalogue of Stars' has just been issued in a separate form as an appendix to the Washington Observations for 1892. Astronomers will be glad to get it; but throughout the country they are wondering when they are to be permitted to see the volume itself for that year, let alone the volumes for subsequent years. As a matter of fact, the volume for 1890 is the last published; in comparison with which we naturally note that similar Greenwich publications for 1895 were distributed in this country many months ago. Congress has appropriated generously for this new Observatory for the Navy, nearly a million dollars in all; and there is besides an annual budget for maintenance that should be ample. Not strange is it, therefore, with work lamentably in arrear, that criticism of the Observatory management should again revive, and that last summer's congress of astronomers, thinking the Observatory a discredit to the nation, appointed a committee to inquire into the feasibility of reorganizing its affairs. Prof. Harkness, since 1894 "Astronomical Director," so called, in distinction from the naval "Superintendent" proper, disclaims all responsibility for the catalogue, declaring Prof. Eastman its responsible author, and very properly, although he did not do all the work. The catalogue contains 5,151 stars, based upon more than 75,000 observations, of which 12,000 were made by Assistant Astronomer Skinner, 9,000 each by Assistant Astronomers Winlock and Paul, and 18,000 by Prof. Eastman personally. A considerable force of computers also assisted. The period of observation embraces twenty-five years, from 1866 to 1891. Taking exception to details and scrutinizing the catalogue for errors is beyond our province, and we leave all that to the experts, who will naturally inquire whether the methods of observation and reduction, prosecuted in the old-fashioned way, are abreast with modern standards of precision. As a matter of ty-

pography, we note that the stars of the American Ephemeris are very insufficiently differentiated by the type-face, which should have been much heavier. The catalogue is a monumental work; and it seems as if the Observatory, upon reorganization, with sundry changes of staff and transfer perhaps to another department of the Government, ought to escape the complete paralysis long threatening it.

—Good as was the idea underlying Dr. St. George Mivart's 'Groundwork of Science' (Putnams), viz., that a new series of books on scientific topics should be equipped with a simple account of the general principles and methods used in the construction of a science, he can scarcely be congratulated on having carried it into successful execution. He calls his work a study of epistemology, but its very miscellaneous contents (the most readable part of which consists of *obiter dicta* suggested by his biological studies) bear hardly any resemblance to what students are beginning to know as epistemology. There is, moreover, no very apparent plan either in the choice or in the order of the topics, while the tantalizing elusiveness of the phrasing may be gauged by one of Dr. Mivart's concluding paragraphs. In answer to the question, What is the groundwork of science? he says (p. 320): "It is the work of self-conscious, material organisms, making use of the marvellous intellectual first principles which they possess, in exploring all the physical and psychical phenomena of the universe which sense, intuition, and ratiocination can anyhow reveal to them as real existences. . . . Such being the groundwork of science, what may, nay, what must, be said to be its foundation—what the support and guarantee alike of the workers, the principles, and the objects of science?" The answer to this second conundrum the reader has some difficulty in discovering to be "God," but what could be more awkward than the distinction drawn between the "groundwork" and the "foundation" of science? As for the groundwork of science itself, it is enough to say that it consists, according to Dr. Mivart, of realist metaphysics of a very antiquated type, hardly differing from the scholastic doctrine which still clings to the Roman Catholic Church. His appreciation of idealism is so imperfect that he seriously (p. 81) endorses Dr. Johnson's refutation of it by kicking a stone! If this be refutation, it might at least be strengthened by kicking the idealist! In short, Dr. Mivart's reaction against the popular doctrine that science involves no metaphysics, takes the form of untimely zeal on behalf of a particular kind of metaphysics; and he thereby loses a great opportunity of illustrating the truth that sciences are systems of working—methods which hand on the problem of their combination and mutual adjustment to metaphysics.

—The contributors to volume vi. of Prof. Petit de Julleville's 'Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française' (Paris: A. Colin & Cie.) unite in dealing somewhat harshly with the "Encyclopédistes," one and all, of the eighteenth century. This treatment contrasts unacceptably with the unction shown in reviewing the divines and preachers in earlier issues of the work, and indicates a slight falling away from the critical attitude. We note, also, that the chapter on Voltaire omits all mention of Parton's Life. Jean Jacques's defects of character and sophisms in doctrine are much more tenderly handled by M. Maury. As to Bernardin de Saint Pierre, while the charm that still clings to his one famous romance is admitted, we feel surprise at finding the flimsy teleology of his 'Harmonies' solemnly set forth and as solemnly refuted. The writers who deal with the creative and imaginative literature of the period (dramas, novels, and poems) succeed completely in demonstrating the transitional character of most of these productions; but, in so doing, also obscure their inherently permanent value, for, after all, 'Gil Blas' is still readable, and "Figaro" worthily treads the stage. Much the most interesting chapters in the volume are contributed by M. Joseph Texte and M. Samuel Rocheblave. The former, already known by his recent studies in European literature, devotes his space to the cosmopolitan influence of literary France during the century, and supports his positions with illustrations reaching from Madrid to St. Petersburg. M. Rocheblave continues his examination of the moral and intellectual forces that tended, particularly during the latter half of the eighteenth century, towards paralyzing the kindred efforts of letters and of the graphic arts by pseudo-classical restrictions, the breaking down of which will doubtless be amply discussed in the next issue of this great work.

A NEW BIBLE DICTIONARY.

A Dictionary of the Bible, dealing with its Language, Literature, and Contents, including the Biblical Theology. Edited by James Hastings, M.A., D.D., with the assistance of John A. Selbie, M.A., and, chiefly in the revision of the proofs, of A. B. Davidson, D.D., LL.D., S. R. Driver, D.D., Litt.D., H. B. Swete, D.D., Litt.D. Vol. I.: A—Feasts. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1898. Lexicon 8vo, pp. xv, 864.

The publication of a large and exhaustive Dictionary of the Bible is an event of no little importance. Smith's Dictionary has held undisputed sway for more than a generation, and it is high time that a new work, fully abreast of the advancing Biblical scholarship of the day, should take its place. This is said with no intention of disparaging the merits of the older Dictionary. As a matter of fact, it is a work of a very high order, and to meet, with a new publication, the needs of the present day as adequately as it met the needs of a former generation is no easy task for editor and publisher. But the advance in Biblical knowledge has been very rapid during recent decades, and Smith's Dictionary is unquestionably antiquated. No Biblical student, therefore, could fail to hail with acclamation a work of similar scope and of equal range and thoroughness, which should adequately represent in all lines the best scholarship of to-day. A Dictionary like the present must be judged by a high standard. It is not enough that it should contain some or even many good articles. It must be as nearly as possible abreast of the age at every point. There is no justification for poor and slipshod work or for hack work. Unless it contains the fruits of the best modern Biblical scholarship, it has no right to exist. The question, then is, How does the present work fulfil its promise?

Many admirable features appear to the most casual reader. The editor says in his preface: "Every effort has been used to make the information it contains reasonably full, trustworthy, and accessible." So far as fulness is concerned, the work leaves nothing to be desired. Not only are there some ninety elaborate articles in this first volume, dealing with subjects of peculiar importance and difficulty, but there is an immense number of brief articles (more than 3,500, according to the publisher's advertisement), some of them filling only a few lines, others extending to a column or more, and dealing with the greatest variety of subjects. "Articles have been written," according to the preface, "on the names of all Persons and Places, on the Antiquities and Archæology of the Bible, on its Ethnology, Geology, and Natural History, on Biblical Theology and Ethic, and even on the obsolete or archaic words occurring in the English versions."

It is upon the range and quality of its minor articles that the value of a dictionary or encyclopædia depends to a considerable degree. When it comes to subjects of great importance and significance, the student commonly goes beyond the Dictionary to the more elaborate discussions in book and pamphlet form, making the dictionary article only a point of departure. But, for the hundreds of minor matters upon which he wishes information day by day, he contents himself ordinarily with his Bible Dictionary, and it is of cardinal importance, therefore, that it shall be accurate and thoroughly up to date at these points. The temptation in every work of the kind is to expend strength solely upon the great subjects, and allow the minor articles to be done in a less careful and thorough way, or even to have them thrown together by members of the editorial staff who have only the most general knowledge of the subjects with which they deal. The present Dictionary is to be warmly commended for the evident care which has been given even to the least important articles, and for the fact that the briefest of them have commonly been put into the hands of experts.

So, too, in the matter of accessibility, the work is admirably adapted to the end in view. The editor says:

"While all the articles have been written expressly for this work, so they have been arranged under the headings one would most naturally turn to. In a very few cases it has been found necessary to group allied subjects together. But even then the careful system of blacklettering and cross-reference adopted should enable the reader to find the subject wanted without delay."

Moreover, the convenience of the student has been consulted by occasional repetition which usually makes it unnecessary for him to go back and forth from one article to another in search of information upon any particular subject. This is all as it should be, and calls for the gratitude of every one who uses the Dictionary.

But, after all, the value of a work like the present depends less upon its fulness, and the accessibility of the information it contains, than upon its trustworthiness. Upon this point the editor says: "The names of the authors are appended to their articles, except where the article is very brief and of minor importance; and these names are the best guarantee that the work may be relied on." The unsigned articles, in fact, never extend beyond two or three lines in length, and some even as brief as that are signed. The practice of signing practically all the articles and of giving the author's names in full instead of only

their initials, is to be heartily commended. The unsophisticated student is very apt to ascribe greater authority to a Dictionary article than it really possesses, to regard it with a reverence inspired by the imposing list of scholars who have coöperated in the production of the work, forgetting that each article is the production of an individual scholar, and commonly of no greater authority than the same scholar's utterances in other forms. To give in each case the author's full name is to do something to dispel this illusion and to promote the student's own independence—an independence which is more seriously threatened by the Dictionary than by any other form of publication.

But, after saying that "these names are the best guarantee that the work may be relied on," the editor continues: "So far as could be ascertained, those authors were chosen for the various subjects who had made a special study of that subject, and might be able to speak with authority upon it." Naturally we turn at once to the list of contributors to the first volume to see who these writers are. The list is an imposing one, containing 135 names, many of them well and favorably known in all Biblical circles. Among them are such men as Profs. Francis Brown of Union Seminary, Beecher of Auburn, Curtis and Porter of Yale, Thayer of Harvard, Charles, Conybeare, and Driver of Oxford, Harris, James, and Robinson of Cambridge, Davidson of Edinburgh, Ramsay and Salmond of Aberdeen, and George Adam Smith of Glasgow. But a more careful examination of the list reveals one or two curious and somewhat disquieting facts—in the first place, the almost total absence from the list of the names of German scholars. As a matter of fact, only one German name appears—that of Prof. Hommel of Munich. It was not to be expected, of course, that a Bible Dictionary for English-speaking students, edited by an Englishman, should enlist the services of any large number of German scholars, but it is hardly a favorable sign that they have been so rigidly excluded, and that the single one whose name appears is known as a reactionary of an extreme type, who is probably the least representative man in his department in all Germany. We can hardly help thinking that he was chosen largely because of his theological tendency, and that German scholars in general were avoided (in part at least) because of their reputation for radicalism. It is well enough for the editor and publisher, if they choose, to issue a work which shall represent exclusively or chiefly the Biblical scholarship of Great Britain; but what the student of to-day needs is a dictionary which shall contain the fruits of the best Biblical scholarship of the world, and just in so far as the present work fails to supply that need, it falls short of the true ideal of a Bible Dictionary. English scholarship is in some respects exceedingly provincial, and it is a great pity that a work claiming to be a thoroughly up-to-date and high-grade dictionary should emphasize that provincialism in so marked a way.

The impression of provincial narrowness gathered from the almost total absence of German names is confirmed by a still farther scrutiny of the list of contributors. No other Continental country has a single representative, while America (where the Dictionary, of course, is expected to sell widely) has only fifteen out of a total of 135. This does not necessarily reflect upon the editor, for he may have tried and failed to secure a wider coöperation, but it does seriously impair the value of the work.

Equally noticeable with the unfortunate provincialism of the Dictionary is the marked theological tendency of at least certain portions of it. It is true that in the articles dealing with Old Testament introduction there is a large measure of freedom, but elsewhere extreme conservatism is the rule. This is symptomatic of the condition of things in England. In Old Testament critical scholarship Great Britain is perhaps abreast of the age, and the best articles in the present Dictionary are those dealing with the Old Testament. But in New Testament scholarship both England and Scotland are far behind the rest of the world. There are few New Testament students in Great Britain who are doing work of any substantial value except in the field of textual criticism, and the editor, in failing to enlist the support of the leading New Testament students of other lands, has not availed himself of the fruits of the best scholarship of the day, and so his Dictionary is noticeably inadequate in this part. The disparity is indicated by the very difference in the number of the contributors upon Old and New Testament subjects respectively. Of professional Old Testament scholars there are at least thirty-five, of professional New Testament scholars, so far as appears on the face of the published list, there are only five—though it should be said that some of those whose titles do not indicate the fact are to be classed among New Testament specialists. But even so the disparity is very marked. Moreover, the large proportion of systematic theologians is a bad sign. There are at least fifteen professional dogmaticians, to whom a large proportion of the articles in Biblical Theology has been given, as if their work as systematic theologians especially fitted them for the latter subject. The editor and publisher lay stress upon the treatment of Biblical Theology as constituting a very important feature of the work, and some of the articles are of a very high order, as, for instance, that on Eschatology, especially in the sections dealing with the Old Testament and the Apocrypha by Davidson and Charles respectively. But the fact that so many of these articles have been written by systematic theologians, whose tastes and habits lead to a systematic rather than an historical treatment of their themes, has completely vitiated not a few of them. Perhaps the most flagrant example of this is the article on Christology, by Prof. Beet. The writer betrays no sense of historical development, and what must we think of such a paragraph as the following?

"We expect to see in them [*i. e.*, those who deny the divinity of Christ], as a fruit of their important discovery, some moral and spiritual superiority to those who are still held fast by the great delusion. We look in vain. They who deny the divinity of Christ have done very little to carry the Gospel to the heathen, to rescue the perishing at home, or to help forward the spiritual life of men."

Surely a dictionary can hardly claim to have been carefully edited in which so unscientific an article—a homily we might better call it—was allowed to appear. Or are we to suppose that it satisfied the editors? We are sure that such an article on an Old Testament theme would not have satisfied the Old Testament specialists on the board of editors. But the standard set for the New Testament is so much lower, and the defence of certain great doctrines counts for so much, among the New Testament scholars of England! The articles on Conscience, on Election, on Ethics, and on Faith are also examples of the unhistorical and therefore unscientific method of treating Biblical theology, though all of them, especially the last two, are full and careful and contain much valuable material.

We have referred to the high grade of the articles on the Old Testament. Some of the most notable among them are those on Chronicles by Prof. Francis Brown, on Daniel by Prof. Curtis of Yale, on Deuteronomy by Prof. Ryle, and on Ecclesiastes by Prof. Peake. All of these articles are thorough and exhaustive, and their authors accept without hesitation the conclusions of the modern critical school. The value of Chronicles is recognized as more that "of a sermon than of a history." The book of Daniel is ascribed to the Maccabeean period, about the year 165; Ecclesiastes to about the year 200, and Deuteronomy to the seventh century B. C. Other articles of especial interest in the Old Testament field are those on Angels, on the Apocrypha (which contains the best account of the history of the Apocrypha in the church with which we are acquainted), on the Exodus, and on the Fall.

The articles dealing with the New Testament are, as a rule, distinctly inferior to these and others in the Old Testament field. The article on Chronology by Turner of Oxford is, to be sure, of a high order of excellence, and it is interesting to see that the author, after a very elaborate discussion of the available data, settles down upon a chronology of Paul's life out of agreement with all the chronologies hitherto proposed. The articles on Corinthians, by Principal Robertson, are also able, and on the whole satisfactory except for the treatment of the interval between I. and II. Corinthians. But the article on Acts by Headlam is a flagrant example of what a dictionary article should not be. It is an apology almost from beginning to end. As a single illustration of the author's spirit and method, attention may be called to the fact that, in considering the chief discrepancies between the Acts and the Epistles of Paul, he never so much as refers to the decree of Acts xv., though he deals with the relations of that chapter to Galatians ii. 1-10, and triumphantly declares all the difficulties disposed of.

The articles on Colossians and Ephesians are also unsatisfactory, the former especially so. One unfortunate feature of all the articles on Paul's Epistles is the very elaborate analyses that are given, ostensibly with the purpose of promoting an understanding of the Epistles. In reality such minute analyses, which are found in almost all dictionaries and commentaries, create an entirely false impression of the character of Paul's letters, and make a just appreciation of their purpose and meaning almost impossible. The articles on church government, especially on apostles and on bishops and deacons, are exceedingly meagre, and betray a singular ignorance of the points of chief importance and of those over which there is real dispute. They are supplemented, it is true, by the article on the Church, an admirably thorough and careful piece of work, but they contain no reference to that article and are calculated to mislead the student.

Our space will not permit us to particular-

ize farther, but we may say in conclusion that the work is on the whole a great advance upon the dictionaries of the past—Smith's as well as others—and deserves a hearty welcome from all Biblical students. At the same time the limitations which beset especially the New Testament articles and those upon Biblical theology must be recognized as seriously impairing the value of the work; and this is the more to be deplored because its very freedom in other parts seems to guarantee its scientific character, and thus gives weight to all its articles. It is cause for lasting regret that a work so good in many respects should in other respects fall so far short of the ideal of a modern Bible Dictionary.

FRAZER'S PAUSANIAS—II.

Pausanias's Description of Greece. Translated with a Commentary by J. G. Frazer, M.A., LL.D., Glasgow; Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge; of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law. Macmillans. 1898.

An attempt must now be made to select specific points from the mass of Mr. Frazer's accumulations of well-digested learning in order to give some detailed indication of the scope of his work. Let us begin with several debatable matters of Athenian topography where the dust of controversies has hitherto darkened counsel: (1.) The meaning of "Ceramicus," says Mr. Frazer in substance (vols. ii., p. 56; v., 479), is restricted by Pausanias and several late writers to the market-place; but this limitation of the term was unknown in the fourth and fifth centuries B. C. (2.) The "so-called" Theseum was not a Temple of Theseus; it may have been a Temple of Hephæstus; but no conclusive proof of this is as yet forthcoming (vols. ii., 127, 145-155, and v., 489 ff). (3.) On the whole, the position at Athens of the market-place may be regarded as settled, but we ought not to allow it vaguely to include portions of the adjacent hills (vol. ii., p. 55). (4.) In the discussion about the location of the "Nine-Conduits" spring, Dr. Dörpfeld must be right as to the position of the spring to which Pausanias applies this name; he is, however, plainly wrong in his attempt to wrest the references of other writers into agreement with Pausanias's location; most probably Pausanias made a blunder in his use of the name Enneakrounos (vols. ii., 112-117, and v., 483 ff.).

Mr. Frazer's notes upon the Attic countryside make up in more ways than one for the unpoetical and Baedeker-like precisions of Pausanias, who was out of touch with all the Greek poets excepting only Homer (vol. i., Introduction, p. lv.), and actually finds nothing better to say, when dealing with Colonos, than that the local Oedipus legend is an imposture (vols. i., Introduction, lx. and pp. 42, 47, and ii., 366 f.). These ultra-professional asperities are most acceptably humanized by our commentator, who does not scorn either the enthusiasm of Sophocles (vol. ii., 395 ff.) or the intensities of Euripides (vol. v., 2), and has been at pains to borrow light from the newly resuscitated Bacchylides (v., 490 f.). The legends clinging round Cape Zoster gather an enhancement of grace from our commentator's clear picture of its coasts (vol. ii., p. 399); and the romantic background given by his description to the tomb of Erysichthon at Prasiae (Ib., 403), and also to the Temples at Rhamnus (Ib., 448-457), serves to put the reader's mind in tune with what he is trying to understand. Similarly, the nightingales of Oropus, the ivy of Acharnæ (Ib., 417), and the grottoes of Pentelicus (Ib., 419), Cephale (Ib., 402), and Phyle (Ib., 422), all help to make the rigors of Pausanias, when thus tempered and attenuated, not bearable merely, but fascinating. These and such as these are the blandishments by which we are won—now with a landscape and anon with a brief sketch of Attic peasants at their work—so that at last we learn ourselves to feel something of our commentator's anxiety as to the precise location of many an Attic township whose name we never read before. Mr. Frazer's discourse upon the seaward group of country-towns known as the Marathonian Tetrapolis (Ib., 431-442), is a case in point. We can only wish he might have seen his way to give us the companion picture of the adjacent group of three highland townships, known as the Epacrian Demes, which were named Plotheia, Semachidae, and Icaria (on Icaria, see Ib., 461 ff.). Such a sketch would have been particularly interesting to several past members of the American School at Athens, who were concerned in the attempt to locate the two first named of these three ancient hamlets.

Although Mr. Frazer appears to be in a captious mood when he derides an American reporter of Greek excavations at Thoricus for speaking of "an entire city" when he should apparently have said "a small Mycenæan settlement" (vol. v., 524), and has apparently not been greatly interested either in the details of American work at Sto Dionyso under the late Professor Merriam (vol. ii., 462), or in the most recent American discoveries at Corinth (vol. v., 545), he gives us full measure elsewhere, notably at Sicyon (vol. iii., 44 ff., 49-51), at Platæa (vol. v., 12 f., 18), at Thoricus (vol. ii., 409 f.), and at the Argive Heræum (vol. iii., 165-186). Still, his account of the Heræum could not, in the nature of things, be the centre of interest in the third volume. The place of honor and the largest space belongs to Mycenæ. Nowhere, in fact, has the vast literature of Mycenæan excavation been so effectively and serviceably condensed as in the 65-odd pages of his note on Pausanias ii., 16 (Ib., 98-164). Commenting, in the same volume (iii.), on Pausanias iii., 18, our author deals exhaustively with the Amyclæan throne of Apollo without apparently quite being sure of his own mind; for he provisionally accepts Professor Furtwängler's restoration on page 352, while he appears to adopt, on page 356, a radical alteration of it. The leading features in the Commentary on Pausanias iv. (Messenia) are the excellent accounts given of Messene and Ithome (vol. iii., 429-439) and of Sphacteria-Pylos (Ib., 456-462; v., 608-613).

When we come to the two books devoted to Elis, and to Mr. Frazer's summary of the excavations at Olympia, a disappointment is in store for us. Here we are surprised to find that our author, whose interest and competence in matters of primitive ritual are well known, gives (vol. iii., 562 ff., 556) only the most casual glances at the vast collection of votive bronzes deriving from a prehistoric ritual at Olympia, and shows few indications (vol. iii., 559 f., 561) of having read and digested Curtius's extraordinarily able account of the Olympian altar-service so minutely dwelt upon in Pausanias v., 15. Our commentator exhibits (vol. iv., 62 *init.*, 63 *ad fin.*, 65, half a line, 66 *ad fin.*) a like indifference to the detailed account of Greek polychromy as exemplified by the remains of the Olympian treasure-houses. The light thrown upon this dark subject by the German publications on Olympia is so remarkable that it absolutely cries out for a long note or an appendix. Even the landscape of Olympia leaves Mr. Frazer cold, and his whole account of the site is given without enthusiasm. In spite of this fact, we must allow that the account is good upon all the most essential matters involved. Good it assuredly is, but not up to Mr. Frazer's mark elsewhere. Some careful study of the prehistoric bronzes at Olympia would certainly have been far more fruitful, for instance, than the sort of note given on Pausanias v., 14 (vol. iii., 558 f.). The topic is "Zeus the Averter of flies," and Mr. Frazer, after Arcadian, Leucadian, Philistine, and a swarm of other more or less relevant parallels, finds it worth while to say: "We may conjecture that in these and similar cases the God or Hero who is implored to keep off insects or vermin, was originally conceived as himself a fly or locust or worm, etc." After this comes a divagation into the jungle of "totemism." The relevancy of this whole note remains doubtful so long as Mr. Frazer fails to subject the abounding evidences of prehistoric cultus at Olympia to any systematic scrutiny. It is therefore safe to be sceptical as to the hoary antiquity of Olympian observance in honor of Zeus "the Averter of flies," and to regard the frigid minutiæ of Pausanias on this, as on many similar matters which are taken seriously by our commentator, as the exuberances of an outworn and paralyzed religious impulse which reproduces a simulacrum of the sturdier play of primeval thought, but is anything rather than primitive itself, since it marks the second childhood of the religious mind of antiquity. If our commentator would insist less exclusively upon survival (which, of course, must in some sense be taken into account), and allow us to put this interpretation on his parallels, then his savage parallels would have their real value. Indeed, Mr. Frazer himself shows us the right way in his note on Pausanias viii., 48, where he argues for Jahn's view that a substantial portion of the story of Telephus is of very late origin (ii., 75 ff.; v. 481).

The fact is, that we are just beginning to gain some insight into the religion of the Mycenæans, which unquestionably lies at the roots of the higher and more characteristic Hellenic observance, and new discoveries in this field are more than suggesting a fundamental reconstitution of the now current views as to the survival in Greek religion of savage ritual. The facts presented in Mr. Frazer's 'Golden Bough,' to which a vast addition is made in these commentaries, will for the most part have soon to be dismissed from the place of honor assigned to them in the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' So far at least as Greek religion is concerned, and most especially so far as Athenian and Attic cults are involved, their place henceforth is in the background of a long perspective, the foreground being assigned to the dimly recorded beginnings of Hellenic religion, and the middle distance being reserved for what we may be able to make out concerning the evolution of that more highly organized civilization and by no means primitive religion to which Mycenæ has given its name. Indeed, these very commentaries do their part in persuading us of the unforeseen and decisive influence upon

the Hellenes of their Mycenæan predecessors, for, in his account of the draining of Lake Copais (v., 110-120), Mr. Frazer incidentally describes a vast system of prehistoric engineering works by which those regions were protected from periodic inundation. This achievement is connected with that old Bœotian centre of Mycenæan power, Orchomenos, whose palmy days were anterior to the glories of Mycenæ in the Argolid.

Speaking generally, Mr. Frazer is most successful in dealing with architectural and topographical questions, and not quite at his best when he discourses about painting and sculpture. He does not appear quite so dissatisfied as the facts should make him with the state of our knowledge about the Delphian frescoes of Polygnotus, for instance, and is just a little too much under the spell of Dr. Carl Robert's restorations (v., 358 top) —indispensable, no doubt, and excellent so far as they go. Perhaps it is not unfair to say that this results from a limitation in his taste, analogous to that which leaves him unmoved by the great composition in stone which adorned the western gable of the temple of Zeus at Olympia, and leads him to dismiss with something akin to distrust the battle of the Centaurs on the frieze of the temple at Bassæ (iv., 400). To say, as Mr. Frazer does, that Dr. Robert's restorations "on the whole" "probably give a fairly correct idea of the composition and general effect of the pictures," though "some exceptions may be taken to them in detail," is like saying of a row of isolated flash-pictures for the cinematograph, when pasted together side by side, that they probably give a fairly correct idea on the whole of the movements whose invisible stages they project upon the astonished and offended eye. Surely we know enough to be certain that the art of composition made vast strides between the age which produced the François Vase and the Chest of Cypselus, and the era of Polygnotus. Accordingly, we have but to compare with Robert's restorations (v., plates vi. and vii.) Mr. Stuart Jones's astounding *tour de force* on the restoration of the Chest of Cypselus (iii., plate x.) in order to realize how utterly this advance in composition has eluded the restorer of Polygnotus's Delphian frescoes. This could hardly have escaped detection by one who was sensitive to the merits as a great composition of the western pediment at Olympia. Mr. Frazer's limitation of taste in this regard reasserts itself in the impatience with which he alludes to conflicting and perhaps not very fortunate attempts to make out a scheme of the composition of the eastern pediment of the Parthenon: "The field of conjecture is boundless," says he, "and archæologists have accordingly expatiated in it" (ii., 310).

But further cavils, in this review, would be out of proportion, and might convey a totally false impression of the uniformly excellent quality of this truly monumental work. Its very freedom from misprints (in volume iii. of 652 pages there are only three obvious ones: p. 323, l. 6 from the bottom; p. 289, l. 7 from the top, and p. 548, l. 17 from the bottom), is phenomenal. In all departments of Greek archæology our author's survey is of the widest, except in Byzantine studies, which are only very incidentally involved, as in the account of Daphne, where Mr. Frazer does not distinguish himself (ii. 496); and his judgment is marvellously unbiassed. The crucial test of his open-mindedness is no doubt his treatment of the perplexed controversy about the raised stage in the Greek theatre. When he first reaches this rock of offence (ii., 222-227), he is clear but guarded, and non-committal. At Epidaurus (iii., 251-255) he has made up his own mind in favor of a raised stage and against Dr. Dörpfeld's view, but he still awaits the appearance of Dr. Dörpfeld's book; and meanwhile, in treating of the theatre at Megalopolis (iv., 330-348), he returns to a non-committal attitude. Finally, in his Addenda, (v., 581-584), he takes advantage of the appearance of Dr. Dörpfeld's book to express his complete dissent from him as to the stage, and gives his reasons in a manner which must command the respect, even if it does not secure the adhesion, of all fair-minded readers.

One final question springs unbidden to our lips when we note that Mr. Frazer's record tells of something new under the sun. Americans have worked for nearly twenty years side by side with Germans, French, and English of the other national schools at Athens. The scientific nature of the ends pursued in common has operated to discourage petty national jealousies, and there has been a manifest union of hearts from which the modern Greeks would be the last to be excluded, since their generous zeal and enthusiastic hospitality confront us on every page of Mr. Frazer's record. Guizot has aptly called the Crusades the first European event. Our question is, By what parallel designation shall we qualify these our latter-day crusades for deliverance of the holy places where, till lately, were entombed some of the most splendid monuments of the glory and greatness of man's mind?

STILLMAN'S UNION OF ITALY.

The Union of Italy. 1815-1895. By W. J. Stillman. Cambridge Historical Series. Cambridge (England): University Press. 1898.

The number of short histories of the unification of Italy increases year by year, but not more rapidly than the surpassing interest of the subject warrants. The dramatic incidents—the strong and mutually contradictory characters of Cavour, Garibaldi, Mazzini, and Victor Emanuel, that quadrilateral on which the regeneration of Italy was founded—and the difficulty of telling the complex story, will long allure historians. If we count Miss Godkin's and Mr. Edward Dicey's biographies of Victor Emanuel, Mr. Stillman's is the fifth one-volume work in English on this period. Probyn's, the earliest, is an honest, unpretentious summary, which gives the main lines of action, but makes no attempt to explore or interpret motives. Countess Martinengo-Cesaresco's 'Liberation of Italy' excels in anecdote and in personal details, and it is, first of all, what every book should be, readable. Mr. Stillman's manual differs from both of these, and still has certain characteristics which are sure to win for it attentive consideration.

In the first place, he brings his story down to the present day, whereas the Countess Martinengo-Cesaresco and Probyn close with the death of Victor Emanuel in 1878. (In a later edition Capt. Probyn cursorily reviews Italian politics from 1878 to 1892.) In the second place, Mr. Stillman writes as an eye-witness of, if not as an active participator in, the events of the last forty years. Thirdly, his position latterly as Roman correspondent of the London *Times*, and his well-known intimacy with Signor Crispi, give his opinions an importance which cannot be gainsaid. Mr. Stillman's attitude towards Crispi is not that of the servile disciple, but of the political critic who, in his own belief, has carefully examined various policies, and has discarded all but one. We need not inquire when and by what arguments he became a Crispian—very probably he sided with this party long before Crispi assumed its leadership; the vital fact is, that he is in the position to state, authoritatively, for the first time in English, how Crispi and his followers would have us understand modern Italian history. Only Crispi's autobiography, which will probably not be published in his lifetime, can exceed, therefore, the importance of Mr. Stillman's manual as the representative utterance of the Crispians. Mr. Stillman frankly admits, in his preface, "how difficult it is for one who has lived in the midst of the events he describes and in personal relations with the actors, to keep a perfectly unbiassed mind"; but he trusts "that his personal experience of Italian life and the intimate and often confidential relations in which he has lived with some of the best and wisest of Italian public men, may confer on his work some compensating qualities which nothing else would have given it." Only a testy reader will deny that this is the case. The personal equation is precisely that which gives the book its importance.

Passing over the record of the first generation of Italy's struggle for independence, in which we note that Mr. Stillman judges Charles Albert harshly, we find that about 1860, when his acquaintance with Italy began, and when Crispi, as political manager of Garibaldi's Sicilian expedition, first attained prominence outside of his Republican sect, Mr. Stillman's narrative bears more and more the stamp of personal experience and reminiscence. Henceforth, distrust, if not hatred, of France becomes the cardinal doctrine of his school; and nowhere do we recall seeing the apparent reasonableness of this position put more logically than here. Other historians of Italy have regarded Austria and the Papacy as the two great opponents of national unity and independence in the nineteenth century. Mr. Stillman seems to believe, however, that it would have been better for Italy not to have got Napoleon Third's aid in 1859, because, although she thereby immediately freed Lombardy from Austria, she was forced to cede Savoy and Nice, and fell into a sort of chronic subservience to France. As early as 1849 the French showed their real animus towards Italy by sending Oudinot's army to crush the Roman Republic and restore Pius IX.; later symptoms of this animus are discernible in their preventing the Italian fleet from capturing Gaeta, 1859-60; in maintaining their garrison in Rome, except for a brief interval, until the summer of 1870; in outwitting the Italians in the North African competition, which ended with the establishment of the French protectorate over Tunis; in constant underhand machinations with the Vatican, by which the Italian Government has been embarrassed in its foreign affairs, and the Church has been able to sow discord against the State; in the secret abetting, with the connivance of Russia, of the Abyssinian resistance to Italian colonization. This is but an abstract of the bill of grievances which the Crispians have drawn up against France. Far less than this, Mr. Stillman thinks, would justify Italy's participation in the

Triple Alliance, an act by which she retaliated as best she could against Gallic insolence. To one holding this view, it is natural that Sig. Crispi, whose policy has been as consistently anti-French as that of Blaine and his followers here was anti-English, should personify the soundest Italian statesmanship of the time. The present reviewer has still to be convinced that the Triple Alliance has benefited Italy, but as he is bent on calling attention to Mr. Stillman's conclusions, and not on controverting them, he need not discuss these main lines further.

He cannot forbear, however, from asserting that Mr. Stillman, who usually treats Cavour fairly enough, errs when he implies that the Italians inherited from Cavour their much-deplored subservience to France. Cavour did, indeed, use France most effectively in 1859, but this did not prevent him, a few months later, from defying Napoleon III. Cavour was the greatest, because the most successful, of opportunists, and to imagine that he would cling to a policy which had once been advantageous, but was proved harmful, is not to understand him. He would have abandoned the French and sworn friendship with Hottentots or Patagonians if he had assured himself that they could serve his plans better. Those who came after him and failed where he succeeded, can hardly excuse themselves by throwing the blame on him. Thus Rattazzi, in 1862, connived at Garibaldi's expedition, as Cavour had done in 1860; but the result simply proved again the wide chasm that divides imitative talent from original genius.

In one other respect Mr. Stillman surprises us in his treatment of Cavour. He discovers, what certainly Cavour's bitterest enemies have not hitherto discovered, that Cavour was "a poor judge of men" (pp. 323, 325). The apparent source of this opinion is Cavour's refusal to hand Sicily and Naples over to Crispi in 1860. The mere suggestion that Cavour should have done so, implies a forgetfulness of the fact that Crispi, the monarchical minister of 1895, was not at all the same person as Crispi, the Republican conspirator of 1860. And, after all, in these latter years when Crispi has had almost dictatorial power, he has never shown first-class administrative ability. His chief administrative triumph was in suppressing the Sicilian insurrection five years ago. But then, as Cavour said, "*any one* can govern by a state of siege." And as to whether Cavour was a good judge of men or not, who were the men of his own and of the younger generation whom he especially marked for his confidence? Were they not Lamarmora, Ricasoli, Farini, Boncompagni, Minghetti, Castelli, Nigra, Visconti-Venosta, Lanza, and Sella? He used many others, because they seemed most eligible for the work of the moment, but the above group comprised the real Cavourians; and can anybody name another, superior in ability and integrity, that has or might have ruled Italy since 1861?

We lay stress on these points because there is a tendency among many persons who, like Mr. Stillman, are disappointed at the actual condition of Italy, to belittle the work of Cavour and the men of the heroic period. But this is no more just than to impute to Lincoln all the folly and failure and sins which the party to which he belonged has committed since his death.

We lack space to discuss other questions started by reading Mr. Stillman. His book, it will be seen, is thoroughly alive and almost forces its readers to take sides: that, of course, is the penalty of dealing vigorously with living issues. We note that Mr. Stillman, although he does not mention King Humbert by name, attributes to "Court" influence many of the errors and mishaps in the last twenty years. He also dispels the notion that the remedy for existing conditions is a republic. Of Italy at present we may say, as of Tammany-ruled Greater New York, that the Constitution and laws are good enough, but that the people do not care to have them honestly administered. Mr. Stillman closes by confessing himself a pessimist, but he is too wise to prescribe a republic as a cure.

Several maps and a partial bibliography add to the usefulness of the manual. The proof-reading, as is so often the case in books printed in England and dealing with foreign proper names, leaves much to be desired.

Cromwell's Scotch Campaigns: 1650-51. By W. S. Douglas. London: Elliot Stock. 1898.

Mr. Douglas's reason for writing this long monograph is that Carlyle, Robert Chambers, and Dr. Gardiner have not, separately or together, described "all the essential moves in Cromwell's Scotch Campaigns of 1650-51." Gardiner has considered Cromwell's strategy before the battle of Dunbar, but not even he has entered exhaustively upon Leslie's tactics during the same period; and as for those subsequent operations whereby the Scotch general succeeded for a time in thwarting English effort, he, like other modern authorities, holds his peace. Mr. Douglas approaches this subject with the avowed purpose of treating it in "drum and trumpet style." He does not regard it with an eye to its place in the "national struggle for Protestant 'uniformity' or reunion on a Presbyterian basis." He connects it neither with the last efforts of Scottish independence, nor with the personal fortunes of the Stuarts. All these various considerations are kept in strict subjection to the military questions involved. If "politico-religious movements in court and camp and council-tent" appear in the text at all, it is solely because they affect the course of tactics.

After a few short introductory chapters which give the episode a setting, Mr. Douglas divides the bulk of his narrative into three sections, each of them ending with a contest at arms—Dunbar, Hamilton Fight, and Inverkeithing. There can be no doubt that, viewed in relation to historical values, the first section ranks before the others in point of importance as well as in point of time. The preliminaries (though not in themselves precipitate) are more striking, the issue more delicately poised in the balance, and the event more dramatic. But, on the other hand, the province which Mr. Douglas has claimed for his own extends from the Kirk's defeat at Dunbar to John Lambert's triumph at Inverkeithing. We restrict our notice to this portion of the work, since, while less memorable, it is less familiar, and especially since it is the author's distinctive and individual addition to Cromwellian literature.

The battle of Worcester was fought on September 3, 1651, precisely a year after the battle of Dunbar. Almost equally symmetrical is the chronology of Cromwell's Scotch campaigns from his invasion, July 22, 1650, to the "battell beside Pitreavie," July 20, 1651. The skirmishing previous to Dunbar occupied six weeks, and the next main part of the operations—that closed by Hamilton Fight—extends to December 1. This period witnessed many bickerings among the Scots and many new schemes of policy, proposed in turn by all factions from the ultra-Royalists to the radical Presbyterians (like Strachan and Ker) who favored an accommodation with Cromwell. The conservative Kirk leaders had been shorn of their reputation with the masses by the disaster at Dunbar, and still they clung to the hope that they might "effect the triumph of Presbyterianism over Independency, while keeping the claims of Royalism, which they ostensibly supported, in strict subordination to their own hierarchical pretensions." Although the English held Edinburgh town and were besieging the Castle, Scotch controversial obstinacy was such that no common basis of agreement could be reached. Cromwell received reinforcements from home and marched across the country to Glasgow. National cohesion was not induced even by this masterful act. The "Westland Party" under Strachan was willing to promise that if Cromwell withdrew from Scotland, the English Independents should henceforth be unmolested by their northern neighbors; but he could not offer sound guarantees, and Cromwell required tangible fruit of his success. Through the autumn of 1650, debates and negotiations throve while campaigning languished. At the beginning of winter a change of attitude is observable; the national groups draw together; the Remonstrants are discredited; and, after the engagement at Hamilton Town, Cromwell's Scottish enemies rally for a final effort in Charles II.'s behalf.

More than seven months elapsed between this reunion of discordant elements and Cromwell's departure from Scotland in pursuit of the Stuart king who was trying to win his realm. Mr. Douglas dwells little on the great commander's character, but traces his policy and his military movements with minute pains. He also discovers a minor hero in Cromwell's Titus Labienus, John Lambert. The concluding section of the book gains freedom and animation by its release from the tiresome topic of Presbyterian feuds. The interest centres in Fife, which Cromwell made the scene of war, and, despite a paucity of sharp engagements, the fighting is not without brave incidents; *e. g.*, the defence of Linlithgow, the siege of Hume Castle, and the affair of Larbert Bridge. But above all other frays of the twelvemonth between Dunbar and Worcester looms the English victory at Inverkeithen. Here the skill was Lambert's, the superb devotion that of the Clan Maclean.

"They stood up, though in ever-diminishing numbers, to repeated charges of the English; and . . . the contest only ended when their leader and nineteen-twentieths of the clansmen had given up their lives under the sabres of Lambert's troopers. What has made the occurrence as famous as the courage of the actors in it entitled it to become, is the preservation of a phrase. 'Another for Hector!' [Sir Hector Maclean of Duart] was the cry with which 'no less than eight gentlemen of the name of Maclean' rushed upon their death; and the heroic catchword has passed into a proverb."

Mr. Douglas's notes are extensive and make it possible for the reader to verify his authorities at short intervals. Besides memoirs and letters, which he has used freely, the London newspapers of that day have proved copious sources of information. *Mercurius Politicus*, for instance, is cited at the foot of almost

every page. By a singular oversight the volume is wholly destitute of maps and plans. Owing to the large amount of topographical detail which is needed for the explanation of military movements, the narrative abounds with unfamiliar references, and the ordinary historical atlas does not supply the means of clearing them up. Otherwise grounds of censure are few. Mr. Douglas's style is sometimes more diffuse and vivacious than is common with writers on tactics, and his habit of quoting French phrases amusingly recalls the ancient alliance between France and Scotland; but his research has been careful, his sense of proportion is just, and by infectious enthusiasm he arouses a degree of interest which the purely technical writer would fail to elicit.

Les Populations Finnoises des Bassins de la Volga et de la Kama. Par Jean N. Smirnov. Études d'ethnographie historique traduites du russe et revues par Paul Boyer. Première Partie. Paris: Leroux.

We have here a very solid contribution to the ethnology and folk-lore of the Finnish races. To the majority of readers this subject is a *terra incognita*, for the most valuable works upon it have appeared in sealed languages. The Magyars naturally feel a considerable curiosity about the language and customs of their congeners, and Russia counts among her population a great number of Ugro-Finnish tribes—the Finns proper, the Esthonians, the Tcheremissians, Mordvins, Ziranians, etc. In the field of philology the best work done (by Castrén, Ahlqvist, Hunfalvy, Donner, and others) must be sought in the Transactions of Russian and Hungarian learned societies and reviews. It was, therefore, a happy idea of M. Paul Boyer, professor in L'École des Langues Orientales at Paris, to make some of these works accessible to a wider circle of readers. But he has done more than translate on the present occasion from the Transactions of the Society of Archæology, History, and Ethnography in connection with the University of Kazan. He has put into shape and reduced to order a quantity of materials which had been published in a somewhat confused manner. Possessing those gifts of style which seem indigenous in his countrymen, he has made a very readable book, for which all folk-lorists and ethnologists owe him a debt of gratitude.

The first instalment of his work deals with the two Ugro-Finnish peoples, the Tcheremissians and Mordvins, who inhabit the eastern part of Russia, and are the remains of powerful tribes that once spread over a much greater extent of territory than they at present occupy. They are all undergoing a gradual process of Russification; this change has extended to religion, language, the names of their villages, and their dress. But many pagan customs are to be found among them, and the missionaries (as we so often find them doing) have incorporated what they safely could of the creeds of the natives. There always has been an abundance of strange beliefs among the Finnish races, and we cannot wonder that Lapland in the middle ages had the same reputation as Thessaly among the Greeks, nor that female soothsayers from these regions should have been brought to the bed of the dying Ivan the Terrible to prophesy his fate. Prof. Smirnov is inclined to identify the Tcheremissians with the ancient Finnish Bulgarians, the ruins of whose capital, Bolgari, may still be seen upon the banks of the Volga. The process of Christianizing them has not always been conducted after the mildest fashion, and it is pleasant to learn from Prof. Smirnov that Peter the Great relaxed some of these severities and advocated milder measures (p. 51). Not only has force been used, but bribery, and the disintegration of their nationality has been further assisted by the planting of Russian colonists among them. They are mentioned by Herberstein in his book on Russia, written at the beginning of the sixteenth century; he found them very widely spread. They have the primitive house such as is found among Finnish people, but have borrowed the style of window from the Russians. The custom among the women of decorating themselves with coins Prof. Smirnov thinks borrowed from the neighboring Tatars. They are fond of horse-flesh as a diet, and occupy themselves with fishing and agriculture. Only a few industries have been developed among them. Marriage both by capture and purchase exists. Their conception of the next world is that men lead there over again just the same lives as they did in this. Stones, plants, and trees are also held sacred among them. The dead are duly commemorated by feasts. Their prayers are entirely for material goods, and Prof. Smirnov gives a long specimen of one. They offer sacrifices. The victim must be entire, but only pieces are given to the divinity—the sacrificer and his friends consume the rest. Their creed is very flexible, and from the confused religious ideas they have gained from the Russians, they have made many new gods. Thus, hearing the word *eternal* used so much in Christian prayers, they have made a god of eternity. They have a belief in a great race of giants who preceded them.

The Mordvins, to whom the second part of Mr. Smirnov's book is devoted, are even more widely spread than the Tcheremissians. Philologists trace Gothic, Lithuanian, and Iranian elements in their language. Such Gothic as we get is of a very interesting type, and earlier in its forms than that of Ulpilas. A careful list is given of their names of animals; it is singular that the word for dog is almost the same in all the Finnish languages, but the names of the other animals differ. The Mordvins have no original names for metals. The traces of the Magyars on the left bank of the Volga are shown by the names of many of their settlements. It is here that the cradle of the Hungarian race must be sought. Until the eighteenth century, and when the immense forests which used to cover the present governments of Penza, Nizhni-Novgorod, and Simbirsk had not been cut down, the mode of life among the Mordvins was the same as Herberstein described it to be when he visited their country: "Hi in pagis passim habitant, agros colunt, victum ex ferina carne et melle habent, pellibus abundant preciosis." They seem to be somewhat gross in their diet, and to eat all kinds of animals. Their villages are arranged in a capricious fashion; there is no attempt to form anything like a street, but the houses are clustered together in twos and threes. There is a tendency now to ornament the exterior of their houses, but it is entirely from Russian influence. The women wear very elaborate headdresses, and their garments are carefully embroidered. Mr. Smirnov looks upon many of these ornamentations as entirely Byzantine and as having been handed down by tradition. The names to denote relationship argue a very primitive conception of marriage. Matriarchy, marriage by capture, and child-marriages are common enough. The old men, wherever the Mordvins have not been influenced by Christianity, are put to death as soon as they are unable to be useful. The mode of killing is by beating. The only conception of the family seems to be a group of individuals united by blood.

The customs concerning the dead are equally curious. When a man is dying, a cup of water is placed at the window because the soul, on quitting the body, desires to wash itself. Pieces of money are given to the corpse so that he may have the wherewithal to purchase what he wants in the next world. A horse is then sacrificed if it be a man who has died, and a cow in the case of a woman. The dead begins his life in the next world with the same characteristics which he has in this: for example, if he were a drunkard on earth, he is also a drunkard in the new existence. Ancestor-worship exists among the Mordvins in a highly developed form. If ancestors are neglected they will take vengeance upon the living. The Mordvin has peopled with mystic life all the forms of nature: there are spirits of the water, spirits of the wood, and all others in strict analogy, and these spirits are quite anthropomorphic. They have bodies like human beings and live and die like human beings. Their gods, in fact, are the powers of nature deified. Mr. Smirnov did not succeed, while making his researches among this people, in getting any forms of ritual employed by them.

Our author is fortunate in having such an interpreter as M. Boyer, who has absolutely recast his material, and has had the advantage, while engaged in the work, of Mr. Smirnov's coöperation. The latter not only consented to the adaptation of his book, but has also occasionally furnished fresh notes. The valuable bibliography appended to these researches has necessarily been omitted. The Russian up to this time has unfortunately been so little studied in France (and, we may add, in our own country) that a list of publications on the subject in that language would be valueless. It is a pity, however, that there are no maps.

Tom Benton's Luck. By Herbert Elliott Hamblen. Macmillan Co. 1898.

The Uncalled. By Paul Laurence Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

David Harum: A Story of American Life. By Edward Noyes Westcott. D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Hamblen is another instance of a writer who, on the strength of the success of two previous literary ventures, produces a third that reveals most distinctly his narrow limitations. In his other books, in which he had to deal with the narrative of realistic personal adventures, he left little to be desired; but so soon as he invades the field of romance, as on the present occasion, his failure is emphatic and possibly final. As in his first work, which treats of the sea, in 'Tom Benton's Luck' Mr. Hamblen avails, mainly, of that liquid medium for his flow of narrative. About a conventional plot are grouped the stock properties so

essential to a story like that of which his present essay is a typical specimen. He again puts strongly in evidence his collection of punitive implements—revolvers, capstan-bars, belaying-pins, rope-ends, boots, and fists. These are generously employed to hasten tardy movement, and to emphasize the fact that life is not all "cakes and ale."

The story is the old one of the love of man and woman. It requires for its full development all of the oceans, and portions of New England, Central America, the East Indies, and England. A remarkable sequence of events permits only once in seven years (during which time they are engaged in a bewildering game of hide-and-seek) the hero to enjoy a glimpse of a section of the back of the heroine. Ultimately, through the coincidence of a timely wreck and rescue, they are reunited in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean. To this accomplishment is necessary a succession of adventures on land and sea, rescues from imminent death unfortunately not realized, mutinies, submarine earthquakes, and physical tortures more or less intense. The conclusion is conventionally domestic and peaceful, but, in default of a mother-in-law, there is an aunt who promises to be equally effective in the near future.

A peculiar interest attaches to the latest work of Mr. Dunbar because in it he abandons the safe shelter of his specialty as the literary mouthpiece of a race almost inarticulate, and enters the open arena. His advantage, which also restricted, he flings from him, preferring the freedom of a universal choice though it must bring universal comparison, and his lance must touch those of the mightiest. There is much that is vigorous in this story of life in a small Ohio town—one of the last strongholds of a repellent and narrow orthodoxy. One indeed suspects the towns to be few, even in the South and Middle West, where a candidate for the ministry would suffer persecution because of having engaged in an amateur baseball game with his mates. But conventionalities rather than exaggerations are the weakness of the book. Tradition is more than honored in the portrait of the grim maiden who brought up the drunkard's abandoned child to the very threshold of the ministry, where outraged nature rebelled and he fell into the ranks of the uncalled. She had never "felt the soft face of a babe at her breast"; therefore she did not know that five-year-old children sometimes played on the floor; therefore fishing, kite-flying, playing marbles, and swimming were not countenanced in the boy of her adoption.

Where the narrative is unobstructed it moves swiftly, but the reader is now and then landed in a morass of the author's philosophy. This is, for the most part, so commonplace as to be fairly naïve. After the strong introductory chapter, in which scarcely a superfluous stroke blurs the sharpness of the scene, it is disappointing to come upon paragraphs, nay, pages, of reflections like the following: "Love does so much for a man," "There is no loneliness like the loneliness of the unknown man in a crowd." The author's main intention has been, however, towards conciseness, and we gain an impression of earnestness and truth in his presentation of a soul's struggle with cramping conditions.

Something to be distinctly grateful for in these days of problems is a book which ignores them all; whose author has no "views." So admirable has been Mr. Westcott's reticence that one is not even allowed to infer whether he approved the particular "gospel" of politics which David Harum read. Such pure objectivity of treatment is more than a negative merit in a book purposing to portray a type. A preface informs the reader of the circumstances under which 'David Harum' was written; of its posthumous publication. What no preface need declare is, that a lifetime of keen and sympathetic observation preceded the writing of the book. Such fixing of features, such rendering of atmospheres, are not to be compassed by the casual sojourner. Not this side the 'Biglow Papers' can a parallel be found for the humor, the good sense, the strong homely speech of David Harum, banker. It is difficult not to confess to a fondness for the New York State dialect. The speech of a thrifty, energetic, wide-awake people—New Englanders with one drop more of expansiveness — reflects these wholesome qualities. It need never become a forgotten speech while 'David Harum' endures, to whose pages the future philologist may safely turn for enlightenment on such verbal forms as "skeezicks," "nix-cumrouse," and "skinamulinks."

It is as a character sketch rather than a novel that the book makes its claims. Its other figures, beside the full-breathed vigor of David Harum himself, seem men as trees walking. The languid love-story requires a special Providence to help it out. When the scene shifts to steamer decks or Neapolitan villas, one pines for the realities of Homeville, Freeland County. But the chapters are few in which one does not hear the voice of David Harum. His reminiscences, his horse-trading anecdotes, his home-brewed philosophy, have their own charm. Nor does he ever, in his most sustained harangues, "run to emptins," though his own experience declares that while "the's a good many fast quarter hosses, them that c'n keep it up for a full mile is scurse." Realism has bored its thousands, but in 'David Harum' it has joined hands with delight.

The Study of Man. By Alfred C. Haddon, M.A., etc. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

In this volume of the "Science Series" we have a number of papers upon one or another of the many subjects into which the study of anthropology is divided. They are, as a rule, compilations from the best available sources, relating to matters as far apart as craniometry and folk-lore, and our author's object in preparing them was not to teach us anything about anthropology, considered simply as such, but to tell us what it has to say about ourselves—for "we are of more interest to ourselves than any study can be."

Regarded from this point of view, these papers are of unequal merit, for they depend, necessarily, upon the advance made in the study of each one of the different subjects, and the progress along the whole line is by no means the same. Even in those branches that have proved the most attractive, the results have not always been commensurate with the labor expended upon them. Take, for instance, those which relate to the shape and size of the head and nose, or to the color of the hair and eyes (chaps. i-iv), and, as a matter of fact, when considered separately, they help us very little in determining questions of race—the one issue that gives them importance. This fact our author (pp. 13, 54, 77, 83, 94, etc.) recognizes; and, with all due deference, it is believed that the difficulty cannot be overcome, for the reason that the conclusions to which the investigations of these subjects are supposed to lead are based upon the assumption that there is, or was, somewhere an originally pure race, with certain fixed bodily peculiarities, when, so far as we know, there is not and never has been any such thing. Even the Jews, who are, perhaps, as closely inbred as any people of whom we have record, must needs have been a composite race, for there is Biblical evidence as to the existence of the blonde, as well as the dark, type among them from the earliest times. But, while entertaining decided views upon this point, we do not wish to be understood as discrediting altogether this kind of evidence. So far are we from it that we fully admit its value, when taken in connection with other physical characters; and in chap. v., upon the ethnography of the Dordogne district, we have an example of the results that may follow from "a blending of anthropological investigations with the records of history."

Of the remaining papers, it is only necessary to say that they have a more general interest, and appeal to a larger class of readers. They, too, cover a wide field, ranging all the way from monographs on tops, kites, courting, funeral and other games, to an account of the evolution of the cart, and of the use and distribution of the bull-roarer. Upon these and other matters to which he calls attention, our author shows himself to be well informed; and he discourses of them in a manner that is at once entertaining and instructive. It is a pleasure to be able to add that among the investigators from whom he freely draws, are such well-known American scholars as Brinton, Newell, Culin, and Otis T. Mason.

In the Forbidden Land: An Account of a Journey into Tibet, Capture by the Tibetan Lamas and Soldiers, Imprisonment, Torture and Ultimate Release brought about by Dr. Wilson and the Political Peshkar Karak Sing-Pal. By A. Henry Savage Landor. With the Government enquiry and report and other official documents by J. Larkin, Esq., deputed by the Government of India. Illustrations and map. 2 vols. Harper & Bros. 1898. 8vo.

It is difficult to feel much interest in Mr. Landor's sensational account of his travels. The journey was not an important one, except to Mr. Landor himself. He crossed the Himalayas into Tibet near the fountain-head of the Indus and Brahmaputra Rivers, and followed down the valley of the latter stream for some two hundred miles. Five weeks and three days after entering the country, he was arrested by the Tibetans and taken back to the frontier. The "geographical results" which he enumerates of this journey, lasting less than two months and through a comparatively well-known region, are necessarily meagre. He claims to have established the fact that there is no connection between the lakes Rakas-tal and Manasarowar, not by the actual crossing of the dividing ridge, but by observations from a distance. Gen. Sir Richard Strachey, on the other hand, in a recent communication to *Nature*, says that he has been at the point

at which the connecting stream leaves the latter lake, "and there is no more doubt about the fact than that the Thames runs past Richmond." Mr. Landor's other scientific achievement was that he was the first European to reach the sources of the Brahmaputra; the ascent of 22,000 feet and the travelling with only two men "for so long in the most populated part of Tibet," which he includes in his summary of geographical results, being evidences merely of great pluck and endurance. The narrative of this brief journey, which included some short excursions in Indian territory, is swelled with the aid of numerous illustrations into two large and heavy volumes divided into one hundred chapters. In the second volume these average four pages each; one, the 91st, consisting of 57 lines.

Nor do the author's sufferings at the hands of the Tibetans excite our sympathy to any great degree. The very title of his book shows that he was in Tibet contrary to the wishes of the people. Again and again he was warned by the frontier guards that their lives would be the forfeit if they should permit him to pass. Under similar circumstances the year before, another English traveller, Capt. Wellby, turned back. But no such fine consideration for men simply doing their duty deterred Mr. Landor from persisting in his vain attempt to reach Lhasa. It is not strange, certainly, that they ill-treated him when he fell into their hands. Though we do not question the substantial truth of his relation, yet it is difficult not to believe that he gives an exaggerated account of some of his exploits and sufferings. He says, for instance, that he climbed to the almost unrivalled altitude of 22,000 feet, carrying a weight of sixty pounds. He reached this height at 11 P. M., succumbed to the biting wind, lay semi-conscious long enough to be covered with snow, aroused himself and his native companion, and got back to camp, about 6,000 feet below, "during the early hours of the morning," when he took food for the first time in twenty-three hours. The accuracy of Mr. Landor's estimated heights is not past question, that of the Mariam-la Pass, for example, being given by him as 17,500 feet, while on the large map of Tibet published by the Royal Geographical Society in 1894 it is only 15,500 feet.

A considerable part of the second volume is devoted to a description of the tortures inflicted on our traveller and his two servants by the Tibetans. Among other things, he was compelled to ride "for miles" with his hands bound behind him on a saddle from whose "crupper four or five sharp iron spikes were sticking out. These caught me on the small of my back." Near the end of the ride a cord was attached to his handcuffs, the other end being held by a horseman who "did his utmost to pull me out of the saddle," but unsuccessfully, he himself being unhorsed by the breaking of the cord. Lest the reader may entertain some doubts, Mr. Landor gives a picture of the "coat I wore . . . showing effects of spikes." One of his servants, after receiving two hundred lashes, he found "had remained tied upright to a post for over three days, and for four days he had not eaten food nor drunk anything." A picture of this man's legs, "showing marks of lashes," is given, while from another page a pair of leprous feet are thrust, as it were, to exhibit the injuries received by his other unfortunate follower. More interesting than these, however, are the evidences of the traveller's own ill-treatment in four contrasted photographs taken in February and October, 1897.

Mr. Landor is careful to keep before the reader the fact that his journey had a purely "scientific object," and we frequently find such statements as, "We proceeded along the right bank of the main stream to 23° 30′, then to 25°," or, "following a marked track to 125° (b. m.), we continued our descent, etc." His zeal for science was such that, though bound during his return journey, "I used," he says, "to draw my right hand out of its cuff, and, with a small piece of bone I had picked up as pen, and my blood as ink, I drew brief cipher notes, and a map of the whole route back." He gives considerable information about the lamas or monks, some of which he obtained in conversation with them, though it is surprising at least that in two months he was able to acquire the language sufficiently to converse in "colloquial Tibetan," at times apparently without the aid of an interpreter. There is nothing novel in this information, with the exception of the account of the repulsive cannibalism practised upon their dead, which, so far as our knowledge goes, has never been charged against this people by any other writer or traveller, and needs further confirmation before it can be credited. Some chapters are devoted to an interesting account of a visit to the haunts of the Raots or "wild men of the forest," and to a description of the customs of the Shokas, an Indian frontier tribe. In an appendix are printed some official documents, including affidavits mainly relating to Mr. Landor's treatment by the Tibetans. The illustrations are numerous and give to the volumes a very attractive appearance. The author, trust him or not, as we may, shows considerable descriptive power.

The Rivers of North America: A Reading Lesson for Students of Geography and Geology. By Israel C. Russell. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

According to the old conception of a river, as taught in the geographies of fifteen years ago, its most important parts are the source, the States through which it flows, and the body into which it empties; with some description of the principal towns or cities along its course. The idea of a river system having its natural history, and being part of an organized process tending to modify the surface of a continent, is one that has been developed by the new school of American geographers, and goes hand in hand with the "nature study" now so prevalent in the secondary schools. So important has become this study of earth process in this country that the American geographer is apt to overlook the commercial and human interests of geography in the fascinating contemplation of geographical evolution.

Following the publication of his attractive volumes on the lakes, glaciers, and volcanoes of North America, Prof. Russell now offers to the American public a treatise on the rivers of this continent. His thesis, and that of the American school of geography in general, is stated concisely on the third page of his prefatory remarks "to the reader":

"It is not the shape of the earth as it exists to-day, the present distribution of land and water on its surface, or the relief of the land or of the floor of the sea, but the changes that each of these conditions has passed through in order to reach its present state, and the modifications still in progress, which claim the greatest share of the geographer's attention."

The word "American" should have been inserted before "geographer" in this sentence; compare the words of a distinguished Scotch geologist, the author of the companion volume on 'Earth Sculpture' in the same Science Series:

"The special treatment of geographical evolution does not come within the limits of my essay. This interesting subject has of late years been studied with much assiduity, especially by Prof. W. M. Davis and others in North America."

It is clear that the interest of the British school, while still geographers, is distinctly "the shape of the earth as it exists to-day."

Prof. Russell's book might better be called a study of the physiography of rivers, with illustrations from North America. Eight chapters are devoted to a systematic statement of the laws governing the disintegration and decay of rocks, the material carried by streams, the methods of stream development and conquest, and the classification of stream deposits, illustrated rather briefly by American types, while only one chapter is given to "some of the characteristics of American rivers." This chapter, it should be mentioned, is an instructive one and extremely comprehensive. The author's plan of treating the subject in the order of dynamic process and products of deposition is a good one in view of the fact that the subject is new with respect to coördinated text-book treatment. A path-breaking work of this sort must be treated more leniently than one dealing with a subject that has long stood the test of systematic classification. It is to be hoped, however, that when the science of river erosion has attained still more advanced definition than at present, such words as "hardness," applied to rocks in the sense of resistance to erosion, may be eliminated. This resistance is affected by jointing, amount of chemical decomposition, texture, coarseness, and structure, as well as by hardness in the sense of resistance to corrasion.

The description of process occupies so large a part of the volume that the subject-matter, as indicated on the title-page, is frequently sacrificed for lack of space, and single topics are so divided up that in some cases the meaning is not clear. Take, for example, Niagara. Under the heading of "Waterfalls resulting from inherited topographic conditions," the statement is made that "Niagara, when it first leaped from the summit of the escarpment near the present site of Lewiston, was higher than at any subsequent period of its history"; and again: "Niagara Falls came into existence when a large lake, which formerly flooded the Ontario and Erie basins, was lowered so as to be divided into two water-bodies by a ridge, trending east and west, formed by the summit of the Lewiston escarpment." These two isolated statements, occurring on pages 59 and 62, will certainly arouse the reader's interest; but no explanation is offered until we reach page 298, under the heading of "Special characteristics of Niagara." In the same way the Susquehanna is mentioned on pages 194, 204, 261, and yet has no place whatever in the index. The incomplete quality of the index is unfortunate in view of the unsystematic treatment of the title subject.

The typography of the volume is on the whole good. Table A, supposed to face page 78, seems to have been entirely omitted; and

we notice under Plate ix. that the initials are inaccurate. The illustrations, drawn largely from photographs and reproduced by the half-tone process, are many of them excellent; but the reproduction of contour maps by this process is to be deplored. Thus, Plate x., reproducing Willis's beautiful map of the Susquehanna where it crosses the plunging anticlines of the anthracite basin, is so much reduced and blurred by this process that the river itself is quite inconspicuous and the lettering practically obliterated. In strong contrast with this, and very satisfactory, are the maps illustrating the development of an anticlinal valley in Plate xi., here reproduced from line drawings, with streams in a different color.

The volume, in fine, is a useful work, and cannot fail to take rank as a most important contribution to American geographical literature. The subject with which it deals has occupied American geographers for the last quarter of a century, and no one, up to this time, has produced a text-book on the evolution of river systems, though many students have been in need of one. Prof. Russell's book will fill this need, while it is at the same time attractive to the general reader, being written in popular style. The last chapter, on the "life history of a river," reads like a romance, and expresses admirably the orderly character of erosive action and the interest which the study of land-form has for students who learn to recognize stages of growth.

American Bookmen. By M. A. De Wolfe Howe. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898. Small 8vo, 295 pages.

This work is essentially a gift-book, and such publications, from the days of Annuals down, have owed their popularity to pictures. But there has been a distinction even here, since in some cases the pictures illustrated the text, while in others the text merely filled the space between the pictures. Of the first sort was 'Homes of American Authors,' published by Putnam five and forty years ago, and never surpassed, in a work of this sort, for typographical and artistic beauty. This was the book to which the late G. W. Curtis contributed his admirable descriptions of the Concord circle, full of the enthusiasm of youth, flavored with piquant but stingless humor. There have since been several other books on the same plan, but inferior in execution, and one wonders that holiday bookbuyers should take this perennial interest in the outward circumstances of persons they otherwise care little about.

In Mr. Howe's volume the illustrations are interesting, though rarely possessing any artistic merit, and the text is respectable. There is nothing at first hand, like Curtis's sketches, and our author shows no sign of future eminence in respect to his manner of writing, of which the only merit is its apparent ease. Nor does he exhibit that quality which secures pardon even for commonplace prose or personal eccentricity: the faculty, namely, of presenting a hackneyed subject in a new light. Mr. Howe is too conscientious to be fulsome in his praise, and too sensible to be acrid in his condemnation, as regards either the life or the works of his subjects. But to justify a book one must have other than negative qualities—either something new in fact or opinion, or else some special felicity of style.

There is one peculiarity about this volume, as compared with Mr. Brander Matthews's and others: the author nowhere indicates that he has read any of the works of the writers he describes. The criticism, like the facts and anecdotes, is such as might readily be compiled from easily accessible books. We have no fault to find with it, except for the absence of that freshness of phrase which shows that a writer has himself thought out the views he expresses. As to facts, he here and there betrays a sort of indolence which is not to his credit. If he never read the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table,' he could, without excessive effort, have found Holmes's famous quotation about the centre of the solar system in Bartlett, and by his aid have quoted it correctly (page 276). If he had examined 'Irvingiana,' in which the unabridged version of the anecdote is given by Duyckinck, he would not have said that Washington was President when he put his hand on the head of his little namesake. And if he had looked at so common a book as Wilson's 'Bryant,' he would have given a more correct version of the story about the publication of "Thanatopsis." Mr. Howe takes his version from Mr. Godwin's book, where the source is given as a conversation between R. H. Dana and Mr. R. C. Watterson. Whether the fault was due to Dana's failing memory (the date being presumably near the close of his life), or his reporter's inaccuracy, the fact remains that this account differs materially from that written by Dana at a comparatively early date (1846). A false color, again, is sometimes given to incidents, as in the statement that "Murray was only too glad to take the 'Sketch-Book' into his own hands" (page 16); the fact being, as Bryant has shown, that "Murray allowed himself to be persuaded by Scott" into publishing it. And one does not need to be a linguist to see the absurdity of such a combination (page 21) as "Stadthouse of New Amsterdam." If Mr. Howe objected to the plain English of "town hall," why resort to such a hybrid German- (not Dutch) English wording as this? Or, if he thought that a Dutch phrase would give picturesqueness to his page, why did he not write "stadhuis"?

Nelson and his Times. By Lord Charles Beresford and H. W. Wilson. E. & J. B. Young & Co.

This work, in the words of the preface by Lord Charles Beresford, is addressed to the millions of the great British democracy, and is not intended to compete with Capt. Mahan's great work upon the same subject. It is, in truth, far from exhaustive, but it succeeds in presenting an attractive and profusely illustrated life of the British hero and, to a very much less degree, a picture of his times. We remark that the dramatic description of the execution of Admiral Byng, with which the book opens, though of interest, is not pertinent to Nelson or to the times in which he lived, as the event occurred before his birth.

It has been said by Englishmen that their naval commanders may be divided into two classes: in the one is Nelson; in the other are all the rest. Whether this be true or not, it is fully the opinion of his countrymen to the present day. Nelson's birthday and the anniversary of the battle of Trafalgar seem to grow in observance as time goes on, and strained relations with France only intensify the devotion to and ostentatious observance of the memory of the man who contributed so powerfully to the peace which has existed between these rival and neighboring countries for a period of nearly eighty years. It is only of late years that Nelson's genius for war, displayed both as a tactician and as a strategist, has been appreciated. His early promotions were undoubtedly hastened by his connection with the Walpoles and the influence of his uncle, Capt. Suckling. Without that he must have been handicapped by his physique. Sickly and undersized for his age, Nelson appeared to his contemporaries to be the least fitted of his family for the life of a sailor, but his indomitable will and courage carried him through all the trials and hardships of the sea and of war, though had he lived in the present day, as our author well says, he would almost certainly have been rejected in his physical examination for entrance. Rank and file, the navy in Nelson's day was a hard school; the officers were rough and illiterate and the men the product of the press-gang. Of this material Nelson made the most possible, not so much from fear as from attachment. The times were not altogether unlike those spoken of by Dr. Johnson when he said that no man with contrivance enough to get himself in jail would be a sailor. Desertions were so frequent that 42,000 men were logged as deserters from the navy in the first ten years of the great war with France.

Nelson's care of men throughout his career was wonderful, and explained their affection for him. No detail as to their food or clothing escaped his notice; the length of their jerseys, the dropping of a bag of biscuit overboard, the quality of their duck trousers, and the overcharges of the storekeeper occupied the mind of this tactician and strategist. He abhorred the idea of able-bodied men dying from sickness or mismanagement. At his death it was a question with many, notwithstanding the brilliant and direct results of his victory, whether the cost of it was not too dear. Lord Minto, shortly before Nelson's departure on his last cruise, said of him that it was affecting to see the wonder, admiration, and love with which he was greeted by all classes when he was seen.

To all classes in England this volume is equally addressed, and at the present moment it is likely to revive the feelings of the past for the hero who, in his career and in the field of his career, was peculiarly and surpassingly England's own.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha. 1899. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Bragdon, C. F. The Golden Person in the Heart. Gouverneur, N. Y.: Brothers of the Book.
Colman, C. S., and Windsor, A. H. The Sportsman's Year-Book. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Davis, Prof. W. M., and Snyder, W. H. Physical Geography. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Forman, S. E. First Lessons in Civics. American Book Co. 60c.
Gallet, Louis. The Adventures of Cyrano de Bergerac. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Hyatt, P. F. and J. T. Cuba: Its Resources and Opportunities. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. $1.50.
Keller, Prof. I. Second Year in German. American Book Co. $1.20.
Lodge, G. C. The Song of the Wave, and Other Poems. Scribners. $1.50.
Mowry, W. A. and A. M. First Steps in the History of Our Country. Silver, Burdett & Co. 60c.
Peabody, Josephine P. The Wayfarers. Boston: Copeland & Day.
Sarcey, Francisque. Le Siège de Paris. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Sprague, F. H. Spiritual Consciousness. Wollaston, Mass.: F. H. Sprague. $1.50.
Takenobu, Y. Classical Tales of Old Japan. Tokyo: Japan Times Office.
Van Rensselaer, Mrs. J. K. New Yorkers of the XIX. Century. F. T. Neely.
War Poems. 1898. San Francisco: Murdock Press.

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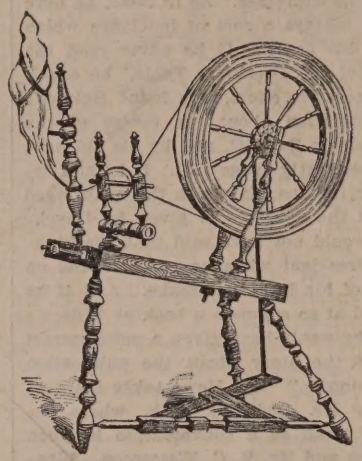

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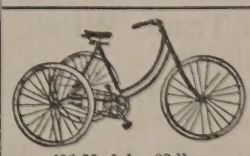

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